



Food and Agriculture
Organization of the
United Nations



Leaving no one

BEHIND

A Regional Outlook on
Gender and Agrifood Systems
AFRICA



Leaving no one

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Gender and Agrifood Systems
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KEY MESSAGES



If women have the same access to skills, resources and opportunities as men, they will be powerful drivers in the fight against hunger, malnutrition and poverty.

Empowering women in agriculture, value chains and trade will accelerate the achievement of the Malabo Commitments and the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs).

Ending hunger by 2025 in Africa is possible if we address the gender inequalities in production and reduce post-harvest losses.

It is essential to tackle food security, nutrition and rural poverty through a holistic approach that integrates the adaptation and mitigation of climate change, biodiversity, and peace and security. This is key for the empowerment of rural women.

Through partnerships, investments and concrete actions, we can improve the status of rural women.

It is estimated that 56 percent of the African population will live in urban areas by 2050. If we are to meet this growing demand for food, we must harness the full potential of women.

The African Union gender equality commitments focus on achieving 30 percent documented land ownership and 50 percent finance for women. These are prerequisites to reach the Malabo Commitments.

Giving women decision-making power within the household and the community will allow them to have access to economic opportunities. This is in line with the new Malabo indicator on women's economic empowerment in agriculture.

56%
African
population

Urban areas by
2050



CONTENTS

| | |
|--|-----------|
| KEY MESSAGES | iii |
| FOREWORD | xi |
| ACRONYMS | xiv |
| EXECUTIVE SUMMARY | xvii |
| Gender gaps and trends across Malabo commitments and Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP) | xviii |
| Recommendations | xix |
| 1 INTRODUCTION | 1 |
| 1.1 Objective of the report | 2 |
| 1.2 Concepts and methodology | 4 |
| 1.2.1 Analytical framework | 4 |
| 1.2.2 Methodology and resources | 5 |
| 1.3 Scope and organization of the report | 6 |
| 2 CONTEXT: INTERNATIONAL AND CONTINENTAL POLICY PRIORITIES FOR GENDER CONSIDERATION IN AGRICULTURE | 7 |
| 2.1 Regional development planning framework for agriculture | 8 |
| 2.2 Key political commitments and policies on agriculture and gender equality | 10 |
| 3 GOAL 2: AGRICULTURAL INVESTMENT: GENDER BUDGETING AND INCLUSIVE FINANCE | 13 |
| 3.1 Gender mainstreaming in agricultural public expenditure and NAIPs and RAIPs | 14 |
| 3.1.1 Context, commitments and needs | 14 |
| 3.1.2 Level of gender mainstreaming in agricultural budgets and investments, and good practices | 16 |
| 3.2 Financial inclusion of women in agribusiness | 22 |
| 3.2.1 Major gender constrains to inclusive finances | 23 |
| 3.2.2 Gender inequalities in access to financial services in Africa | 24 |
| 3.2.3 Gender mainstreaming in RAIPs and NAIPs and good practices | 26 |
| 4 GOAL 3: ENDING HUNGER BY 2025: FOOD INSECURITY, NUTRITION AND GENDER | 29 |
| 4.1 Food security and nutrition | 30 |
| 4.1.1 Situation of women and gender gaps in food insecurity and nutrition | 30 |
| 4.1.2 Food insecurity and nutrition: specific vulnerabilities of women | 35 |
| 4.1.3 Policy and intervention responses and results | 36 |
| 4.2 Productivity and management of natural resources | 38 |
| 4.2.1 Productivity analysis based on sector | 39 |
| 4.2.2 Access to land and forestry resources | 45 |
| 4.2.3 Sustainable and reliable inputs, technology and mechanization | 56 |
| 4.2.4 Water management systems | 60 |
| 4.3 Gender-responsive services: knowledge, research, extension, information and market- oriented services | 64 |

| | | |
|----------|--|------------|
| 4.4 | Post-harvest losses | 70 |
| 4.4.1 | Context and policy commitments | 70 |
| 4.4.2 | Gender and post-harvest losses: women's roles and vulnerabilities | 71 |
| 5 | GOAL 4: HALVING POVERTY THROUGH AN INCLUSIVE VALUE CHAIN | 74 |
| 5.1 | Agricultural growth, poverty reduction, employment and gender | 75 |
| 5.1.1 | Overall context and policy commitments | 75 |
| 5.1.2 | Estimating poverty and income gender gaps in Africa | 76 |
| 5.1.3 | Key sources of gender gaps in income and poverty | 78 |
| 5.2 | Youth employment and gender | 82 |
| 5.2.1 | Youth employment and agriculture: key facts and policy considerations | 82 |
| 5.2.2 | Youth employment and gender | 84 |
| 5.2.3 | Addressing gender gaps in youth employment in agriculture: constraints and best practices | 85 |
| 5.3 | Empowerment of women, from household to national levels | 86 |
| 5.3.1 | Concept, importance and policy consideration of women's empowerment | 86 |
| 5.3.2 | Women's empowerment in agriculture along the Malabo gender indicator | 88 |
| 5.3.3 | Women decision-making power in the household and with regard to agricultural holdings | 89 |
| 5.3.4 | Gender-based violence (GBV) and women empowerment from household to society level | 91 |
| 5.3.5 | Women and time allocation: triple work burden, weak rural infrastructure and implications for agricultural productivity and time poverty | 96 |
| 5.3.6 | Women leadership and voice in rural institutions and policy decision-making | 98 |
| 5.3.7 | Factors contributing to weak empowerment at the household level and examples of approaches to address it | 99 |
| 5.4 | Inclusive value chains, public-private partnership and gender | 103 |
| 5.4.1 | Women's participation in AU commodities value chains and PPPs: roles and constraints | 104 |
| 5.4.2 | Addressing gender constraints through inclusive PPPs and value chain programmes | 107 |
| 6 | GOAL 5: BOOSTING INTRA-AFRICAN TRADE IN COMMODITIES AND SERVICES | 112 |
| 6.1 | Context and importance of trade for African development | 113 |
| 6.2 | African trade potential: roles and specific gender issues | 114 |
| 6.3 | Policy considerations to enhance women's intra-African trade potential: gender-sensitive infrastructure and institutional frameworks | 117 |
| 7 | GOAL 6: RESILIENCE TO SHOCKS AND CLIMATE VARIABILITY | 120 |
| 7.1 | Context, scope and commitments | 121 |
| 7.1.1 | Weather-related risks, conflicts, disasters and gender implications | 123 |
| 7.1.2 | Resilience-building and disaster risk reduction policy interventions and gender considerations | 125 |
| 7.1.3 | Social protection, safety nets and gender | 129 |
| 7.2 | Resilience to climate change variability and enhancement of climate change adaptation and agricultural sustainability | 132 |
| 7.2.1 | Gender and climate change in Africa | 134 |
| 7.2.2 | Level of gender mainstreaming in climate change policies and programmes across Africa | 135 |

| | | |
|-------------------|--|------------|
| 8 | GOALS 1 AND 7: PROCESS, INSTITUTIONS, ACCOUNTABILITY AND ACTIONS | 136 |
| 8.1 | Gender mainstreaming in national and regional CAADP process and coordination mechanisms | 138 |
| 8.1.1 | Gender in CAADP process: need to ensure participation and reinforce women's voice | 138 |
| 8.1.2 | Gender inclusion in institutionalized coordination mechanisms for NAIP implementation | 140 |
| 8.2 | Gender machineries and capacities at the national and regional levels to mainstream gender in agriculture | 141 |
| 8.3 | Accountability mechanisms at the international and continental levels in the AU | 143 |
| 8.3.1 | International and continental gender accountability frameworks | 143 |
| 8.3.2 | CAADP accountability frameworks and gender | 145 |
| 8.4 | Gender in agricultural M&E systems and statistics | 147 |
| 8.4.1 | Agricultural M&E systems are not sufficiently gender-sensitive | 147 |
| 8.4.2 | Sex-disaggregated data remain limited in agriculture and do not cover important policy domains | 148 |
| 8.4.3 | International and continental efforts to enhance collection of comparable sex-disaggregated data | 149 |
| 9 | CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS | 151 |
| 9.1 | Summary of gender gaps and constraints faced by women | 152 |
| 9.2 | Recommendations | 157 |
| 10 | REFERENCES | 164 |
| | List of Country Gender Assessments (still being updated) | 169 |
| | Websites | 171 |
| APPENDICES | | |
| | Appendix 1: Regions of the African Union | 172 |
| | Appendix 2: CAADP country scorecard for Malabo evaluation 2018 | 173 |
| | Appendix 3: NAIP Toolkit 2018: gender extract | 174 |
| | Appendix 4: Gender glossary from AU gender strategy 2017–2027 and UN Women glossary | 176 |
| FIGURES | | |
| Figure 1: | Importance of agriculture in Africa: review of agricultural employment and rural population | 2 |
| Figure 2: | Urban and rural population ratio in 2015 | 2 |
| Figure 3: | Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment (GEWE) Framework | 5 |
| Figure 4: | Level of gender mainstreaming across NAIPs in 38 countries across sub-Saharan Africa | 20 |
| Figure 5: | Assessment of specific parameters related to gender mainstreaming across NAIPs in 38 countries in sub-Saharan Africa | 20 |
| Figure 6: | Evolution of account ownership in Northern Africa (NA) and sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) since 2011 | 24 |
| Figure 7: | Evolution of borrowing rates from financial institutions in Northern Africa (NA) and sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) since 2011 | 24 |
| Figure 8: | Social gaps in account ownership in Africa | 25 |

| | |
|--|-----|
| Figure 9: Prevalence of wasting among boys and girls (average for 2008–2017) | 33 |
| Figure 10: Anaemia in women of reproductive health (2003–2016) | 34 |
| Figure 11: Prevalence of obesity among female and male adults across African regions in 2017 | 35 |
| Figure 12: Adult female obesity from 2003 to 2016 | 35 |
| Figure 13: Evaluation of progress made against global nutrition targets | 37 |
| Figure 14: Gender gaps and potential gains from gender equality in agriculture | 40 |
| Figure 15: Gender gaps in large livestock ownership in female, male and mixed households | 42 |
| Figure 16: Gender gaps in total tropical livestock unit held in female, male and mixed households | 42 |
| Figure 17: Male and female employment in fisheries and aquaculture in sampled countries | 44 |
| Figure 18: Share of agricultural land ownership type for male (average from dataset spanning 2010–2017) | 48 |
| Figure 19: Share of agricultural land ownership type for female (average from dataset spanning 2010–2017) | 48 |
| Figure 20: Distribution of agricultural land area for female, male and joint ownership | 49 |
| Figure 21: Total number of land deals in Africa (2016) | 53 |
| Figure 22: Share of female, male and mixed households using inorganic fertilizers | 57 |
| Figure 23: Share of female, male and mixed households using mechanical equipment | 57 |
| Figure 24: Total availability and dependence on water resources | 61 |
| Figure 25: Total population with access to drinking water | 61 |
| Figure 26: Interface between water and food security | 62 |
| Figure 27: Percentage of farm households with access to agricultural training or extension | 66 |
| Figure 28: Per capita food losses and waste, at consumption and pre-consumption stages, in different regions | 70 |
| Figure 29: Type of food losses across major value chains in Africa | 71 |
| Figure 30: Gender gaps in gross national incomes per capita across African regions | 77 |
| Figure 31: Distribution of households based on sex composition of households | 78 |
| Figure 32: Gender gaps in labour participation and unemployment (ILO modelled estimate 2015–2017) | 79 |
| Figure 33: Gender gaps in vulnerable, agricultural and waged employment (ILO modelled estimate, 2015–2017) | 79 |
| Figure 34: Gender gaps in literacy across African regions (average 2010–2017) | 81 |
| Figure 35: Gender disparities in labour participation, unemployment and literacy in youth | 85 |
| Figure 36: Participation of women in selected household decision mechanisms from 2003–2010 to 2011–2017 | 89 |
| Figure 37: Women’s acceptance of domestic violence in households (2011–2017) | 93 |
| Figure 38: Evolution of women’s acceptance of domestic violence from 2003–2010 to 2011–2017 | 93 |
| Figure 39: Framework for analysing time use and time poverty in SSA | 96 |
| Figure 40: FAO’s gender-sensitive value chain framework | 107 |
| Figure 41: Share of products in total agricultural exports in Africa in 2014, in millions of USD | 115 |
| Figure 42: Linkages between social protection interventions and women’s empowerment | 129 |
| Figure 43: Example of availability of sex-disaggregated data across agricultural sectors in ECOWAS | 149 |
| Figure 44: Key direct and indirect drivers of Gender Gaps (GG) in CAADP impact indicators | 155 |
| Figure 45: Entry points for gender mainstreaming in the NAIP programme cycle | 161 |

TABLES

| | |
|---|----|
| Table 1: Gender-responsive budget categories required to achieve gender equality and women’s empowerment in agriculture | 16 |
| Table 2: Share of female and FHHs in cattle ownership across sample countries in SSA | 41 |
| Table 3: Incidence and proportion of female landownership | 47 |

| | | |
|-----------|--|-----|
| Table 4: | Average land size for men and women in a few countries | 49 |
| Table 5: | Access to advisory services and agricultural research expenditure | 66 |
| Table 6: | Percentage of women public extension staff in selected countries (2012) | 67 |
| Table 7: | Share of FHHs in SSA countries | 91 |
| Table 8: | Proportion of time spent on unpaid domestic and care work (percentage of 24-hour day) | 97 |
| Table 9: | Trends of participation in the commodity value chain | 105 |
| Table 10: | Capacities to come up with emergency funds and benefits of government transfers | 124 |

BOXES

| | | |
|---------|--|-----|
| Box 1: | Malabo Declaration | 8 |
| Box 2: | The CAADP Result Framework | 9 |
| Box 3: | Key political commitments | 10 |
| Box 4: | Specific gender commitments adopted by the AU | 11 |
| Box 5: | International conventions and voluntary guidelines | 12 |
| Box 6: | AU commitments regarding gender financing | 14 |
| Box 7: | Example of gender budgeting practices in SSA | 18 |
| Box 8: | Commitments advocating for equal access to finance | 22 |
| Box 9: | Example of best practices related to gender inclusion in finance across Africa | 28 |
| Box 10: | AU targets and commitments regarding food security and gender | 31 |
| Box 11: | Commitments related to productivity | 38 |
| Box 12: | AU commitments and targets related to gender and land | 46 |
| Box 13: | Trends in large-scale land investment and gender implications | 52 |
| Box 14: | Examples of good practices regarding women's access to land across Africa (from CGAs) | 54 |
| Box 15: | Examples of gender integration in water policy and interventions | 65 |
| Box 16: | Examples of gender-sensitive extension systems | 69 |
| Box 17: | Examples of political commitments to youth and agriculture in AU | 83 |
| Box 18: | AU commitments regarding women's empowerment and participation | 87 |
| Box 19: | Examples of how GBV has been addressed in the community and in value chains | 95 |
| Box 20: | Examples of household and community approaches to empower women at the household level | 101 |
| Box 21: | Family farm status and gender | 102 |
| Box 22: | AU commitments to value chain and gender | 104 |
| Box 23: | Examples of gender-sensitive value chain studies showing the constraints women face in major AU commodities | 106 |
| Box 24: | Examples of initiatives promoting women's empowerment in the value chain | 110 |
| Box 25: | Commitments, targets and status on trade | 113 |
| Box 26: | Case studies of initiatives promoting women's access to market and trade | 118 |
| Box 27: | Selected AU commitments to resilience at the continental and international levels | 122 |
| Box 28: | Example of gender integration in resilience-monitoring and alert mechanisms | 126 |
| Box 29: | Country examples of gender-sensitive vulnerability reduction strategies | |
| Box 30: | Example of gender integration in social protection programmes in AU | 131 |
| Box 31: | Political and financial commitments to gender and climate change | 133 |
| Box 32: | Commitments related to accountability, institutions and gender machineries | 137 |
| Box 33: | Examples of initiatives to reinforce women's voices and their participation in CAADP programme cycles | 139 |
| Box 34: | International and continental accountability mechanisms on gender and agriculture | 144 |
| Box 35: | Examples of gender-sensitive M&E | 148 |
| Box 36: | Experience of the ROPPA observatory farm in collecting evidence on rural women | 150 |

FOREWORD



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The year 2020 is an important landmark for the promotion of gender equality and the empowerment of rural women and girls in the drive towards achieving the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), Africa’s Agenda 2063, and the Malabo Declaration on “Accelerated Agricultural Growth and Transformation for Shared Prosperity and Improved Livelihoods”. It marks the 25th anniversary of the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action, the 20th anniversary of the United Nations Security Council Resolution 1325 on women, peace and security, and the first five-year review of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), within the Decade for Family Farming launched in 2019.

In Africa, women are critical agents of change in the fight against rural poverty, hunger and malnutrition. They are the backbone of their households, communities, and rural economies covering important roles in food production, processing and marketing, and also in the nutrition of the family.

However, with food systems rapidly modernizing and dramatic effects of climate change and environmental degradation becoming the “new normal”, they continue to face multiple challenges due to persisting gender discriminations. Over the years, remarkable political commitments to improve women’s condition and status have been made, but substantial gender gaps still remain in the access and control over productive resources and assets, services and markets. Overcoming these challenges will require addressing the root causes of gender inequalities through innovative and gender-transformative approaches.

According to FAO’s latest estimates (SOFI, 2019), the number of people suffering from hunger has risen again to 820 million – the same number we had in 2010. Just this data – and the awareness that we lost a decade of progress – is sufficient to underscore the immense challenge of achieving the Zero Hunger target by 2030. The situation is most alarming in sub-Saharan Africa, where the number of undernourished people has steadily increased since 2014, peaking to 237 million in 2018.

These findings are in line with the 2019 SDG report. It shows that we are still lagging behind in achieving the SDGs, as the global response has not been ambitious enough. Despite the commitment to “leave no one behind”, we are still failing to protect the rights and meet the needs of the most vulnerable.

Eliminating gender inequality and empowering rural women are pivotal to overcome these worrying trends. The business case for investing in women has never been stronger: a large body of global and national evidence clearly show the economic and social benefits of women's increased participation in agricultural development.

The promotion of gender equality and empowerment of rural women and girls is central to the African Union's and FAO's mandates towards inclusive agricultural growth, shared prosperity, and Zero Hunger. We are, therefore, pleased to present this *Regional Outlook on Gender and Agrifood Systems* that provides an in-depth review of status, challenges, and best practices in empowering women in priority areas of the Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP) and the Malabo Declaration.

We believe that our
joint actions can
pave the way for a more
empowered future for
rural women and girls
in Africa, so that we can
defeat hunger, malnutrition
and rural poverty.



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The development of the *Outlook* builds on inputs from subregional reports and multistakeholder workshops implemented in the context of two regional technical cooperation projects on “Gender-responsive regional and national agricultural investment plans to achieve Zero Hunger,” which were jointly implemented by FAO, the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) and the Economic Community of Central African States (ECCAS).

The report came together through a review of 100 reports and original data and analysis compiled in 45 National Gender Profiles of Agriculture and Rural Livelihoods in Africa. These profiles were prepared jointly by FAO and Regional Economic Communities in partnership with ministries of agriculture and national institutions leading gender work in each country. Inputs from a wide range of stakeholders from the governments, UN agencies, civil society organizations (CSOs), farmers’ groups, and academia are encompassed in these reports and validated in national meetings.

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Acronyms

| | |
|-----------------|---|
| AEB | Africa Economic Brief |
| AfDB | African Development Bank |
| AFRISTAT | The State of Food and Agricultural Statistical Systems in Africa |
| AGIR | Global Alliance for Resilience Initiative |
| AgGDP | Agriculture Gross Domestic Product |
| AGVSAN | <i>Analyse Globale de la Vulnérabilité, de la Sécurité Alimentaire et de la Nutrition</i> |
| AMU | Arab Maghreb Union |
| ANaF | <i>Association Nationale des Femmes Agricultrices</i> |
| AQUASTAT | FAO's Global Information System on Water and Agriculture |
| AU | African Union |
| AUC | African Union Commission |
| av | average |
| BFA | Beijing Platform for Action |
| CA | Central Africa |
| CAR | Central African Republic |
| CAADP | Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme |
| CEDAW | Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women |
| CdR | <i>Caisses de résilience</i> |
| CFS | Committee on World Food Security |
| CGA | Country Gender Assessment |
| CNOP | <i>Coordination Nationale des Organisations Paysannes</i> |
| CNCR | <i>Conseil National de Concertation et de Coopération des Ruraux</i> |
| COMESA | Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa |
| COP | Convention of the Parties |
| CSA | Central Statistical Agency |
| CSA | Climate-Smart Agriculture |
| CSOs | Civil Society Organizations |
| CSW | Commission on the Status of Women |
| CWA | Central and Western Asia |
| DAPSA | <i>Direction de l'Analyse, de la Prévision et des Statistiques agricoles</i> |
| DRC | Democratic Republic of the Congo |
| EA | Eastern Africa |
| EAC | East African Community |
| ECCAS | Economic Community of Central African States |
| ECOSOC | United Nations Economic and Social Council |
| ECOWAS | Economic Community of West African States |
| FAO | Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations |
| FAW | Fall Armyworm |
| FBO | Farmer-based Organization |
| FFS | Farmer Field School |
| FHH | Female-Headed Household |
| FIAB | <i>Fédération Nationale des Industries de l'Agro-alimentaire et de transformation du Burkina Faso</i> |
| FNGPF | <i>Fédération Nationale des Groupements de Promotion Féminine</i> |
| FSN | Food Security and Nutrition |
| FTS | Food Technology Services |
| FUPRO | <i>Fédération des Unions des Producteurs</i> |

| | |
|-----------------|--|
| GACSA | Global Alliance for Climate-Smart Agriculture |
| GBV | Gender-Based Violence |
| GDP | Gross Domestic Product |
| GFRAS | Global Forum for Rural Advisory Services |
| GMS | Gender Management System |
| GEWE | Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment |
| GFP | Gender Focal Point |
| GHI | Global Hunger Index |
| GIZ | Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit (German development agency) |
| GNI | Gross National Income |
| GoZ | Government of Zimbabwe |
| GRAINE | <i>Gabonaise des Réalisations Agricoles et des Initiatives des Nationaux Engagés</i> |
| GRB | Gender-responsive budgeting |
| GRN | Government of the Republic of Namibia |
| GSARS | Global Strategy to Improve Agricultural and Rural Statistics |
| HDI | Human Development Index |
| HH | Household Head |
| HLPE | High-Level Panel of Experts on Food Security and Nutrition |
| HLPF | UN High-Level Political Forum on Food Security and Nutrition |
| ICBT | Informal Cross-Border Trade |
| ICIEG | <i>Instituto Cabo-verdiano para a Igualdade e Equidade de Género</i> |
| ICT | Information and Communication Technology |
| IDISA | <i>Indicateur de Développement et des Inégalités entre les Sexes en Afrique</i> |
| IFAD | International Fund for Agricultural Development |
| IFPRI | International Food Policy Research Institute |
| IGA | Income-Generating Activities |
| ILO | International Labour Organization |
| IHLCS | Integrated Household Living Conditions Survey |
| IPC | Integrated Food Security Phase Classification |
| IPLAS | Institute for Poverty, Land and Agrarian Studies |
| JFFLS | Junior Farmer Field and Life School |
| LAP | Land Administration Project |
| LSMS-ISA | Living Standard Measurement Survey–Integrated Survey in Agriculture |
| M&E | Monitoring and Evaluation |
| MINDCAF | <i>Ministère des Domaines, du Cadastre et des Affaires Foncières</i> |
| MDG | Millennium Development Goal |
| MHH | Male-Headed Household |
| NA | Northern Africa |
| NAS | NEPAD Agribusiness Strategy |
| NAIP | National Agricultural Investment Plans |
| NAIPFSN | National Agricultural Investment Plans for Food Security and Nutrition |
| NEPAD | New Partnership for Africa's Development |
| NGOCC | Non-Governmental Organizations Coordinating Council |
| NRI | Natural Resource Institute |
| NTFPs | Non-timber Forest Products |
| PAH | Polycyclic Aromatic Hydrocarbons |
| PHL | Post-Harvest Losses |
| PO | Producer Organizations |

| | |
|-----------------|--|
| PPP | Private–Public Partnership |
| ProDRA | <i>Programme de Développement Rural et de l’Agriculture</i> |
| RAFEP | <i>Réseau Africain des Femmes de la Pêche</i> |
| RAI | Responsible Agricultural Investments |
| RAS | Rural Advisory Services |
| RAIP | Regional Agricultural Investment Plans |
| RAIPFSN | Regional Agricultural Investment Plans for Food Security and Nutrition |
| REC | Regional Economic Communities |
| RENATAG | <i>Réseau National des Transformateurs Agricoles du Gabon</i> |
| RGA | <i>Recensement Général Agricole</i> |
| RNA | <i>Recensement National Agricole</i> |
| SA | Southern Africa |
| SDD | Sex-disaggregated data |
| SDG | Sustainable Development Goal |
| SADC | Southern African Development Community |
| SODEPAL | <i>Société d’Exploitation des Produits Alimentaires</i> |
| SOFA | The State of Food and Agriculture |
| SOFI | The State of Food Security and Nutrition in the World |
| SSA | Sub-Saharan Africa |
| STR | Simplified Trade Regimes |
| STC | Specialized Technical Committee |
| SWISSAID | Swiss Development Cooperation |
| TCP | Technical Cooperation Project |
| TCPf | Technical Cooperation Project Facility |
| UN | United Nations |
| UNDP | United Nations Development Programme |
| UNESCO | United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization |
| UNFCCC | United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change |
| UNIFEM | United Nations Development Fund for Women |
| UNWomen | United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women |
| VC | Value Chain |
| VGGT | Voluntary Guidelines on the Responsible Governance of Tenure of Land, Fisheries and Forests in the Context of National Food Security |
| WA | Western Africa |
| WB | World Bank |
| WCC | World Water Council |
| WHO | World Health Organization |
| WGDD | Women and Gender Development Directorate |

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY



Background



Almost 60 percent of the Africa's population **still live in the rural areas, making agriculture the most important sector for economic growth and employment** in most African countries. Further, when it comes to the agricultural workforce, women comprise about 50 percent (FAO, 2010) in developing countries and contribute significantly to food processing and marketing, household food security and nutrition, and natural resources management. Women are also the predominant labour providers in agribusinesses and agro-industries. However, persisting **gender inequality** inhibits productivity and food and nutrition outcomes. Embracing gender transformative approaches is, therefore, critical to achieve accelerated agricultural growth, shared prosperity, improved livelihoods and zero hunger; all of which contribute to the achievement of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs).

Africa is strongly committed to gender equality through various protocols and policies that address gender issues in agrifood systems. Agenda 2063 emphasizes the need for gender equality, parity and women's empowerment, with specific emphasis on ensuring that rural women have access to productive assets such as land, credit, inputs and financial services. The 2014 Malabo Declaration and its evaluation frameworks orient the agricultural investment framework to incorporate specific objectives to enhance women's participation in agribusiness and value chains and ensure that at least 20 percent of the rural women are empowered in terms of access to productive resources and decision-making positions at different levels.

The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, adopted in 2015, promotes a transformative agenda for gender equality and the empowerment of women in agriculture and value chains, food and nutrition security, and in the management of natural resources

in the context of climate change. The Declaration of 2015 as the "Year of Women's Empowerment and Development towards Africa's Agenda 2063" promotes women's access to productive resources, mechanization, technological innovation, education and skills development. It calls upon financial institutions to allocate 50 percent of their funds to finance women to grow their businesses from micro to macro ones.

In October 2015, a declaration was endorsed to ensure that 30 percent of the documented land rights would be allocated to African women by 2025. The Declaration on "African Year of Human Rights with Particular Focus on the Rights of Women" was adopted in July 2016 and addresses, among other issues, rural women's rights to food, land and decent employment. The new **AU Gender Strategy 2017–2027** builds on such commitments and targets, more specifically, rural women. It emphasizes a transformative approach to empower

women economically, build their resilience, nurture a gender-enabling environment and reinforce women's agency.

The "African Union Campaign to confine the hand-held hoe to the museum" was launched in June 2015 to promote women's access to labour-saving and productivity-enhancing technologies.

Based on these premises, the African Union Commission (AUC) and FAO have forged a strong partnership to advance a **transformative agenda** for gender equality and women's empowerment in agrifood systems. This study aims to review the situation of women across agricultural sectors covered by the Malabo Declaration and against AU major gender commitments in order to inform sound policies, programmes and investment plans.

Gender gaps and trends across Malabo commitments and Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP)

The **regional outlook reveals the crucial role of women in food production and food security.**

Women contribute to the family farm and often manage their own productive activities to generate income and meet household food needs. They tend

to dominate subsistence agriculture, non-timber forest products chains, small ruminant livestock and livestock feeding, and fish processing. They also dominate the transformation, conservation and small-scale marketing of agrifood products, mostly in the informal sector, including informal cross-border trade. Finally, they are primarily involved in household food and nutrition security through education and care of children, preparation of meals, diversification of household food intake through home garden and incomes and they have their own resilience mechanisms.

The regional outlook identified strong **gender gaps in most of the targets of the Malabo Declaration.** They were notably in terms of productivity, post-harvest losses, food security and nutrition, poverty and employment, and resilience to climate change. Gender gaps also affect the youth and require specific attention.

When it comes to productivity, women are less productive than men and is due to **uneven access to resources and opportunities:**

- Women have **insufficient and fragile access to land**, with short-term user rights lent by their husbands or traditional authorities. These fragile land rights can be withdrawn at any time, preventing them from engaging in long-term agricultural planning and conservation practices such as planting trees or developing irrigation systems.
- They also benefit less from **agricultural services and training** and have limited access to rural **finance** and other productive resources, technologies and infrastructures.
- They have to face several barriers in their efforts to participate in **formal and more remunerative value chains.** They are often also confined to the less remunerative nodes of the value chains (VC) that they participate in.
- They also have lower education rates, limited empowerment at household and community level, and suffer from discriminatory legal environments and prevailing patriarchal norms and customs.

Evidence shows that increasing women's income yields important dividends in enhancing the family nutrition and health, and children's school performance.

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Overall, **rural institutions and services lack gender capacities** (gender-targeting mechanisms, female staff, and gender-sensitive design), **which contribute to persisting gender gaps**. As a result, services often tend to target the male-dominated value chain nodes and sectors or do not address women's schedules and constraints (for instance, lower literacy and lower mobility). Moreover, women's organizations often cannot guarantee access to such services and fail to influence institutions to better address women's concerns.

Despite such strong gender gaps and issues, the first generation of **regional and national agricultural investment plans (RAIPS and NAIPs) insufficiently address gender issues**. They rarely integrate a thorough gender analysis based on sex-disaggregated data. The effective participation and influence of women's organizations and gender institutions in the elaboration process of such plans remains too often merely implicit. Only few NAIPs have specific gender outputs and activities, while most activities neglect gender issues, with few affirmative actions and no adequate budget dedicated to their effective implementation. Most countries do not include any measure to strengthen the institutional and technical capacities for gender mainstreaming. Further, most NAIPs do not address core transversal constraints to women empowerment in terms of social norms, unequal intra-household dynamics, unpaid care and domestic work, and limited access to relevant rural infrastructure and services, and

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decent employment. The lack of sex disaggregated data in the agriculture sector is a challenge for policy-making, planning, resource allocation and monitoring.

Recommendations

Reducing existing gender gaps is imperative for achieving Zero Hunger and sustainable development. Further, empowered women can be powerful drivers of change to lift themselves and others out of poverty, hunger and malnutrition. Gender equality and women's empowerment are critical to achieving Agenda 2063 and Malabo goals. Significant efforts are required to address structural causes of gender inequality and ensure that investments equally benefit men and women.

Based on our research, we make the following recommendations to the AU, its member countries and their technical and financial partners:

- 1. Develop gender-sensitive and gender-targeted activities in the field of food security, nutrition and resilience.** It is important to factor in the specific vulnerabilities that women face as well as their key role in guaranteeing household enhanced nutrition and resilience when developing programmes. These could include gender-targeted social protection, diversifying garden produce, developing locally nutritious products, and gender-sensitive nutrition education programmes that address intra-household dynamics and norms.
- 2. Scale up female entrepreneurship and women's economic empowerment in agribusiness** so that they can meet the growing urban market demand for high-value and differentiated products. This requires, among other actions, enhanced access to resources, gender-sensitive technology and agroprocessing facilities, strengthening of women's cooperatives and preferential procurement.
- 3. Make public-private partnership (PPP) more inclusive for women to enhance their participation in value chains** and stimulate broad-based investment. Value chain programmes could notably integrate gender analysis, affirmative action, incentive mechanisms and enhanced women participation.

4. **Ensure equitable financial inclusion of women and men** when scaling up investments in agricultural productivity, post-harvest activities, covering downstream marketing and agro-processing activities. Financial institutions must adopt innovative practices to meet 50 percent of AU targets, including innovative practices and partnership with rural institutions. Governments shall provide incentives through guaranteeing funds, specifying targets, outlining gender capacity-building programmes and making legislative arrangements.
5. **Enhance women's access to and control over land. This must be key to most agricultural activities and be included in all AU gender commitments.** Specific efforts are required to effectively mainstream the gender-sensitive framework of **Voluntary Guidelines on the Responsible Governance of Tenure (VGGT)** and the Land Policy Initiative, working on improved legal and customary frameworks, enhancing accountability, reinforcing women's voice and participation and ensuring that land institutions deliver gender-sensitive services and implementable procedures.
6. **Elevate the gender benchmarks in the planning, monitoring and accountability mechanisms of CAADP.** It requires that gender be consciously incorporated into the NAIP process and accountability; gender capacities are reinforced in agricultural institutions; and the agency of women is enhanced.
7. **Ensure a "gender data revolution"** in the agrifood sector, which will facilitate gender-sensitive diagnosis, monitoring and evaluation. It requires coordination and harmonization of efforts along existing initiatives to enhance statistics (e.g. Sustainable Development Goals [SDGs], the Global Strategy to Improve Rural and Agricultural Statistics the Global (GSARS) AFRISTAT, etc.). A dedicated observatory could be built to showcase gender data and good practices. Further, it is necessary to organize regular gender reports and ensure transparency on gender commitments.

None of the above recommendations can be implemented without effective resource mobilization.

Since the resources are relatively limited, strong political will is required to fund gender equity efforts. Specific efforts could be made to: (i) **enhance gender mainstreaming across the CAADP process** (e.g. the toolkit jointly developed by AU and the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) Agency); (ii) **elaborate regulations and guidelines on gender-sensitive budgeting, women participation and affirmative action on AU targets** (30percent land, 50 percent finances and so forth); (iii) **allocate more financial and human resources to gender units in agricultural institutions.**

To elucidate further, the resource mobilization strategy must secure resources within existing programmes through proper gender mainstreaming, and mobilize specific resources to support the gender management system to fill core gaps.

Finally, such efforts cannot be achieved alone but require partnerships and coordination.

- **Multisectoral programmes** need to be developed with other institutions to tackle gender issues that go **beyond the agricultural sectors** (for example rural infrastructure, education). Joint programmes could be developed with media and teaching institutions to applaud positive rural women's models and promote dialogue on constraining norms.
- **Specific flagship programmes** can help develop capacities, exchanges of practices, and provide incentives for countries parallel efforts **on key gender priorities related to agriculture for AU.** The goals include access to land (30 percent), access to finance and mobile banking revolution (50 percent), access to technology (AU initiative "to ban the hoe), enhanced support to the post-harvest sector and women's empowerment (20 percent target).
- **Specific programmes on continental/regional women's value chains** require multiple partnerships along the value chains, from producing countries to consuming ones.



Introduction



1.1 Objective of the report



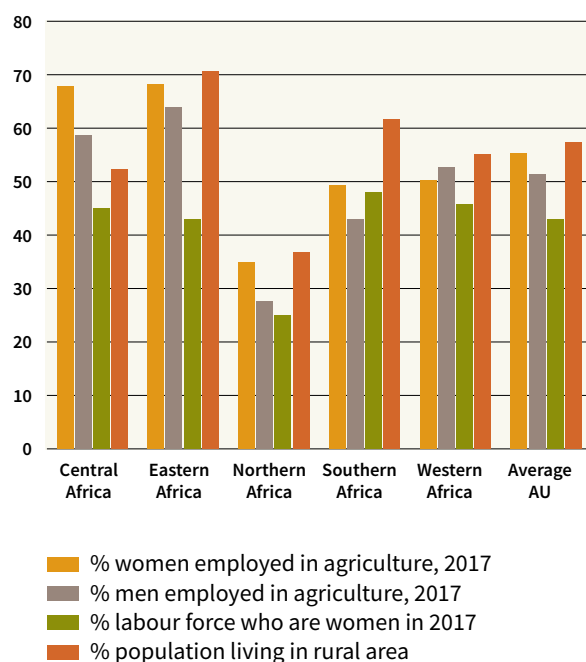
Around 60 percent of the African population **still live in rural areas, with agriculture being the most important sector driving economic and employment growth** (Figure 1). To be more precise, 35 percent of the population in Northern Africa, between 50 and 60 percent in Southern, Western and Central Africa and up to 70 percent in Eastern Africa live in rural areas. The agricultural sector employs over 50 percent of the continent’s labour force, about 30 percent in Northern Africa, around 45 percent in Southern Africa, 50 percent in Western Africa and over 60 percent in Central and Eastern Africa (see Figure 1 and Figure 2).

In most subregions, more women are employed in agriculture than men, except in Western Africa. Women’s contribution is even higher when accounting for activities downstream and upstream, including food processing, marketing and food businesses. They are also the frontline nutrition caregivers in the family, producing, storing, cleaning and cooking the food for consumption and caring for the welfare of infants, young children, elderly and other family members. However, women still eat the least, in fact, last in many communities, and

are detrimentally impacted by food taboos. During a disaster or crisis, the role of women in providing food and care for the family becomes even more critical, depending on the impact, resource scarcity and knowledge of coping strategies.

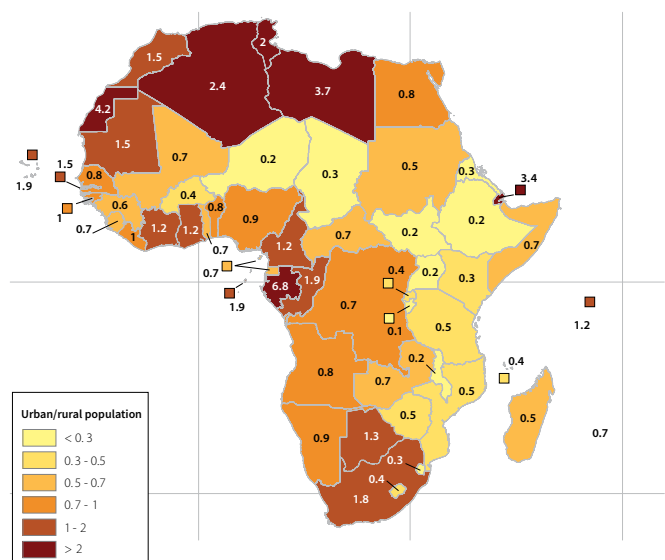
Africa is strongly committed to gender equality through various protocols and policies that address gender issues in agrifood systems. Agenda 2063 emphasizes the need to fully empower women in all spheres, with equal social, political and economic rights, and for rural women to have access to productive assets such as land, credit, inputs and financial services (AUC, 2015b). The 2014 Malabo Declaration orients agricultural policies and investment frameworks to encourage

Figure 1: Importance of agriculture in Africa: review of agricultural employment and rural population



Source: World Bank, 2018.

Figure 2: Urban and rural population ratio in 2015



Source: Pesche, Losch and Imbernon, 2016.

women's participation in agribusiness and value chains. More specifically, its evaluation framework, adopted in 2017, targets that 20 percent of the rural women should be empowered through access to productive resources and participation in decision-making at different levels. The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, adopted in 2015, promotes a transformative agenda for gender equality and the empowerment of women across all the sustainable development goals (SDGs). Gender is strongly included in agriculture, value chains, food and nutrition security, and the management of natural resources in the context of climate change (in particular in SDGs 1, 2, 5).

The African Union (AU) has strong **regional policy and investment frameworks governing agricultural development** and management of natural resources. **The Malabo Declaration** on “Accelerated Agricultural Growth and Transformation for Shared Prosperity and Improved Livelihoods” was adopted by the AU Summit in June 2014¹, and provides the region with ambitious goals. The Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP) adopted a new result framework and implementation guidelines to facilitate the development of a second generation of regional and national agricultural investment frameworks aligned to the Malabo Declaration and other commitments (AUC and NEPAD 2015, AUC and NEPAD, 2016a). A first evaluation report tracking the progress of countries in achieving the Malabo goals and its associated CAADP indicators was released in 2018 (AUC, 2018a). However, only two indicators are related to gender: one is dedicated to measure women's empowerment and the other measures the specific nutrition level of women. Therefore, there is the need to further evaluate the situation of women and gender equality across the various sectors covered by the Malabo Declaration to better inform future policies and programmes.

Building on the Malabo Declaration, **specific commitments have been outlined in the agricultural sector**. The Declaration of 2015 as the Year of Women's Empowerment and Development towards (achieving) Africa's Agenda 2063” sought to promote **women's access to productive resources, mechanization, technological innovation, education and skills development, and financial inclusion** in

agribusiness. It also called upon financial institutions **to allocate 50 percent of their funds to finance women** to grow from micro to macro businesses. The “African Union Campaign to confine the hand-held hoe to the museum” was launched in June 2015 in Johannesburg during the African Union Summit. In October 2015, the AU Specialized Technical Committee (STC) on Agriculture, Rural Development, Water and Environment endorsed a **target of allocating 30 percent of the documented land rights** to African women by 2025. The Declaration on “African Year of Human Rights with Particular Focus on the Rights of Women” was adopted at the AU Summit in July 2016 in Kigali. It addresses the protection and promotion of women's rights, including **rural women's rights to food, land and decent employment**.

These commitments provide a strong foundation to the **new AU Gender Strategy 2017–2027** adopted in May 2018 by the AU Specialized Technical Committee on Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment (STC-GEWE). It succeeds the AU Gender Policy of 2009 and takes cognizance of the various advancements related to gender commitments, including the SDGs (AUC, 2018b).

Monitoring these various political commitments to inform AU's agricultural growth trajectory requires a robust knowledge management system and baselines to track progress over time. Based on these premises, the AUC and FAO have forged a strong partnership to advance a transformative agenda for gender equality and women's empowerment in agrifood systems. The elaboration of this *Regional Outlook on Gender and Agrifood Systems* forms part of the partnership along with the preparation of thematic policy briefs, the organization of policy dialogues and the development of flagship programmes to uplift the condition and status of rural women.

The purpose of this report is therefore to **enrich AU's knowledge and information base on gender and agrifood systems, food and nutrition security, and natural resource management** to promote gender-responsive policies and actions and monitor progress towards AU gender benchmarks.

¹ The Malabo Declaration calls for deliberate and targeted public support for women to participate and directly benefit from the growth and transformation opportunities to improve their lives and livelihoods.

1.2 Concepts and methodology

This report seeks to assess the status of women's empowerment and gender equality in the African agricultural sector, covering notably the goals of the Malabo Declaration and its more detailed outputs described in its implementation and monitoring framework. It reviews systematically the situation of women against each output, identifying the major gender gaps and constraints, and explaining such gaps. It also reviews how regional and national agricultural investment plans integrate such issues, highlighting case studies and best practices.

The gender analysis builds on several concepts and sources described in the following subsections.

1.2.1 Analytical framework

To carry out the gender analysis, the report uses internationally recognized concepts as documented in the glossary of the AU gender strategy (see Annex 4 that reproduces the annex in the AUC gender strategy):

- **Gender** refers to the roles, behaviours, activities, and attributes that a society at a given time considers appropriate for men and women. In addition to the social attributes and opportunities associated with being male and female and the relationships between women and men and girls and boys, gender also refers to the relations between women and those between men. These attributes, opportunities and relationships are socially constructed and are learned through the socialization processes. They are context/time-specific and changeable. Gender determines what is expected, allowed and valued in a woman or a man in a given context. In most societies, there are differences and inequalities between women and men in responsibilities assigned, activities undertaken, access to and control over resources, as well as decision-making opportunities. Gender is part of the broader socio-cultural context, as are other important criteria for socio-cultural analysis, including class, race, poverty level, ethnic group, sexual orientation, age, and so on.²
- **Gender mainstreaming** is the chosen approach of the United Nations (UN) system and international community toward realizing goals related to women's and girls' rights, as a subset of human rights to which the United Nations dedicates itself. It is not a goal or objective on its own. It is a strategy for implementing greater equality for women and girls in relation to men and boys. Mainstreaming a gender perspective is the process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies or programmes, in all areas and at all levels. The concerns and experiences of women as well as men become an integral part of the design, implementation, M&E of policies and programmes in all political, economic and societal spheres so that women and men benefit equally and inequality is not perpetuated. The ultimate goal is to achieve gender equality.³
- **Gender analysis** is a critical examination of how differences in gender roles, activities, needs, opportunities and rights/entitlements affect men, women, girls and boys in certain situations or contexts. Gender analysis examines the relationships between females and males and their access to and control over resources and the constraints they face relative to each other. Gender analysis should be integrated into all sector assessments or situational analyses to ensure that interventions do not exacerbate gender-based injustices and inequalities, and that, where possible, greater equality and justice in gender relations are promoted.⁴
- A key element of gender analysis is **the evaluation of the division of labour**, meaning the way work is divided among men and women, boys and girls, according to socially established gender roles or what is considered suitable and valuable for each sex. Within the division of labour, there are several types of roles: **productive roles** (production of good and services, including subsistence production), **reproductive roles** (including cleaning, cooking, child bearing and rearing, and caring for family members), **community managing role** (mostly voluntary unpaid work related to community management) **and community politics role.**

² UN Women, OSAGI Gender Mainstreaming – Concepts and definitions

³ UNICEF *et al.*, 1997/2002

⁴ UNICEF *et al.*, 1997/2002

Often, women are engaged in the triple role of carrying out reproductive, productive and community work and are not paid for performing these tasks.

In addition, the report uses the **Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment (GEWE) Framework** to review systematically the type of constraints women face. The recent United Nations Secretary General's High-Level Panel on Women's Economic Empowerment Report (2017) identified seven key drivers of women's economic empowerment (WEE), which have been adapted in four main areas in the diagram in Figure 3 and also speak to all the strategic objectives of Agenda 2025. The interconnectedness among (i) personal empowerment or agency (participation in WEE-related decision-making, policy and programme design), (ii) creation of an enabling environment for women's economic empowerment (policies, legal frameworks and long-term commitment), (iii) equal opportunities (provision of equitable access to resources and employment opportunities), and (iv) social transformation (community and household-level support) is therefore key when it comes to a holistic approach.

1.2.2 Methodology and resources

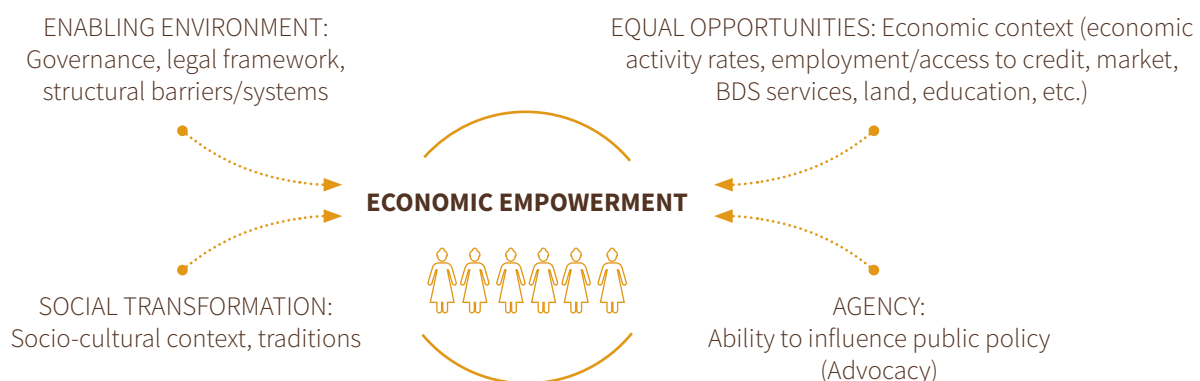
The following resources were consulted, and activities undertaken to prepare this report:

- (i) Analysing AUC's existing commitments to gender and agrifood sectors.
- (ii) Gender review of regional **agricultural policy documents and their monitoring and evaluation reports** (notably CAADP at the

continental level, and regional agricultural investment plans [RAIPs] in the Regional Economic Communities [RECs]) to identify the strengths and weaknesses of gender mainstreaming in the agricultural sector and propose mechanisms to strengthen such integration.

- (iii) **In-depth gender audits of 38 national agricultural investment plans (NAIPs)** were carried out using a questionnaire covering both policy process and gender integration in CAADP priority areas to provide some insight into the extent of gender mainstreaming in such plans.
- (iv) Desk review of **100 publications** that contained elements on gender in the various sectors covered (see references).
- (v) The report's **original source is the comparable review of 40 country gender assessments (CGAs) of agriculture and rural livelihoods** developed by FAO in partnership with governments and regional economic communities (RECs) (see partial list in references as some are yet to be published). The CGAs were conducted by national consultants under the joint leadership of the governments, FAO and the RECs. They were based on a comparable methodological grid and were validated during national participatory and multistakeholder workshops. They include a gender review of the different policies and institutions in the agricultural and rural sectors and an analysis of gender disparities in 18 themes, covering the entire agricultural sector, from crop, livestock, forestry and fisheries production to processing and marketing. The key issues addressed include access to productive resources

Figure 3: Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment (GEWE) Framework



such as land, finance, services and innovations, representation in rural institutions, food security, nutrition, resilience and social protection, and natural resource management in the context of climate change.

- (vi) Review and analysis of **existing statistics**: notably FAOSTAT; World Bank Gender Database (compiles gender data from the International Labour Organization [ILO], United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization [UNESCO] and World Health Organization [WHO]); demographic and health surveys and national statistics; Human Development Report Database 2016; Findex Database 2017; FAO Land and Gender Database; Rural Livelihood Information System; national censuses available in FAO's world programme of census database; and national statistics provided in CGA.
- (vii) Inputs from **continental and regional consultative workshops** organized by FAO in 2017 on gender and agriculture in the region (including regional consultation with rural women on the new AU gender strategy, and consultation of rural women and gender networks on the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) draft gender action plan for agriculture);

The report seeks to highlight, when possible, **regional specificities**, using the AUC regional grouping to differentiate and analyse trends in northern, southern, eastern, central and western African regions (see Appendix 1). In addition, the report builds on initial regional synthesis carried out for ECOWAS and the Economic Community of Central African States (ECCAS).

AUC and FAO jointly formed an expert committee with other partners to review and finalize the document.

1.3 Scope and organization of the report

The report has been divided into nine major parts:



- **Section 1** introduces the report, providing context, concepts and methods.



- **Section 2** reviews the international and continental policy priorities and commitments regarding gender in the agrifood sector.



- **Sections 3 to 7** seek to analyse the situation of women and status of gender mainstreaming in the various agricultural sectors covered by the Malabo Declaration and the CAADP results framework. The evaluation is organized along the different goals of the Declaration, carrying out gender analysis on agricultural financing, food security, poverty reduction, agribusiness employment and women and youth empowerment, trade, resilience to climate change and environmental management.



- **Section 8** of the report reviews the gender accountability mechanisms and existing institutional gender capacities to enhance gender mainstreaming in the AU's agricultural policies and investments. It also reviews gender mainstreaming based on Malabo Goal 1 related to commitment to the CAADP process and values and Goal 7 to accountability, as well as gender mechanisms recommended in AU gender policy outcomes 3 and 4.



- **Section 9**, the final section, analyses the constraints faced by women in achieving gender equality and the factors inhibiting women's empowerment in agriculture. Such analysis should facilitate the change necessary to enhance gender objectives. It also offers recommendations and proposes the next steps to improve the condition of rural women through gender mainstreaming in the agrifood sector.

The report provides an updated and detailed gender analysis of each major Malabo goal, which can be read independently, and provides the basis for improved gender mainstreaming across major agricultural sectors.

Finally, the report is complemented by a 28 pages summary that provides a bird's eye view of the major gender gaps and the main constraints, based on an analysis of the sectoral gender gaps along the GEWE framework. It serves to provide a basis for prioritising policy actions to enhance GEWE in agriculture.

2 CONTEXT

International and continental policy priorities for gender consideration in agriculture



2.1 Regional development planning framework for agriculture



CAADP was developed under the AU New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) and adopted in 2003 by African leaders to support the transformation of agriculture. Following an extensive and consultative review of CAADP's planning and implementation over the first ten years, the Sustaining CAADP Momentum exercise noted that the CAADP vision remained valid, and confirmed the value addition of its process. The twenty-third ordinary session of the AU Assembly held in Malabo, Equatorial Guinea, in June 2014, recommitted to the CAADP principles and defined a new set of targets and goals – referred to as the Accelerated Agricultural Growth and Transformation Goals 2025. Specifically, the Malabo Declaration outlines seven commitments geared towards fostering agricultural growth and transformation (see Box 1).



BOX 1: MALABO DECLARATION

1. Recommitment to the principles and values of the CAADP Process.
2. Recommitment to enhance investment finance in Agriculture: Uphold 10 percent public spending target; Operationalization of Africa Investment Bank.
3. Commitment to Zero Hunger – Ending Hunger by 2025: At least double productivity (focusing on inputs, irrigation and mechanization); reduce post-harvest losses (PHL) at least by half; reduce stunting to 10 percent when it comes to nutritional goals.
4. Commitment to halving poverty by 2025, through inclusive agricultural growth and transformation: Sustain annual sector growth in agricultural Gross Domestic Product (GDP) at 6 percent; establish and/or strengthen inclusive public–private partnerships for at least five priority agricultural commodity value chains with strong linkage to smallholder agriculture; create job opportunities for at least 30 percent of the youth in agricultural value chains; and preferential entry and participation for women and youth in gainful and attractive agribusinesses.
5. Commitment to boosting intra-African trade in agricultural commodities and services: Encourage triple intra-African trade in agricultural commodities and fast track continental free trade area and transition to a continental common external tariff scheme.
6. Commitment to enhancing resilience of livelihoods and production systems to climate variability and other shocks: Ensure that, by 2025, at least 30 percent of farm/pastoral households are resilient to shocks.
7. Commitment to mutual accountability to actions and results through the CAADP Result Framework: Conduct a biennial agricultural review.

Source: AUC, NEPAD, 2015.

These commitments are in line with the goals of Africa's Agenda 2063 to strive for "a modern agriculture for increased production, productivity and value addition that contributes to farmer and national prosperity and Africa's collective food security."

The CAADP Results Framework is the tool used to track, monitor and report on the progress in meeting the Malabo commitments. Consequently, the

Framework outlines expected results and impacts, and specifies benchmarks and milestones for Africa's agricultural development agenda. The Framework is included in AU Agenda 2063 and indicates the level and rate of agricultural performance and the policy, strategy, and capacity development actions that the sector must engage in to achieve the (see Box 2).



BOX 2: THE CAADP RESULT FRAMEWORK

Impact to which agriculture contributes

LEVEL 1 – Agriculture's Contribution to Economic Growth and Inclusive Development

| | | | |
|---------------------|-------------------------------|---|-----------------------------------|
| 1.1 Wealth creation | 1.2 Food & nutrition security | 1.3 Economic opportunities, poverty alleviation and shared prosperity | 1.4 Resilience and sustainability |
|---------------------|-------------------------------|---|-----------------------------------|

Changes in African agriculture resulting from the CAADP implementation support

LEVEL 2 – Agricultural Transformation and Sustained Inclusive Agricultural Growth

| | | | | |
|---|--|---|---|--|
| 2.1 Increased agriculture production and productivity | 2.2 Increased intra-African regional trade and better functioning of national & regional markets | 2.3 Expanded local agro-industry and value chain development inclusive of women and youth | 2.4 Increased resilience of livelihoods and improved management of risks in the agricultural sector | 2.5 Improved management of natural resources for sustainable agriculture |
|---|--|---|---|--|

Added value of CAADP support to institutional transformation and systemic capacities

LEVEL 3 – Strengthening Systemic Capacity to Deliver Results

| | | | | | |
|--|---|--|--|---|--|
| 3.1 Effective and inclusive policy design and implementation processes | 3.2 Effective and accountable institutions including assessing implementation of policies and commitments | 3.3 Strengthened capacity for evidence-based planning, implementation & review | 3.4 Improved multisectoral coordination, partnership and mutual accountability in sectors related to agriculture | 3.5 Increased public and private investments in agriculture | 3.6 Increased capacity to generate, analyze and use data, information, knowledge and innovations |
|--|---|--|--|---|--|

Source: AUC, NEPAD, 2015.

2.2 Key political commitments and policies on agriculture and gender equality

Over the last two decades, Africa has witnessed unprecedented political momentum for gender equality and women's empowerment, ratifying important international conventions and developing regional instruments, with important implications for the agricultural and rural sectors.

Commitments to gender equality and women's empowerment build notably on the 2003 Maputo Protocol on the rights of women and the 2004 Solemn Declaration of Heads of State on gender. Such commitments were included and operationalized along the AU 2009 gender policy that provided the framework and orientation to enhance gender

mainstreaming across sectors and to adapt various gender commitments. Finally, gender equality and women's empowerment is inbuilt in the AU Agenda 2063. These founding documents and commitments also contain specific mentions to rural women and specific agricultural issues in terms of access to productive resources and services (land and credit for example), ownership, business opportunities and so on (see Box 3).

Building on such gender commitments, AU adopted specific targets relevant to agriculture and outlined priority action plans: providing access to land (at least 30 percent documented land rights for women); reserving a minimum quota of 50 percent finances for women; increasing access to mechanization, technological innovations, advisory services and education for women; initiating the campaign to ban the hoe; protecting women's right to food and decent employment; and facilitating their preferential entry in value chains (see Box 4).



BOX 3: KEY POLITICAL COMMITMENTS

- ***The Protocol to the African Charter on Human and People's Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa (1995)***, adopted in Maputo in 2003, focuses on entrenching women's rights to ensure greater participation of women in the planning, management and preservation of the environment and the sustainable use of natural resources at all levels.
- **The solemn Declaration of Heads of State was adopted by AU summit in 2004** and includes, among other goals, the expansion and promotion of gender parity principles in RECs at the national and local levels; promotion of literacy for girls and women, especially in the rural areas; and implementation of legislation to guarantee women's land, property and inheritance rights, including their rights to housing.
- **The African Union Gender Policy**, which was adopted in 2009, reinforces commitment by heads of states to enhance gender equality and women's empowerment. It also ensures that institutional and operational mechanisms are in place to mainstream gender across sectors, including agriculture.
- **The African Union Agenda 2063**, adopted in April 2015 (Aspiration 6), calls for people-driven, inclusive development through enabling rural women to have access to productive assets such as land and inputs, and to financial services; and fully empowering women with equal social, political and economic rights, including the rights to own and inherit property, sign contracts, and register and manage businesses. It also aims at eliminating gender-based violence and discrimination, and guarantees political and professional parity.



BOX 4: SPECIFIC GENDER COMMITMENTS ADOPTED BY THE AU

- **The Malabo Declaration on “Accelerated Agricultural Growth and Transformation for Shared Prosperity and Improved Livelihoods”** adopted by the AU Summit in June 2014 calls for deliberate and targeted public support to women to participate and directly benefit from the growth and transformation opportunities to improve their lives and livelihoods. It encourages specific preferential participation in the value chain for women and youth, with special attention to women’s nutrition.
- **The Declaration “2015 Year of women’s empowerment and development towards Africa’s Agenda 2063”** adopted by the AU Summit in June 2015 invites AU Member States to increase mechanization, technological innovation, education and skills development for women, enforce women’s rights to productive assets, including land, intensify financial inclusion in agribusiness and access to public procurement processes in agribusiness. It also calls upon financial institutions to reserve **50 percent of their funds to finance women** to grow from micro to macro businesses. It stresses the need to ensure that the Continental Free Trade Area promotes the empowerment of women in agribusiness and agricultural value chains.
- **The “AU Campaign to confine the hand-held hoe to the museum”** was launched in June 2015 in Johannesburg during the Summit. Under its Aspiration 1 on “A prosperous Africa based on Inclusive Growth and Sustainable Development”, Agenda 2063 strives for “modern, productive and attractive agriculture, using science, technology, innovation and indigenous knowledge,” and states that “the hand hoe will be banished by 2025.”
- In October 2015, in Addis Ababa, the AU Specialized Technical Committee on Agriculture, Rural Development, Water and Environment endorsed a declaration that would ensure that 30 percent of documented land rights would be allocated to African women by 2025.
- **The Declaration on “African Year of Human Rights with Particular Focus on the Rights of Women”** was adopted at the AU Summit in July 2016 in Kigali and addresses the protection and promotion of women’s rights, including rural women’s rights to food, land and decent employment.
- In June 2018, the AU Specialized Technical Committee on Gender Equality and Women’s Empowerment (STC-GEWE) adopted the new **AU Gender Strategy 2017–2027. It succeeds the AU Gender Policy of 2009 and takes cognizance of the various advancements related to gender commitments, including the SDGs adopted in 2015. Rural women are a priority target and the strategy stresses the need to enhance women’s economic empowerment with specific attention to education, financial inclusion, labour-saving technology and digital revolution. In addition, it emphasizes the need to mainstream gender in all key AU flagship initiatives.**

Finally, AU Member States have also committed to gender equality and women’s empowerment in agriculture along several international conventions, committee and voluntary guidelines. Such international commitments relate notably to equal access to productive resources (credit, land, services, inputs,

and property), recognition and alleviation of unpaid care and domestic work, attention to women-specific nutritional needs, and specific integration of gender in governance of natural resources, fishery sector and climate change agenda (see Box 5).



BOX 5: INTERNATIONAL CONVENTIONS AND VOLUNTARY GUIDELINES

- **The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) (1979)** has been ratified by all African countries but two (Sudan and Somalia). It addresses discriminatory practices and exclusion experienced by women. **Article 14** provides protections for rural women, ensuring their right to participate in development programmes, “access adequate health care facilities”, “participate in all community activities”, “access agricultural credit” and “enjoy adequate living conditions”. It contains several entry points to mainstream gender in agricultural policies (FAO, 2013). An optional protocol to CEDAW, signed in 2000, includes **mechanisms** to enforce women’s rights.
- The **Beijing Platform for Action (BFA) (1995)** promotes women’s economic and political empowerment, education and training. The Beijing Plus 20 review (2015) addresses key areas such as rural women’s economic empowerment, food security and nutrition. The ongoing Beijing Plus 25 review process provides further opportunities to advocate for rural women’s empowerment.
- **Various ILO Conventions** promote gender equality in employment legislations (equal pay for same work, abolition of forced work, absence of discrimination, maternity protection in the workplace).
- **The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (2015)** promotes a transformative agenda for gender equality and the empowerment of women in agriculture and value chains, food and nutrition security and the management of natural resources in the context of climate change. SDG 5 on gender equality addresses concerns around (i) women’s equal rights to economic resources, and access to property and control of land, financial services, inheritance and resources and (ii) unpaid care and domestic work provided by women through public services, infrastructure, social protection policies and the promotion of shared responsibility in the household and family. SDG1 on the eradication of poverty guarantees equal rights to economic resources, basic services, technology, financial services, ownership and control of resources (including land). SDG2 on Zero Hunger aims to double productivity and incomes of men and women smallholders through secure and equal access to land, knowledge, financial services, markets and value-added opportunities. It also addresses nutritional needs of adolescent girls and pregnant and lactating women.
- The **Voluntary Guidelines on the Responsible Governance of Tenure (VGGT) of Land, Fisheries and Forests in the Context of National Food Security (2012)** calls for equal tenure rights and access to land, fisheries and forests independent of civil and marital status, and provides policy, legal and organizational frameworks that are non-discriminatory.
- The **Voluntary Guidelines for Securing Sustainable Small-Scale Fisheries in the Context of Food Security and Poverty Eradication (2014)** contains a strong eight-point agenda on gender equality.
- The **Framework for Responsible Agricultural Investments (2014)** mainstreams gender, mentioning notably the equitable treatment of women with regard to land rights, access to productive land, natural resources, inputs and production tools, access to extension, education, information and financial services, and women’s participation and inclusion in decision-making.
- The **Paris Agreement (2015)** calls for gender-responsive adaptation and capacity-building actions. In 2017, in Bonn the G8, adopted an action plan for gender equality to ensure women’s participation in Convention of Parties (COP) conferences, develop gender-sensitive climate policies, implement gender-sensitive adaptation and capacity building actions, and ensure full and equal participation of women in national delegations, knowledge and capacity building activities.

3

GOAL 2

Agricultural investment: gender
budgeting and inclusive finance





To address issues of gender equality and women's empowerment, a substantial budget needs to be allocated and disbursed to support gender mainstreaming and gender-targeted activities. In addition, women require financial services to upgrade and upscale their activities. Yet, both are often missing and this explains the strong gap between the levels of commitments and the levels of achievements in improving women's conditions and status.

This section will seek to analyse how gender has been mainstreamed in public finances and financial services, and identify gaps and good practices that can help raise budget and finances for better gender equality and women's empowerment.

3.1 Gender mainstreaming in agricultural public expenditure and NAIPs and RAIPs

3.1.1 Context, commitments and needs

Sufficient funding for both gender mainstreaming and women's empowerment-targeted activities is often the missing link between political commitments and concrete actions to make them effective.

Gender-responsive budgeting can enhance accountability to women's rights and gender mainstreaming in the agriculture and rural sectors.

African countries have developed NAIPs to align their agricultural policies and sector strategies with the principles of CAADP and the Malabo Declaration, with a view to consolidate increased investment in agriculture for growth, transformation and poverty reduction. These plans form an important basis for galvanizing and channelling investments and support to the agrifood sector. They provide, therefore, an important entry point for addressing policy, programmatic and investment gaps for gender equality and women's empowerment, in agriculture, food security and nutrition and rural development interventions. At the subregional level, RECs have also developed RAIPs as a framework for harmonizing agriculture policies, programmes and investments.

The AU gender policy includes a commitment related to gender resource mobilization, including the adoption of gender-sensitive budgeting, increased resource allocation (with a 10 percent target for AU institutions) and partnership mobilization (see Box 6).



BOX 6: AU COMMITMENTS REGARDING GENDER FINANCING

The AU Declaration “2015 Year of Women’s Empowerment and Development towards Africa’s Agenda 2063” calls upon States to intensify women’s financial inclusion in agribusiness. It invites financial institutions to have a minimum quota of 50 percent to finance women to grow macro businesses.

The AU gender strategy 2017–2027, adopted in 2018, promotes gender-responsive budgeting and gender mainstreaming across all programmes along the following activities and interventions:

- **Intervention 1.2.1:** Integrate and implement gender dimensions into AU flagship projects, transformational initiatives and protocols on economic empowerment, financial inclusion and social protection, set up African Women's Development Fund (Fund for African Women II) and de-risk banking and trading for women.

Box 6 cont'd

- **Activity 3.3.1.1:** Implement the Gender and Institutional Certification Programme (including gender-responsive budgeting [GRB]).
- Women, Gender and Development Directorate (WGDD) to **build capacity for GRB at the regional and national levels** as well as undertake a **gender budget audit of AU** expenditures with a view to enhancing GRB.

Malabo Goal 2: Recommitment to enhance investment in agriculture: Uphold 10 percent public spending target and operationalization of Africa Investment Bank.

CAADP Result Framework, Indicator and target 2.1: public expenditures in agriculture, including 10 percent public expenditure for agriculture; Indicator and target 2.2 and 2.3: indicators related to domestic and private investment in agriculture.

In addition, at the international level, **the FAO Committee on World Food Security adopted the principles for responsible agricultural investment** in 2014, providing a set of principles to ensure that responsible investment contributes to food security and nutrition, especially for the most vulnerable sections of the local population, and “supports states' obligations regarding the progressive realization of the right to adequate food.” The principles outline, more specifically, how responsible investments should contribute to gender equality and change. They address all types of investment in agriculture and food systems – public, private, large, small, and in both the production and the processing spheres (CFS, 2014).

As advocated in the AU gender strategy 2017–2027 adopted in 2018, a **gender-responsive budget needs to support various types of interventions** (see Table 1). First, specific gender-targeted resources are needed to support the gender management system (staff, training, gender-mainstreaming activities) and gender-parity agenda, and to develop gender-targeted initiatives to bridge the core gaps. Second, resources can be tapped from existing programmes and budgets through proper gender mainstreaming (allocating specific target for disbursement to women, for women beneficiaries, and so on.)

The same kind of analysis and recommendations can be carried out in the agricultural sector.

Indeed, the section on institutions highlights that gender-mainstreaming capacities remain weak in the ministries of agriculture and that few countries have properly developed measures and laws to ensure equal participation in employment and governance. Such work requires capacity development and resources need to be allocated in the NAIPs. In addition, ensuring parity in the sector also requires specific activities to develop regulations and a legal framework in employment and governance.

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Specific initiatives need to be developed and funded on core gender priorities in agriculture to leverage and encourage efforts across the continents, and benefit from economies of scales and good practices across countries. Finally, resources can be mobilized through proper gender mainstreaming across existing programmes.

The following sections will assess the level of gender-sensitive budgeting across such categories. First, we will evaluate the overall level of gender-sensitive budgeting in NAIPs and countries, then we will review the extent of activities related to the gender management system and, finally, we will evaluate the level of gender mainstreaming and gender targeting in priority sectors of NAIPs.

3.1.2 Level of gender mainstreaming in agricultural budgets and investments, and good practices

3.1.2.1 Adoption of gender-sensitive budgeting and good practices

At the continental level, we can see that Goal 2 of the **Malabo Declaration and CAADP Result Framework** seeks to attract more public and private funding to the agricultural sector, but does not promote the adoption of gender-sensitive budgeting, or provide a specific target for gender allocations in the guidelines to report on goals.

Table 1: Gender-responsive budget categories required to achieve gender equality and women's empowerment in agriculture

| Resources needed | Continental | Regional | National |
|---|---|---|---|
| Gender Management Systems | Reinforce gender focal persons/develop gender unit in agricultural directorates | Reinforce gender focal persons/develop unit in agriculture | Reinforce national gender machineries and action plans in agricultural ministries of sectors (GFP and units in agriculture, gender mechanisms etc.) |
| | Gender analysis and capacity-building in all institutions | | |
| Parity & legal environment | Resources required to develop legal systems, regulations and training to achieve gender parity in the agricultural sector (institutions, coordination mechanisms, local governance, etc.) | | |
| Targeted gender interventions | Gender-specific initiatives on AU priorities – gender observatory, gender capacities, inclusive finance, women value chain for the region, access to land, technology & extension for women | Gender-specific initiatives at the regional level – can be similar to the continental ones, or build on each region's core priorities for gender agenda | Gender-specific initiatives at the national level along continental and regional priorities to leverage efforts, but also on country-specific topics |
| Making mainstream activities gender-responsive | Gender-sensitive budget guidelines, regulations, training and targets to ensure women benefit from CAADP | Gender-sensitive budget guidelines, regulations, training and targets to ensure women benefit from RAIP | Gender-sensitive budget guidelines, regulations, training and affirmative targets to ensure women benefit from RAIP. Specific quota for allocation of new land to programmes' beneficiaries, etc. |

Source: Adapted from similar table developed in AU, gender strategy 2017–2027.

(AUC, NEPAD, 2017). De facto, the **2018 summary report reviews the total public spending in agriculture**, highlighting that only ten member countries met the 10 percent target, while most are likely to increase their investment in agriculture (AUC, 2018). However, the new 2018 guidelines to implement the Malabo Declaration emphasize the need to set and meet financial targets for resource allocation towards interventions targeted for women and youth (AUC, 2018b; Annex 3).

At the regional level, the Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA) gender strategy for agriculture and climate change (COMESA, 2011) and the Southern African Development Community (SADC) gender protocol (SADC, 2008) explicitly advocate for gender-sensitive budgeting and mobilization of resources for gender-targeted activities. However, considerable gaps between commitments and resource allocation continue to exist.

A gender audit of 38 NAIPs shows that the level of gender budgeting varies, **with less than 10 percent being targeted towards promoting women's empowerment** (and specific activities that reinforce gender capacities or support women-specific programmes) **and less than 10 percent towards programmes with a minimal level of gender sensitiveness** (there are some gender-sensitive activities but they are not apparent in the budget). When they exist, such targets are generally not fully implemented or disbursed.

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Overall, in NAIPs and beyond (in other policies and sectors), we can see several countries seeking to enhance gender finances and, in some cases, adopt gender-sensitive budgeting. We can notably identify the following interesting entry points (see Box 7):

- Develop **institutional mechanisms for gender-sensitive budgets** (for example Rwanda, Morocco, and Namibia)
 - Issue laws and prepare legal frameworks to ensure the adoption of gender-sensitive budgets and targets (Rwanda, Morocco, Senegal and SADC.)
 - Define gender-sensitive activities and budget for them
 - Define specific targets and quotas for women beneficiaries for mixed activities (for example, Ghana)
 - Set up a general budget quota for women (for example, 10 percent in the Malabo Declaration; and 3 percent for the financing of women's activities as done in Ghana)
 - Ensure accountability by carrying out gender audit/analysis after budget submission (Kenya for example) or by putting mechanisms in place whereby programmes that are not gender-sensitive are rejected (for example, Morocco)
- **Allocate specific funding for gender machinery and capacity development** (NAIP of Malawi) and for gender-targeted activities (for example, Malawi)
- **Develop capacities to implement gender-sensitive budgeting** (develop guidelines, training, centres of excellence as in Morocco)
- **Develop specific funding/gender mechanisms** in collaboration with other donors (for example, Burkina Faso) to support: (i) co-financing of gender ministries and units; (ii) co-financing mechanisms to encourage actual gender budgeting in projects; and (iii) joint financing of specific programmes and initiatives on GEWE



BOX 7: EXAMPLE OF GENDER BUDGETING PRACTICES IN SSA

The ECOWAS investment plan (RAIPFSN 2016–2020) has specific outputs and budgets dedicated to gender equality and women’s empowerment, with activities to reinforce gender capacities and develop targeted programmes (5 percent of the total budget). Some activities are explicitly targeted at women and youth (7 percent of total budget). At the country level, **the budget devoted to gender was reported to be weak and unstable and, when calculated, it represented less than 1 percent of the agricultural budget. Seven countries reported ongoing or planned mechanisms to gender budgets** (Benin, Ghana, Mali, Nigeria, Senegal, Sierra Leone and The Gambia), but with insufficient information on funding actually disbursed. For instance, it was reported that Ghana requires its ministries to allocate at least 40 percent of their budget to gender issues, but this is not being adhered to in disbursement. Only two countries provided a specific analysis of gender budget in agriculture (Senegal and The Gambia). **Beyond the NAIPs, specific support and action were identified with producers’ organizations and women’s associations** [*Association Nationale des Femmes Agricultrices (ANaF)* and *Fédération des Unions des Producteurs (FUPRO)* in Benin, *Coordination Nationale des Organisations Paysannes (CNOP)* in Guinea, *Conseil national de concertation et de coopération des ruraux (CNCR)* and *Fédération nationale des groupements de promotion féminine (FNGPF)* in Senegal, and National Federation of Farmers of Sierra Leone (NaFFSL)]. **Burkina Faso** has developed a **specific framework for gender, including consultation mechanisms** on gender for technical partners (notably FAO, WB, GIZ and UN Women), and developed specific **funding mechanisms** (common fund for gender and setting specific gender components in various programmes).

In **ECCAS**, the RAIP is not gender-sensitive and does not include specific activities or a budget for gender mainstreaming and targeting. However, some countries have managed to develop gender-specific programmes in collaboration with donors. Two countries have adopted gender-sensitive budgeting. For instance, in **Rwanda**, since 2008, the Ministry of Finances has released guidelines for public institutions to plan and budget for gender-related priorities in their respective sectors. The Ministry of Agriculture implements a GRB Programme to evaluate positive implications of the budget on both men and women in agriculture. It uses the network of planning, monitoring and evaluation staff to undertake this evaluation.

COMESA has developed a specific strategy to mainstream gender in agriculture and climate change interventions. It includes a measure to “promote gender-responsive budgeting at the REC and MS levels in agricultural and climate change interventions” (COMESA, 2011). **The SADC Gender Protocol** includes a financial provision that Member States shall ensure gender-sensitive budgets and planning, including necessary resources for initiatives to empower women and youth (SADC, 2008).

From 13 NAIPs reviewed in Eastern and Southern Africa, only three had activities targeted for women or gender mainstreaming. The **second-generation NAIP of Malawi** includes several activities targeted at women and youth (financial training, targeted investment support, preparation of gender-responsive disaster management, and so on) as well as a specific budget allocated for gender-related activities, including providing decent employment, building capacity for women organizations, ensuring representation in the ministry, and gender mainstreaming in all training. Beyond NAIPs, several countries have made progress in adopting gender-based budgeting. For instance, in **Namibia**, in 2014, the Cabinet approved the GRB Initiative and Directive to execute the inclusion of GRB in the government budget cycles. The Ministry of Finance issued gender guidelines in its budget call circular to guide all ministries and agencies. The guidelines provide the government departments with a standard tool to identify gender issues

Box 7 cont'd

corresponding to respective mandates by undertaking a gender analysis and identifying the cost of appropriate activities. These activities are incorporated into budget proposals within the medium-term expenditure framework (GRN, 2015).

In Kenya, women's advocacy organizations have pushed for governmental accountability and gender budgeting. Achievements include the development of gender-responsive budgeting guidelines for parliament, capacity-building within government on gender budgeting, establishment of a gender budget network and gender budget analysis after the annual budget reading.

In Northern Africa, Morocco is an international leader in gender-sensitive budgeting. A law imposing gender-sensitive budgeting was accompanied by the creation of a centre of excellence on gender-sensitive budgeting that supports all institutions. Only programmes that present a gender-sensitive budget are validated.

3.1.2.2 Support for gender-mainstreaming capacities and machineries

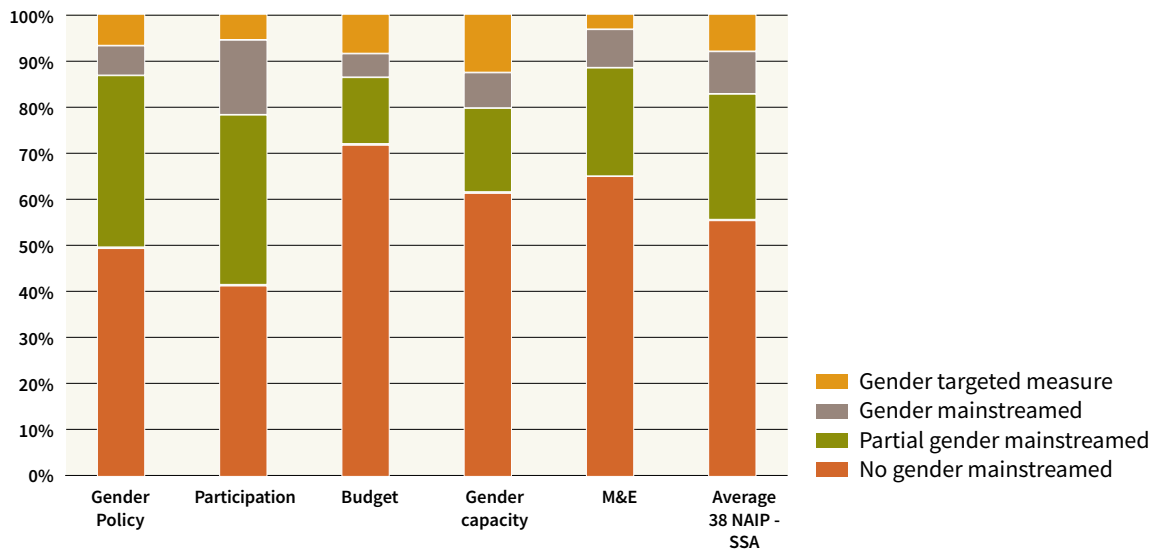
As highlighted in this document, **CAADP result, implementation and monitoring frameworks (AUC and NEPAD, 2015, 2016a, 2017) do not mainstream gender properly in their process and institutional framework.** If participation of women is mentioned in the NAIP appraisal phase, there are no formal recommendations to incorporate women's organizations and gender institutions in all phases and coordination mechanisms. The result and indicator framework contain only two gender-focused indicators. All the others are not sex-disaggregated and do not have specific gender targets. There is no allocation for a gender-specific budget and neither is there a recommendation for the adoption of one. However, a second guideline to NAIP implementation has been released in April 2018 and includes gender more prominently (AUC and NEPAD, 2018b). It notably explains the women's empowerment indicator that is used in the CAADP framework, proposes a series of questions to analyse the level of gender mainstreaming across NAIP and entry points to enhance gender considerations (key gender content of such guidelines are in Appendix 3).

Most regions and countries have now entered the CAADP process and developed regional and national investment plans, except in Northern Africa where

it is starting more recently. **Similar situations can be seen across most RECs and countries**, with however, a few exceptions (see Figure 4).

First, the general level of gender mainstreaming across policy processes, planning, budgeting and monitoring remains weak, with less than 80 percent of the 38 NAIPs evaluated scoring partially or not "gender mainstreamed" and less than 10 percent scoring "gender targeted". Though almost all NAIPs contain a paragraph on women's general issues and bring a few limited statistics, the gender analysis is not mainstreamed throughout the documents and gender references remain too limited. If inclusive policy processes have most often been put in place and open the door for including women's voice, the participation of women's organizations and gender institutions remains too often implicit. Around 10 percent of the countries include measures to strengthen the institutional and technical capacities for gender mainstreaming (capacity development for focal points, support to women's organizations, gender guidelines and so forth). Activities to reinforce statistics usually do not have specific targets in terms of sex disaggregation. Most monitoring and evaluation systems and targets are not gender-sensitive.

Figure 4: Level of gender mainstreaming across NAIPs in 38 countries across sub-Saharan Africa

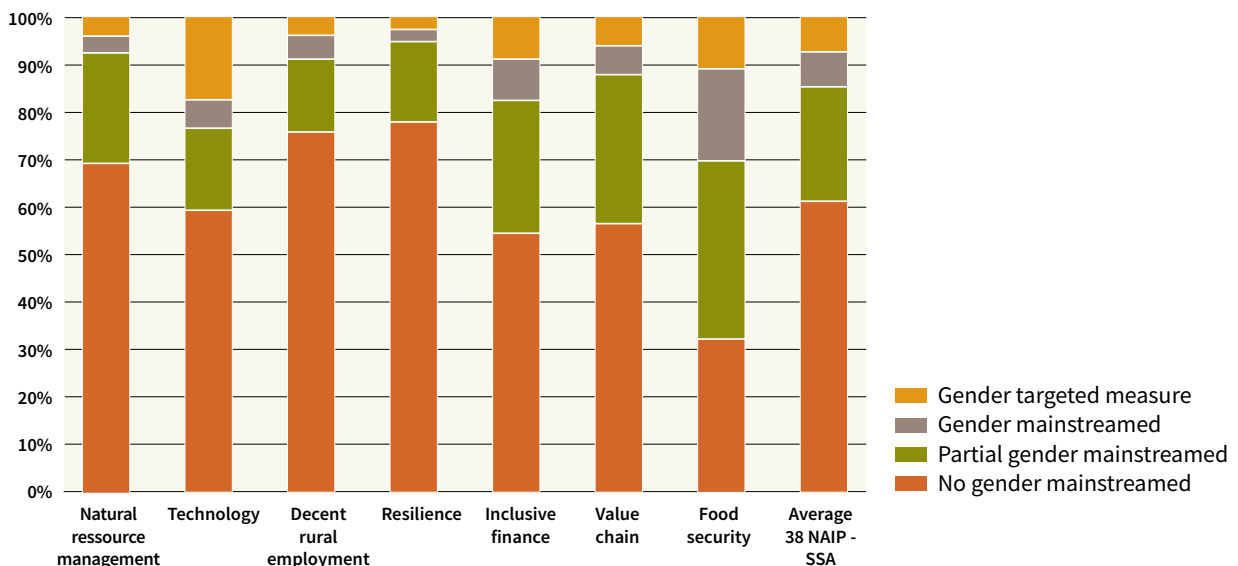


3.1.2.3 Gender mainstreaming across thematic outputs and activities

In conjunction with inadequate gender mainstreaming capacities, **gender remains insufficiently mainstreamed throughout RAIPs and NAIPs** (see Figure 5). Only few of them have specific gender outputs and activities (for instance, ECOWAS has an output dedicated to reinforce gender capacities and empower women in access to land) while most activities remain gender blind.

Few affirmative actions and gender-targeted activities are present (less than 15 percent of answers). However, gender mainstreaming is higher in activities related to food security and nutrition as most NAIPs acknowledge, for example, programmes where pregnant and lactating women are key targets. Gender-targeted measures were highest in activities related to technology development, access to inputs and extension, with several countries offering specific programmes for

Figure 5: Assessment of specific parameters related to gender mainstreaming across NAIPs in 38 countries in sub-Saharan Africa



women and acknowledging the need to develop labour-saving equipment. Inclusive finance and value chains are quite often mentioned, but without appropriate gender-mainstreaming mechanisms. Resilience and decent employment activities show the least level of gender mainstreaming. Finally, NAIPs do not include activities for women's empowerment at the household and community levels nor specific work to alleviate women's work burden. Yet, the Malabo evaluation report and new guidelines for CAADP implementation emphasize specific targets for women's empowerment at the household and community levels. Cross-sectoral collaboration with rural education and infrastructure ministries is also necessary to alleviate key gender gaps, but is rarely mentioned.

3.1.2.4 Large-scale private investment and gender

In addition to public investment, Malabo and CAADP encourage domestic and foreign private investment. An important share of such investment is made through land acquisition associated to various agribusiness models (see also Section 4.2.2.2. and Figure 21: Total number of land deals in Africa [2016]).

In 2014, an international conference was organized by FAO and the Institute for Poverty, Land and Agrarian Studies (IPLAS) from 5 to 7 March 2014 in Cape Town, South Africa. It gathered major stakeholders to assess the implications of agricultural investments on gender and land in Africa and identify the modalities to enforce more equitable investments (IPLAS, 2014). Overall, gender-neutral investment may further increase gender gaps (loss of land, less participation, less wages, workload). Meanwhile, gender-sensitive investments may contribute to enhance women's economic and social empowerment, with positive roles played by various responsible private investment standards and regulations that include gender explicitly (such as tropical alliance, rainbow forest, round table sustainable palm oil, world banana forum, fair trade and organic standards).

To spell out the areas where we fall short:

- Women tend to be under-represented in out-grower schemes as they have weaker property rights and limited access to land

compared to men, which prevents them from participating in this type of contractual arrangement. When women are not outgrowers in their own right, they can experience an increase in their workloads and might not be able to share the benefits from the investment equally with their husbands. However, such participation can also empower them economically when they participate in their own rights and benefit from gender-sensitive measures.

- Jobs created through commercial agricultural projects for women are low paying and gender stereotyped, thereby providing poor quality, insecure and casual labour. However, a gender-sensitive work contract can improve their income.
- Increased land scarcity because of land acquisition by private companies affects women disproportionately, as men tend to appropriate the land traditionally controlled by them. Private land titling does not necessarily promote gender equity, while other approaches such as supporting land rental markets and support for production and value-chain participation show better results in terms of equity.

Therefore, it is imperative for countries to **adopt and internalize the framework for responsible agricultural investment (CFS, 2014)**. Within the **CFS framework, Principle 3 ensures that responsible investment fosters gender equality and women's empowerment by:** (i) ensuring that all people are treated fairly, recognizing their respective situations, needs, constraints, and the vital role played by women; (ii) eliminating all measures and practices that discriminate or violate rights on the basis of gender; (iii) advancing women's equal tenure rights, and their equal access to and control over productive land, natural resources, inputs, and productive tools; (iv) promoting access to extension, advisory and financial services, education, training, markets, and information; and (v) adopting innovative and/or proactive approaches, measures and processes to enhance women's meaningful participation in partnerships, decision-making, leadership roles, and the equitable sharing of benefits.

3.2 Financial inclusion of women in agribusiness

Accessing a variety of adequate and affordable financial services is an important enabler for the development of successful agribusinesses. It is estimated that African agricultural output could more than triple from USD 280 billion to USD 880 billion by 2030 if farmers were able to access the finance they need to expand both the quality and quantity of their produce (AfDB, 2013). Improving women's access to financial services is key to close most gender gaps and a proven strategy for their social and economic empowerment and meeting children's education, nutrition and health

needs. Yet, strong gender gaps persist in accessing financial services, which include savings, money transfer services, insurance products, loans, leasing and pension arrangements. According to the Global Findex Database updated in 2017, the gender gap in financial inclusion in developing economies remains unchanged since 2011 – at 9 percentage points.

Several commitments at the regional and global levels advocate for equal access to finance (CEDAW, SDGs, AU 2063). In particular, the AU has adopted a specific target that **women will access 30 percent of the agricultural financing and that 90 percent of the rural women shall have access to credit and financial services** (See Box 8).



BOX 8: COMMITMENTS ADVOCATING FOR EQUAL ACCESS TO FINANCE

CEDAW Article 14 emphasizes on the need to ensure rural women's access to agricultural credit.

SDG Targets 2.3 and 5.a advocate for equal access to finance.

Beijing Platform for Action includes an ambitious agenda for financing for rural women through the development of specific policies, scaling up of institutions dedicated to women's financial inclusion, and innovative linkages with financial institutions, including non-traditional and mutual credit schemes and various processes for capacity development and legislative support.

The Declaration adopted by the AU Summit in June 2015 announcing “2015 (as the) Year of Women's Empowerment and Development towards Africa's Agenda 2063”, invites AU Member States to increase mechanization, technological innovation, education and skills development for women; intensify their financial inclusion in agribusiness; and empower them with knowledge and skills to use modern technologies in agribusiness and agricultural value chains. The Declaration also calls upon financial institutions to reserve **50 percent of their funds to finance women-led/owned enterprises** to grow from micro to macro businesses.

The AU Agenda 2063 advocates for equal access to productive assets, proposing that 90 percent of rural women have access to productive assets, including land, credit, inputs and financial services by 2025 and that they have equal right to own and operate a bank account (AUC, 2015b). It sets a target that women access at **least 30 percent of agricultural financing**.

The **new AU gender policy 2017–2027 Intervention 1.2.1** includes financial inclusion and social protection, the setting up of an African Women's Development Fund (Fund for African Women 2) and de-risk banking and trading for women.

The CAADP Result Framework includes target 2.4: “Ensure that 100 percent of men and women engaged in agriculture have access to financial services to enable them to transact in agriculture (sic) business”. It also states that women are less likely than men to use any of these services. It emphasizes that “continued dependence on cash perpetuates marginalization and inhibits ability to take advantage of economic opportunities within and outside of agriculture as well as to absorb shocks without falling deeper into poverty.”



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3.2.1 Major gender constraints to inclusive finances

The major constraints to women's access to finance are:

- Difficulty in providing the required **collateral** (most often, productive assets and property such as land title/ownership) to access formal loans.
- Lower levels of **education and financial literacy**, which are key to access useful technologies and information, running successful businesses and making informed decisions about financial products and services.
- **Customs and cultural barriers** that limit women economic empowerment contribute directly to constrain their access to credit.
 - In certain countries, women need men's approval to open a bank account or obtain credit.
 - Women's weaker position in the household limits their capacity to make decisions on activities, investments and use of income. They also face specific time constraints in managing their own productive activities due to their productive, reproductive and social responsibilities. Such factors may hinder their capacity to directly invest the income in the wellbeing of their household.
- **Weaker mobility of women** to reach financial institutions **due to multiple factors linked to** cultural barriers and specific risks for women related to gender-based violence and also the lack of adequate transport and infrastructure.
- **Weaker participation of women in commercial agriculture and cooperatives that access credit more easily.** For instance, one predominant model for agricultural finances is the Value Chain Finance (VCF) that is most often facilitated by segments of the value chain that are closely linked, and where contracts and relationships can be commoditized. Most often, financing can be provided against guaranteed purchase agreements with smallholders, most often cooperatives. This model is particularly prominent in exportable cash crops, such as coffee, cocoa, and cotton in Uganda, Tanzania, and Rwanda. However, data show that women participate much less in such ventures.
- **Insufficient capacity of financial institutions to design and implement financial products and services (credit, savings, remittances, insurance) adapted to women's needs due to the following:**
 - rigorous requirements and application procedures (documentation, land and asset ownership, credit history);

- high costs of accessing rural finances and credit (costs to open an account, initial deposit to access credit, interest rates and so on) tend to discourage clientele, predominantly female, who usually save in informal systems and therefore lack formal credit history;
- lack of field workers and women officers trained to be aware of the gender-specific issues in the financial and agriculture sector. Such gender-sensitized officers would be more capable of reaching out to rural women and supporting the design of products and services that would be suitable to their specific needs;
- discrepancy between the period for repayment and the timing of women's productive activities, which may be different from that of men;
- inadequate practices as many products offered by financial institutions often target the head of the household, who is typically male, assuming that women can rely on their husbands or other family member to access finance, as well as targeting organized and commercialized cash crops farmers with perennial schemes, which are often less accessible to women.

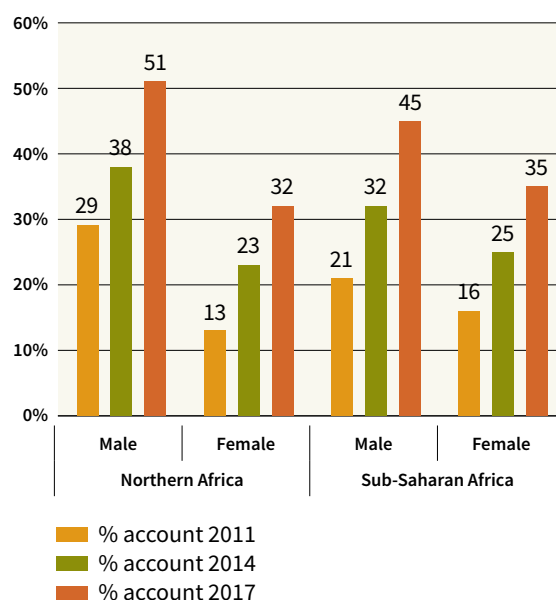
3.2.2 Gender inequalities in access to financial services in Africa

The availability of financial services is very low in rural areas. In 2013, it was estimated that only about 10 percent of Africa's commercial bank lending goes to agriculture and agro-industries although it employs over 40 percent of the population and represents around 40 percent of the GDP. The CAADP Evaluation Report of 2018 shows that, on an average, 23 percent of the smallholders have access to finance in AU, with differences across regions, from 3.3 percent in Central Africa, 16.8 percent in Western Africa, 27.5 percent in Eastern Africa, 33.6 percent in Northern Africa and 39.1 percent in Southern Africa.

To measure the gap between women's and men's access to financial services, the AU gender scorecard used two indicators: having an account at a financial institution and borrowing from a financial institution. It stated that Africa had made some progress with regard to women's access to credit, but only 8 out of the 43 countries for which data were available, demonstrated equal access for women and men or

easier access for women to credit facilities (AUC, 2015a). The analysis in this report also included similar indicators based on a more recent database (Findex 2017, see Figure 6 and Figure 7).

Figure 6: Evolution of account ownership in Northern Africa (NA) and sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) since 2011



Source: Findex Database, 2017.

Figure 7: Evolution of borrowing rates from financial institutions in Northern Africa (NA) and sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) since 2011



Source: Findex Database, 2017.

The analysis of the graphs and available data shows a progressive trend in account ownership and financial borrowing:

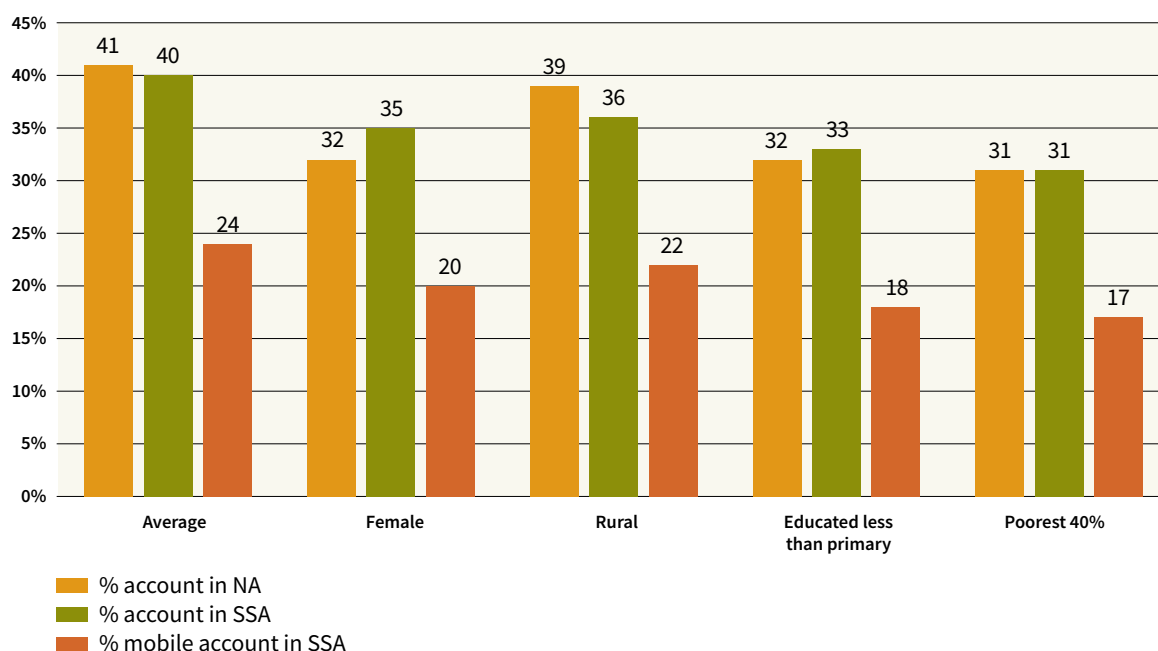
- **Account ownership has increased by around 40 percent since 2014, and has doubled for both men and women since 2011.** Gender gaps were stronger in Northern Africa compared to other subregions in the continent: in Northern Africa, 51 percent of men owned an account compared to 32 percent of women, and men saved or borrowed from financial institutions twice as much compared to women.
- The proportion of the population **borrowing from financial institutions has increased but remains very low** at around 5 percent, with marginal gender gaps in sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) but bigger gaps in Northern Africa, where the proportion of women borrowing from financial institutions has dropped since 2014.
- **Mobile money accounts ownership has doubled in SSA between 2014 and 2017**, reaching up to 27 percent for men and 20 percent for women, while Northern Africa remains below 3 percent for both men and women. We can see very different situations in the various countries: seven countries have reached the AU target with more

than 30 percent of women having mobile account money, four of them with very little gender gaps (including Kenya, the leading country in mobile money dissemination with 69 percent of women and 77 percent of men holding such accounts). Analyses show that the development of mobile accounts facilitates women's financial inclusion (Demirgüç-Kunt *et al.*, 2018).

- In 2014, 26 percent of rural women compared to 22 percent of rural men used **informal** (friends, relatives, moneylenders) or **semi-formal financial services** (cooperatives, micro finance) (Global Findex Database, 2014).

In addition, there is limited data available specific to the rural and agricultural sector, where women face additional barriers. Similar or even stronger gaps are estimated for rural adults, less educated people and the poorest sections at 40 percent (Findex Database 2017, Figure 8). The poorest have the least access to financial services followed by the less educated and women. Further, the gap between rural and national average is less than the gap between women and the national average. Rural women are likely to combine such gaps, as they are usually less educated and poorer than their rural counterparts. Finally, Northern Africa is experiencing a strong gap in account ownership for youth.

Figure 8: Social gaps in account ownership in Africa



Source: Global Findex Database, 2017.



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Unfortunately, the database does not address agricultural credit and does not provide sex-disaggregated data for rural, less educated and poorest populations. Limited sex-disaggregated data on agricultural credit shows that, in Nigeria, only 30 percent of agricultural loan beneficiaries are women and less than 20 percent in Mali, with notably almost no large loans going to women (FAO, 2017b).

3.2.3 Gender mainstreaming in RAIPs and NAIPs and good practices

Gender audits carried out evaluating 38 NAIPs across SSA show that 55 percent were formulated without considering gender, while 25 percent partially did factor in gender during planning. Moreover, only 10 percent mainstreamed gender consistently and another 10 percent had specific programmes targeting gender-inclusive financial services. Beyond the NAIPs, several good practices were identified in the country gender assessment (from other government policies and ongoing programmes). They cover three main domains: (i) reinforcing women's capacities, voices and leadership; (ii) establishing innovative credit schemes; and (iii) creating an enabling environment.

The good practices are further discussed in the following paragraphs.

The first step towards drawing up gender inclusive policies and programmes is to ensure that quantitative data regarding gender gaps is available to present **to policy-makers and stakeholders** together with recommendations to adapt the enabling environment and the financial services to the needs of different beneficiaries, including women (See Box 9: Zambia).

The second step is to reinforce **women's capacity and agency** to access financial products and services, specifically credit, and develop partnerships with financial institutions (financial literacy, business management skills, support to women's organizations and support for advocacy for inclusive credit, accompanying mentorship) (See Box 9: Malawi).

In addition, it is important to develop innovative financial products and services, including credit systems with adequate flexibility, and build a positive enabling environment. This will help overcome the constraints of women's lower literacy rates and help empower them to make viable

financial decisions. The following practices have been identified in the CGAs as well as in international publications as promising:

- **Use of alternative collateral and group-based approaches:** Worldwide, many microfinance institutions have been successful in providing access to credit without formal collateral to low-income and vulnerable women, with atypical goods such as jewellery, accumulated savings and account receivables, and future harvest. Several financial service providers also adopt group-based approaches with joint liability, to reduce costs and guarantee strict monitoring by other group members (See Box 9: Zambia).
- **Innovative delivery mechanisms and use of information and communications technologies (ICTs)** to face high transaction costs and issues related to mobility (for example building on mobile banking that is booming in Africa. (See Box 9).
- **Simplified and cheaper banking practices** to adapt to women's needs and literacy level. For instance, some institutions adapt their application procedures, contracts and communication strategy to the literacy and numeracy level of their clients, using a simplified language and approach for those who are illiterate. They also organize specific training to increase women's understanding of financial products. Some others have **reduced the minimum deposit and other requirements for opening bank accounts** (See Box 9: Zambia).

Finally, improving women's financial inclusion requires a **positive enabling environment** that will support formal financial institutions to overcome gender-based constraints and develop gender-sensitive programmes. Interesting practices include:

- **Making specific adjustments in the legal framework**
 - It is essential to develop and implement **clear and transparent collateral laws** that allow for the use of alternative forms of guarantees such as warehouse receipts, future harvests, or mortgages on moveable assets, including farm machinery and livestock.

- **The mobile bank revolution requires legal and regulatory frameworks** for mobile and agent banking to enable non-bank participation and new models of transactions (See Box 9: Kenya).
- There is a need to **encourage and strengthen links between formal institutions and intermediary lending organizations, including women's groups**, through legislative support, training for women, and institutional strengthening for intermediary institutions with a view to mobilizing capital and increasing the availability of credit (Beijing Platform for Action).
- It is necessary to **set specific targets and incentives** for women beneficiaries. The AU proposes a target of 50 percent of women accessing financing. However, targets vary for individual countries. The NAIP of Zambia, for instance, includes a 30 percent target for women beneficiaries.
- There is also a **need to remove discrimination in existing legislations**, for instance, countries where women are unable to make legal transactions let alone apply for credit, unless a male family member signs for them (AfDB, 2013).
- **Specific support to develop gender-inclusive financing arrangements** based on gender-sensitive diagnoses and participatory processes that include women's voices and capacity development. For instance, the ECOWAS Regional Agricultural Investment Plan for Food Security and Nutrition (RAIPFSN) clearly includes measures to define and implement "financial services to meet the specific needs of women and young people" (action 1.5.2.3 and 4.1.1.5; see Box 9: Chad).
- **Setting up guarantee funds** to facilitate women's access to credit, as well as providing support to develop gender-sensitive insurance systems. Financial service providers (FSPs) and governments need to partner and share risks, which may help the former to be more flexible with their products and services (See Box 9: Morocco).
- Setting up **specific banks or funds to finance women's activities, which include specific programmes to develop women's entrepreneurship** (See Box 9).



BOX 9: EXAMPLE OF BEST PRACTICES RELATED TO GENDER INCLUSION IN FINANCE ACROSS AFRICA

In Zambia, the central bank governor supported the implementation of a self-check tool that encouraged the banks to check whether their financial products and services addressed women's needs in the same way as those of men. As a result, some banks adjusted their products to better meet the financial needs of women (CGAP, 2013). For instance, a programme has been providing soft loans, specifically to women. These soft loans do not make collateral security a requirement and thus are convenient for women who often do not have assets for collaterals.

The NAIP of Malawi includes specific activities to reinforce women access to credit, including the reinforcement of financial literacy skills and providing support to women's organizations. We can see several examples of successful credit schemes **managed or co-managed by producers' organizations**; similar experiences could be applied to women's organizations.

Mobile money banking shows promising results in closing gender gaps in account ownership in several African countries (Demirgüç-Kunt *et al.*, 2018). Mobile phones can be used to make loan payments and transfer money, which addresses rural women's mobility constraints, while bolstering their access to bank accounts, financial independence, access to services and increased information, without having to provide a plethora of identification documents. Mobile money banking requires specific regulations. For instance, **in Kenya**, where mobile banking reaches 69 percent of the women, regulators have been able to develop suitable regulation for mobile banking and have introduced a pilot savings product combined with a loan product tailored to meet the needs of poor women. In the long run, such efforts would have to be linked with a regulated deposit-taking institution.

Chad elaborated and adopted a specific strategy for inclusive financing for women and youth. In some countries, such as Burundi and Kenya, central banks are playing a prominent role in implementing independent national demand-side surveys that address their countries' particular financial inclusion agenda (AfDB, 2013).

To support the development of women enterprises, **Morocco** helped set up a partnership between the Central Guarantee Fund and the Ministry of Economy, to launch in 2013, a pioneer instrument ILAYKI to support women-headed businesses. It covers 80 percent of a loan amount lower than DHS 1 million. In one year, 17 percent of the small-scale enterprises availed these funds, investing about DHS 35 million and creating 200 jobs (Morocco CGA).

NAIP 1 of Côte d'Ivoire has set up specific funds for women. In addition, the **Imbita Eswatini Women's Finance Trust** provides micro loans specifically for rural women as individuals and as groups based on gender-sensitive terms: there are no collateral requirements and the consent of the husband is not a criterion. To this date, the Trust has distributed EUR 15 000 000, mainly to rural women.

4 GOAL 3

Ending hunger by 2025: food insecurity, nutrition and gender





An estimated 383 million people are still suffering from hunger and malnutrition in Africa (FAO, 2018a). Evidence shows that women are more food insecure than men in every region of the world, but particularly within Africa. Gender gap in food security exists everywhere and differential access to economic opportunities and resources is a major reason (FAO SOFI, 2017). In 2016, the food security situation worsened, in particular, in parts of SSA; it deteriorated even further in countries engaged in conflict where there were also droughts or floods (FAO SOFI, 2017).

Nevertheless, several African countries and regional economic entities are making considerable progress in aligning agricultural plans with other policies, programmes and investments related to food security and nutrition. Africa, as a continent, faces considerable challenges in attaining these goals while facing low agricultural productivity, climate change and environmental degradation, as well as high youth unemployment.

In 2013, AU convened a high-level meeting on Renewed Partnership for a Unified Approach to End Hunger in Africa and signed a declaration to end hunger on the continent by 2025, by sustaining the momentum behind CAADP.

Subsequently various **other commitments heightened the political momentum** to end hunger and malnutrition related to gender, notably regarding nutrition needs of adolescent girls, and pregnant and lactating women as well as the need to develop affirmative actions to ensure women's equal access to productive resources and technologies to contribute equally to productivity targets (see Box 10).

The following section seeks to review the major elements, which may lead towards greater food insecurity, starting with indicator 3.5 to provide an overall picture of the state of food insecurity and nutrition for women. It then goes on to review its major cause on the availability side (production and post-harvest losses).

4.1 Food security and nutrition

4.1.1 Situation of women and gender gaps in food insecurity and nutrition

4.1.1.1 Overview of food insecurity in Africa

The CAADP Evaluation Report highlighted that the continental target for bringing down undernourishment to 5 percent or less by the year 2025 has not been met, with only nine countries on track.

Indeed, recent estimates on **food security and nutrition reveal that the prevalence of undernourishment in SSA rose** from 20.7 percent in 2014 to 23.2 percent in 2017, while it rose in Northern Africa from 5 percent in 2010 to 8.5 percent in 2017. In concrete terms, this adds up to about 256.5 million people who are undernourished (236 million in SSA itself), up from 181 million in 2010 (FAO, 2018a; FAO *et al.*, 2018), with children being the most affected.

Food security is closely related to **risks and the resilience capacity of households to cope with such risks**, including conflict, climate and value chain risks (see page 124, Goal 6: Resilience to shocks and climate variability).



BOX 10: AU TARGETS AND COMMITMENTS REGARDING FOOD SECURITY AND GENDER

The AU Agenda 2063 Aspiration 1 targets “a modern agriculture for increased production, productivity and value addition that contribute to farmer and national prosperity and Africa’s collective food security.” Its call for action includes the agenda to **eliminate hunger and food insecurity**. The AU 2063 framework includes, in addition, the need to **develop/implement nutrition programmes, especially for the poor, women, children and the marginalized**.

SDG 2 of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development aims to “end hunger, achieve food security and improve nutrition, and promote sustainable agriculture.” The goal includes gender-sensitive indicators: the need to achieve, by 2025, the internationally agreed targets on stunting and wasting in children under five years of age, and to address the nutritional needs of adolescent girls, pregnant and lactating women, and older persons.

The **Malabo Declaration** includes the goal to end hunger by 2025, targeting to reduce stunting to 10 percent, and to at least double productivity (focusing on inputs, irrigation, and mechanization).

The CAADP Result Framework 2015 and the guidelines to report on CAADP consider several results to achieve this goal:

- Productivity (3.1 and 3.2): Promote utilization of cost-effective and good quality agricultural inputs, irrigation, mechanization, and agrochemicals for crops, fisheries, livestock and forestry to boost agricultural productivity.
- Reduce post-harvest losses (3.3): Provide logistics support to all stages of the food production chain (field/harvest, storage, processing, transportation and final retail market) to limit degradation both in quantity and in quality of the produced food.
- Social protection (3.4): Integrate measures for increased agricultural productivity with social protection initiatives focusing on vulnerable social groups through committing targeted budget lines within national budgets for social protection.
- Food security and nutrition (3.5): Promote initiatives to improve nutritional status, and in particular, the elimination of hunger and child malnourishment in Africa, by bringing down child stunting, child underweight, child wasting, and child undernourishment; further, improving dietary diversity for women and children.

- Levels of chronic and acute food insecurity and undernutrition are **higher in countries affected by conflict**. *The State of Food Security and Nutrition in the World (SOFI) 2017* estimates that rates of stunting among children are on the decline worldwide, but remain very high in most parts of Africa, particularly those affected by conflict. Conflict is also the main driver of displacement, and displaced populations are particularly affected by food insecurity and undernutrition. Conversely, food insecurity is in itself a factor that increases or can trigger violence and instability, particularly in contexts characterized by diffuse inequities and fragile institutions. For example, soaring food prices exacerbate the risk of political turmoil and conflict, as evidenced by the food riots that erupted in more than 40 countries in 2007 and 2008. (FAO *et al.*, 2017). Many African countries are currently affected by various conflicts and some are considered in a state of protracted crisis, marked by conflicts and/or prolonged natural disaster, deterioration of people's livelihoods and institutional incapacity to react and manage crises. According to SOFI 2017, the countries affected by both conflicts and protracted crisis are mostly African, such as Burundi, CAR, Chad, DRC, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Liberia, Somalia, South Sudan and Sudan (FAO *et al.*, 2017).
- In addition, “the gains made in ending hunger and malnutrition are being eroded by **climate variability and exposure to more complex, frequent and intense climate extremes**. Hunger is significantly worse in countries with agricultural systems that are highly sensitive to rainfall and temperature variability and severe drought, and where the livelihood of a high proportion of the population depends on agriculture” (FAO *et al.*, 2018).

4.1.1.2 Situation of women in relation to food insecurity

Women's condition and status are strongly intertwined with the food security and nutritional status of children and other family members.

- **Food insecurity and poor nutrition during pregnancy and childhood** not only directly affects fo healthy development of children, it also

increases the risk of obesity and associated non-communicable chronic diseases in adulthood. Breastfeeding during the first 1000 days after a child's birth has been proved to be of major importance, making the nutritional status of the mother critical in ensuring the food security of children, including their brain formation (FAO, 2017c).

- There is compelling evidence that eliminating gender-based inequalities significantly contributes to achieving food security and nutrition. For example, **improving the level of education of the mother has a strong impact on the nutritional status of the children**. In Chad, for example, 48 percent of the children with uneducated mothers are malnourished compared to 24 percent of those whose mothers have at least been to college (CGA Chad). The Tanzania CGA quoted that children of mothers with at least some secondary education had the lowest stunting levels, 22 percent, compared to those with no or little education, who had the highest stunting levels of 40–49 percent. The 2013 census for Togo highlights that chronic malnutrition of children under five is 33 percent for women without education and 18 percent for those with secondary education, while in Zambia 44.7 percent of children under five were malnourished in cases where the mother had no education compared to 36 percent for women with higher education. Therefore, improving women's education and status within their households and communities has a direct impact on food security and nutrition, in particular child nutrition.
- Women are **responsible for providing non-grain food supply (e.g. fruits, vegetables, leaves and spices from their home vegetable gardens), help cope with lean season and for preparing meals**, thereby playing a crucial role in ensuring the availability, stability, quality, diversity and safety of meals. They most often grow different subsistence crops, side crops, condiments and vegetables that contribute greatly to diversification of food diets, key to improved nutrition. Further, women are often responsible for providing food during the lean season, when the primary farm grain is exhausted. Women have devised indigenous ways of coping during lean seasons by engaging in vegetable farming on riverbeds and wage work on commercial farms.

They also collect specific leaves, fruits, insects and animals from the forest, which plays a key role in diversifying diets and improving the nutrient index (FAO, 2013d). Since women traditionally have the main responsibility for providing the household meals, training them in food hygiene/safe food handling and healthy food preparation has proven to have a great impact on decreasing/mitigating health risks and improving nutrition. Burundi's NAIP also highlights the role of the number of school years in reducing chronic hunger, indicating that educated women are often more open to new ideas and can better ensure that the nutritional needs of their children are met.

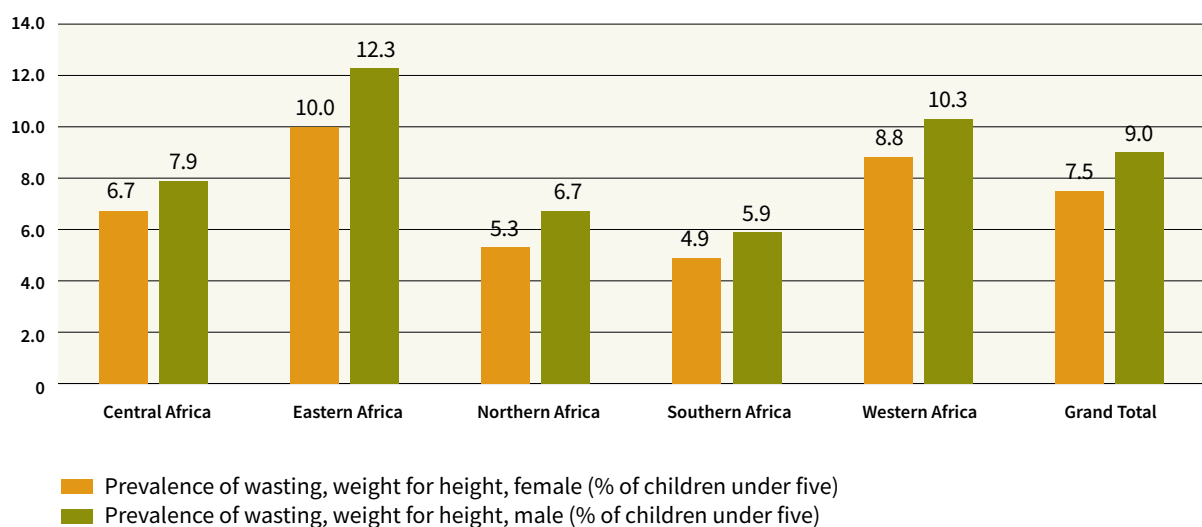
- FAO's 2017 global SOFI report also highlights that **women's knowledge about nutrition and the amount of resources allocated** to national policies and programmes for nutrition among mothers, infants and young children have positive impacts on both food security and nutrition (FAO *et al.*, 2017). A significant amount of country research over several decades has shown, for example, that “households in which women have more resources often spend more on household and child nutrition – diet quantity and quality – than do male-dominated households.” (AfDB, 2011).

- On the other hand, Guinea's NAIPs highlight that **parents' lack of time to monitor children's diets** and curtail their habits of nibbling harmful sugary products contribute to more overweight children and youth. This report also notes the **impact of dietary preference shifts to foods** with lower nutritional density than traditional dishes like plantain, for example. Such factors directly relate to women roles in the households as well as gender inequalities. Indeed, the general work burden on women and the unequal share of household duties that is dumped on their shoulders may leave them less time for childrearing and food preparation. It also shows the importance of involving women in nutrition efforts and the need to adopt an integrated approach that looks at both food insecurity and malnutrition, as poorest households are often affected by both.

Women are more likely to be food insecure

than men in every region of the world, and, more particularly, in Africa, where 25.2 percent females as against 23.7 percent males are insecure according to the database gathered by the “Voices of the Hungry” programme (see <http://www.fao.org/in-action/voices-of-the-hungry/fies/en/>). However, the situation is reversed among children, with the rates of food insecurity being higher for boys under five. (Figure 9)

Figure 9: Prevalence of wasting among boys and girls (average for 2008–2017)



Source: WHO, 2017. Retrieved in July 2018. Adjusted from national surveys with various occurrence dates along the 2008–2017 database.

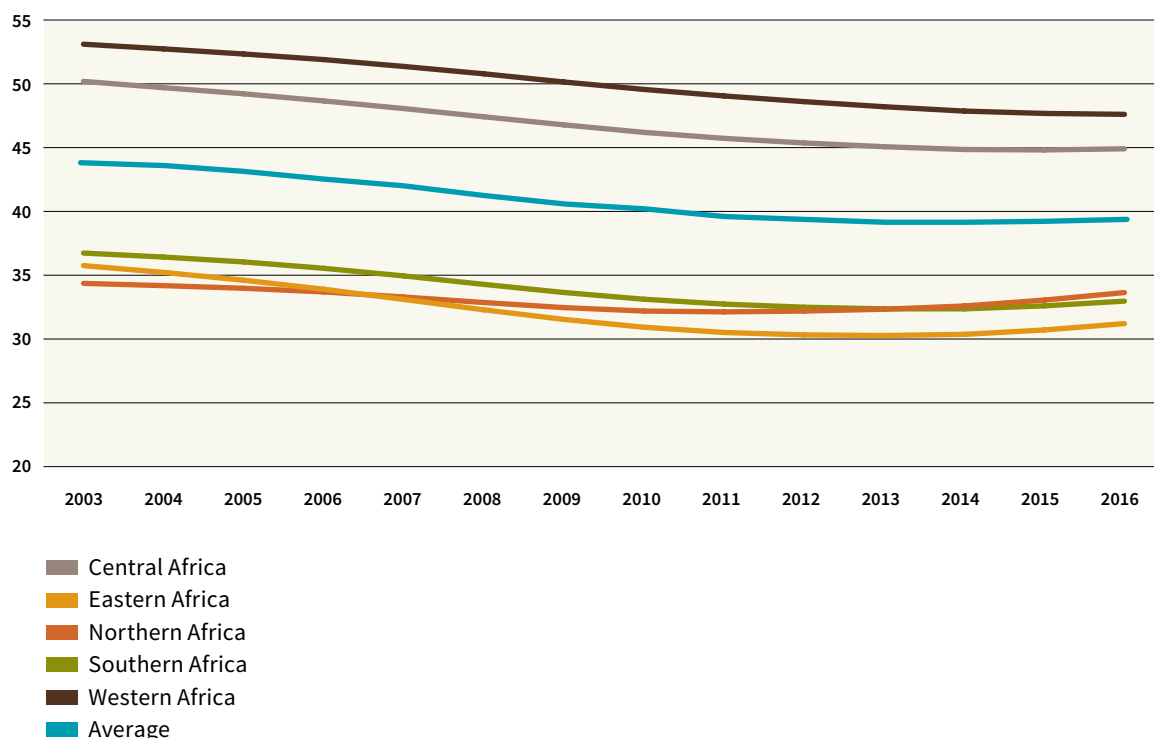
The prevalence of anaemia among women in the reproductive age group is highest in Africa (35 percent) followed by Latin American and the Caribbean (23 percent), while world average is around 16 percent. After a steady decline, the prevalence of anaemia in women of reproductive age seems to have once again risen since 2011 (see Figure 10). Anaemia is an indicator of poor nutrition and poor health. Children and women are the most vulnerable. Not only does it affect the health of women and their children, but it can also affect social and economic development.

Overall, **obesity and diabetes** has increased sharply in all the regions of the world, with **higher prevalence among women**. Halting such a trend is therefore part of global nutrition targets. However, the 2013 nutrition scorecard report highlights that no country is on course to meet the target (NEPAD, AU & IFPRI, 2013). Similar trends can be observed in Africa (see Figure 11 and Figure 12), with 33 percent of the females in Northern Africa being obese as against 10 to 22 percent in other regions (the lowest obesity rates are in Eastern Africa and the highest in Southern Africa). Female obesity in Africa is two to almost four times more than male obesity in all regions. Data show that **food insecurity and obesity**

tend to co-exist, even in the same households: “As resources for food become scarce, people often choose to eat lower-cost, less-healthy, more energy-dense foods, choices that can lead to people becoming overweight and obese as their means to access healthy food diminish. Periodic episodes of food insecurity and deprivation can also lead to eating disorders and stress-related metabolic responses. This can, in turn, increase the risk of obesity and non-communicable chronic diseases such as cancer, diabetes, hypertension and heart disease.” (FAO SOFI, 2018).

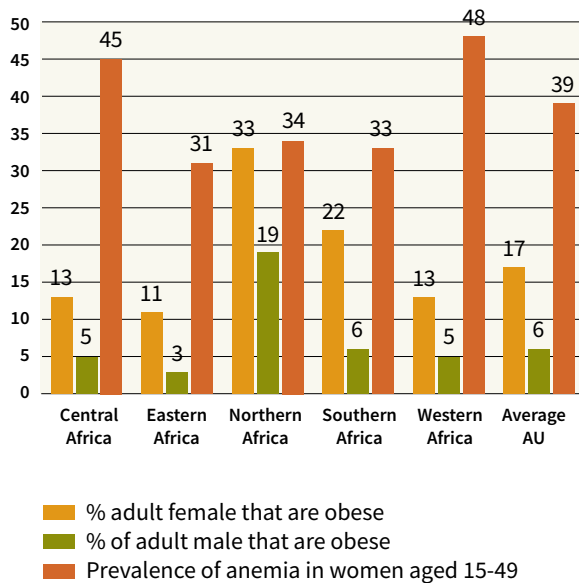
The situation in Africa differs from country to country. Data analysis reveals “that some countries with high poverty ratios are nonetheless able to assure better nutritional levels (for example Tanzania, Liberia and Rwanda), while other countries, despite having higher per capita income levels, suffer grave undernourishment rates, for example Democratic Republic of the Congo, Comoros.” In addition to the impact of conflicts, in some cases, the report relates such differences to the levels of consideration of women in food security support roles and gender inclusion in food security policy. (AfDB, 2011)

Figure 10: Anaemia in women of reproductive health (2003–2016)



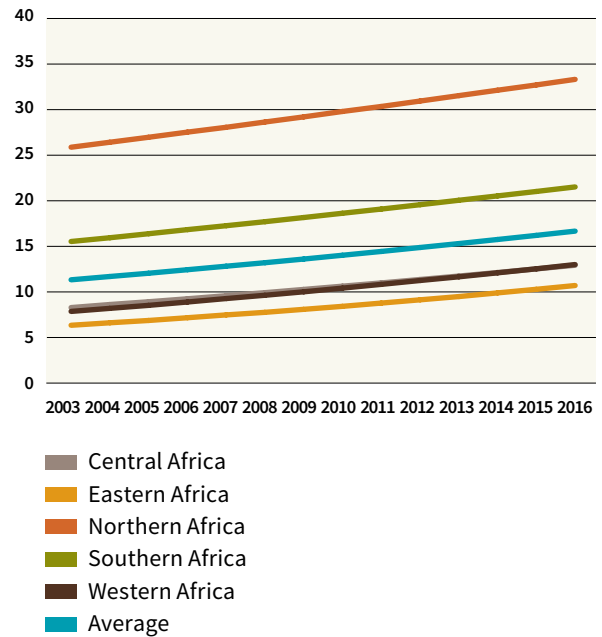
Source: World Bank Gender Database 2018.

Figure 11: Prevalence of obesity among female and male adults across African regions in 2017



Source: WHO Database from World Bank Gender Database, accessed June 2018.

Figure 12: Adult female obesity from 2003 to 2016



Source: WHO Database from World Bank Gender Database, accessed June 2018.

4.1.2 Food insecurity and nutrition: specific vulnerabilities of women

Several factors explain the **greater vulnerability of women to issues of food security:**

- Rural women's contribution to food security continues to remain invisible and scarcely accounted for, and it is not reflected adequately in policy, legal and institutional frameworks. Consequently, women may not be targeted with adequate services, information or training, increasing the likelihood that their productivity will be lower than that of male farmers and that they will be more affected by food insecurity and malnutrition.
- **Social norms and unequal gender relations** also affect women's nutritional status:
 - The choices made by female members in families (mothers, girls) to eat less (less nutritious foods or smaller amounts) than male members of the family are related to gender inequality in the household and customs. Several CGAs reported that women tend to

deprive themselves of food to save it for other members of the family or "visitors". Algeria reported that 9 percent of rural women would consume chicken once a week as against 24 percent of men in a similar environment. Surveys also mentioned smaller amounts given to infants or female children compared to male infants.

- **Food taboos** also affect women's diet and dietary diversity. Ethiopia's CGA mentioned culturally defined food taboos that restrict pregnant and lactating women and children from eating certain nutritious foods like vegetables and eggs. The Zambia report highlighted that boys are prohibited from eating yellow/orange food because it is believed to affect their manhood/fertility, affecting their nutrition levels.
- **The highest vulnerability of women to food insecurity** can be connected to several factors:
 - The MDGs 2015 progress reports made in 2012 indicated that women in SSA are at greater risk of living in poverty than men. (Also see section 5.1.2, page 80).

- They are more fragile and exposed to food insecurity due to **pregnancies, frequent births and the heavy household work burden** of mothers.
- Political commitment and bold actions are lacking to implement gender-sensitive food security policies and programmes targeting women in particular.
- There is **insufficient effort put into the economic empowerment of women**. Further, there are several other gender gaps in access and control over assets, inputs, credit, income-generating opportunities and decent employment, as well as cash flow problems during the lean season.
- Rural women often find it **harder to access resources and income**, making them more vulnerable and more likely to take risks in their coping strategies. They often engage in informal and precarious activities and, therefore, are not beneficiaries of the few social protection programmes associated with formal work.
- Finally, **women are usually more affected than men by conflicts** (FAO SOFI, 2017; see also section 7.1.1, page 127). In conflict situations, men and boys are more likely to be engaged in combat and to be socially oriented towards violent masculinity, increasing gender-based violence. In a crisis, they are often the first to migrate. Women, usually, stay behind, taking charge of the households. They often have to face unsolicited advances following the departure or death of their men. In addition, in the event of a crisis, it is often their resources that is dipped into first (in particular, the animals belonging to women are often sold first).
- Inadequate access to drinking water and difficult sanitary conditions also affect the conditions of meal preparation and maintenance of hygiene.

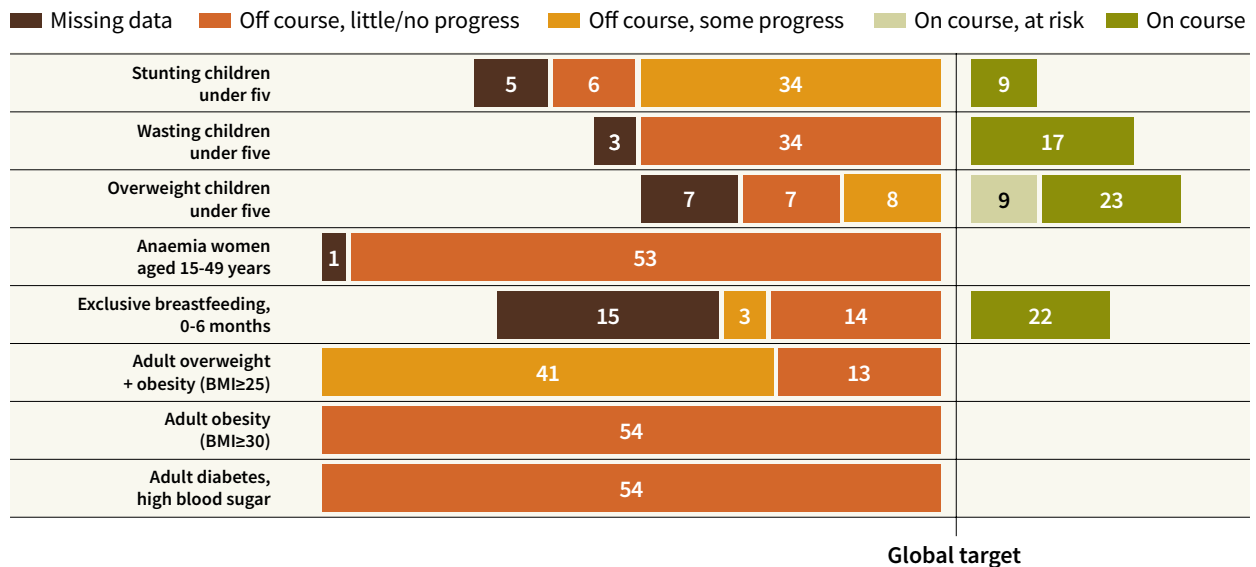
4.1.3 Policy and intervention responses and results

The **CAADP Malabo Results Framework** and report include a gender-specific indicator “Growth Rate of the Proportion of Minimum Dietary Diversity-Women (†MDDW)”, reflecting the proportion attaining a minimum dietary diversity, including micronutrient adequacy and targeting child undernutrition as

well. There was little feedback on this indicator, except in West Africa, with countries reporting huge disparities in outcomes. For instance, the indicator showed positive growth rates, between 16 to 22 percent, in Burkina Faso, Niger and Senegal, while there was a sharp decline in dietary diversity in Guinea (100 percent), and in Ghana (37 percent). In other regions, only Burundi with 7.7 percent and Mauritania with 18 percent reported results for the parameter. A recommendation here is that apart from growth, the actual proportion of dietary diversity should also be measured.

The African **nutrition scorecard** report reveals that countries have made little progress in meeting food security and nutritional targets (AUC, NEPAD, 2015 and Figure 13). The highest achievements have been in the area of addressing undernourishment in children, while no progress has been made regarding obesity, diabetes and reducing female anaemia.

The **gender audit of 38 regional and national investment plans** across SSA shows that over 70 percent of NAIPs report at least minimal sensitivity to gender in food security and nutrition measures (see Figure 5). Outputs at least mention women in reproductive age/mothers as a specific target for food security and nutrition interventions. For instance, the RAIPs of ECCAS target, more particularly, single women and mothers with children. The RAIPs stress that not only dietary diversity, the conditions (sanitary, working time required) for meal preparation, but also the distribution of food within the family unit play an important role in the food and nutritional security of children. Some countries highlight the specific role of women in achieving food security and promote gender-targeted actions (gender-sensitive education, household vegetable gardens for women, school feeding programmes procured through women farmers, cash-based transfer targeted at mothers, and so on). However, such gender-targeted actions are not widespread. Women are mostly seen as a vulnerable population that needs to be targeted and not as a strong entry point to achieve better food security. Further, food security and nutrition interventions may neglect intra-household dynamics. For instance, though women prepare the food, men are mostly involved or may even be the prime decision-makers in the choice of meals. Therefore, successful interventions must involve both women and men.

Figure 13: Evaluation of progress made against global nutrition targets

Source: AUC& NEPAD, 2015 (African Nutrition Scorecard 2015).

Successful and meaningful good practices must include specific food security and nutrition interventions as well as interventions to build the resilience of households (see section 7, page 124, Goal 6. Resilience to shocks and climate variability):

- Food security interventions based on **gender diagnosis that identify existing gaps and barriers, including those arising out of existing social norms** and time-use burdens.
- Participatory approach involving both women and men in the design and follow up of the programmes.
- **Nutrition education** and behaviour change communication that target both men and women and homestead food production.
- **Social protection** interventions, including cash transfer targeted at women as they tend to spend more on household food security. Also, some countries are experimenting with cash transfers linked to supporting specific activities (kitchen garden production, one cow programme, support to subsistence crops) and nutrition education (see section 7.1.3, page 133).
- Programmes that enable women to diversify and strengthen their subsistence activities (household gardens and animal production) so as to enhance household diets.
- Agricultural training and input support to women farmers.
- Development of locally produced nutritious food (flour, cake, fortified products and so on), building on existing processing activities and targeting women's organizations.
- **School feeding programmes** involving mothers and local producers.
- Bottom up, community-based programmes that seek to **empower women at the household and community levels, seeking to address gender norms and barriers and involve men as well as trusted leaders in the training.**
- **Household and community approach**, supporting intra-household diagnosis and dialogue to promote a more balanced distribution of household tasks between men and women and empowering women to have greater control over food-related decisions, including food stocks and allocations.

- Gender sensitization and community conversations.
- Formation and strengthening of women's groups within the community, as well as give them a chance to participate in and lead mixed-gender groups so as to enhance their voice and agency.

Finally, reviews of successful programmes usually recommend that gender-focused interventions be integrated into existing programmes and policies, rather than create new structures that may not be sustainable.



BOX 11: COMMITMENTS RELATED TO PRODUCTIVITY

SDG2 on Zero Hunger aims to double productivity and incomes of men and women smallholders through secure and equal access to land, knowledge, financial services, markets and value-addition opportunities. In AU Agenda 2063, Member States are committed to take actions to **consolidate the modernization of African agriculture and agribusinesses**, through scaled-up value **addition and productivity**. Its target is to increase total **factor productivity by at least 6 times** what it was in 2013. The other commitment is to **banish the hand-held hoe** by 2025. To achieve such targets, heads of states have vowed to take action to expand the introduction of modern agricultural systems, technology, practices and training, including the banishment of the hand-held hoe. They have also committed to develop and implement **affirmative policies and advocacy** to ensure women's increased access to land and inputs. Aspiration 6 on gender equality states that rural women will have access to productive assets: land, credit, inputs and financial services.

The "AU Campaign to confine the hand-held hoe to the museum" was launched in June 2015 in Johannesburg during the Union Summit. Under Aspiration 1 titled "A prosperous Africa based on inclusive growth and sustainable development". Agenda 2063 strives for a "modern, productive and attractive agriculture, using science, technology, innovation and indigenous knowledge," and states that "the hand hoe will be banished by 2025."

The Malabo Declaration includes a goal 3 to end hunger by 2025, targeting to at least double productivity (focusing on inputs, irrigation and mechanization). The CAADP Result Framework 2015 and the guidelines to report on CAADP considers several sub-indicators and targets that are not sex-disaggregated:

- Double the growth rate of agricultural value added per worker and per hectare
- Double yields of 5 priority commodities and if possible 11
- Ensure the minimum use of fertilizers for African agriculture development with consumption of at least 50 kilograms per hectare of arable land, from 2015 to 2025
- Double (100 percent increase) the current levels of quality agricultural inputs for crops (seed), livestock (breed), and fisheries (fingerlings), by 2025
- Double access to advisory services
- Double proportion of households with ownership or secure land rights
- Double the size of irrigated areas from its value in 2000
- Spend 1 percent of Agriculture Gross Domestic Product (AgGDP) on agricultural research

4.2 Productivity and management of natural resources

AU is strongly committed to increasing productivity sustainably for both men and women, with specific attention to provide equal access to productive assets: land, credit, inputs, mechanization, and financial services. Specific actions have been proposed to enhance the access of women to such resources (Box 11).

4.2.1 Productivity analysis based on sector

4.2.1.1 Crop sector

The 2018 CAADP Evaluation Report highlights that out of the 34 Member States that reported on growth rates of yields of national commodities, 13 reached the target of minimum increase of 10 percent required to stay on track in 2017 (AUC, 2018a).

Gender gaps in productivity

Various studies have linked the underperformance of the agricultural sector to gender inequalities in asset ownership, labour inputs, and access to skills, technologies, innovations, services and markets. There is resounding evidence that closing gender productivity gaps would generate higher yields, raise incomes, increase food consumptions and reduce poverty in rural areas (FAO, 2011b). Other effects include improvements in the nutritional status of household members and their social status.

Empirical evidence suggests that **women's deficits in agricultural productivity**, compared to men's performances, range from 4 to 50 percent across the world, but lie between 20 and 30 percent in the SSA region (Mukasa and Salami, 2016). Further data assessment conducted in Nigeria, Tanzania, and Uganda, where gender productivity differentials were evaluated, revealed 18.6 percent, 27.4 percent, and 30.6 percent gaps, respectively. (Mukasa, A.N and A.O. Salami, 2016). Another study conducted in Ethiopia, Malawi, Niger, Nigeria, Tanzania and Uganda, which together make up more than 40 percent of SSA's population, provides similar findings (O'Sullivan, 2014). In the six countries profiled, the study found that productivity per hectare on women's farms is significantly lower compared to men's, ranging from 13 percent in Uganda to 25 percent in Malawi (O'Sullivan, 2014).

The **lower productivity comes notably from gender gaps** in land ownership, access to credit and productive farm inputs like fertilizers, pesticides and farming tools, support from extension services, and access to markets and other factors essential to their productivity (O'Sullivan, 2014). In addition, women face huge time constraints due to disproportionate time spent on domestic and household tasks, including notably long hours spent in collecting water and fuelwood due to low availability of energy and water in rural areas. An African Development Bank (AfDB)

study on three pilot African countries confirms that female managers of agricultural lands have a clear endowment disadvantage when it comes to most factors generating agricultural productivity such as farm size and use or intensity of non-labour inputs. Further data analysis shows that endowment and structural disadvantages of female managers in **land size, land quality, labour inputs, and household characteristics** are the main drivers of gender gaps, though such drivers are not equally important across the countries (AfDB 2016a). Therefore, different priorities and interventions are needed according to each context.

Several studies show that **closing such gender gaps in access to key productive resources, inputs and services could lead to significant productivity gains and speed up progress towards the achievement of zero hunger targets:**

- FAO estimates that, if women worldwide had the same access to productive resources as men, they could increase yields on their farms by 20–30 percent and raise the total agricultural output by 2.5–4 percent. Gains in agricultural production alone could lift 100 to 150 million people out of hunger (FAO, 2011b).
- An AfDB study estimated quantitatively that closing the gender productivity gap would yield production gains of 2.8 percent in Nigeria, 8.1 percent in Tanzania, and 10.3 percent in Uganda (see Figure 14). Furthermore, compared with their current levels, monthly consumption would increase by 2.9 percent, 1.4 percent, and 10.7 percent, respectively. Also, 1.2 percent, 4.9 percent, and 13 percent of poor households with female managers might move out of poverty in these countries (Mukasa and Salami, 2016a).
- Recent quantitative analysis shows that women's empowerment in agriculture, notably their decision-making power, significantly increases maize productivity (Diirro *et al.*, 2018). For instance, an increase in women's empowerment by 1 percent led to a 6.4 percent, even up to 16.8 percent increase in maize yield, depending on the calculation methods. If the number of production decisions made by women increases by one unit, maize productivity can increase by 32 percent, while a similar one unit increase in income, group membership and assets indicators tends to increase maize productivity by 14,

15 and 13 percent, respectively. Explanatory factors include the fact that empowered women show increased use of improved technologies such as inorganic fertilizers, agronomic practices such as push-pull technology (72 percent as against 52 percent), and use of pesticides and improved maize varieties.

Other indirect effects of increased productivity would include **better bargaining power for female managers, improvements in their social status as their earnings increase, better child nutrition, better health, and education attainment in households with female-managed plots** (FAO, 2011b).

Improving gender equality through agriculture could therefore translate into a generation of Africans who are better fed, better educated and better equipped to make productive contributions to their economies, in agriculture and beyond (O'Sullivan, 2014).

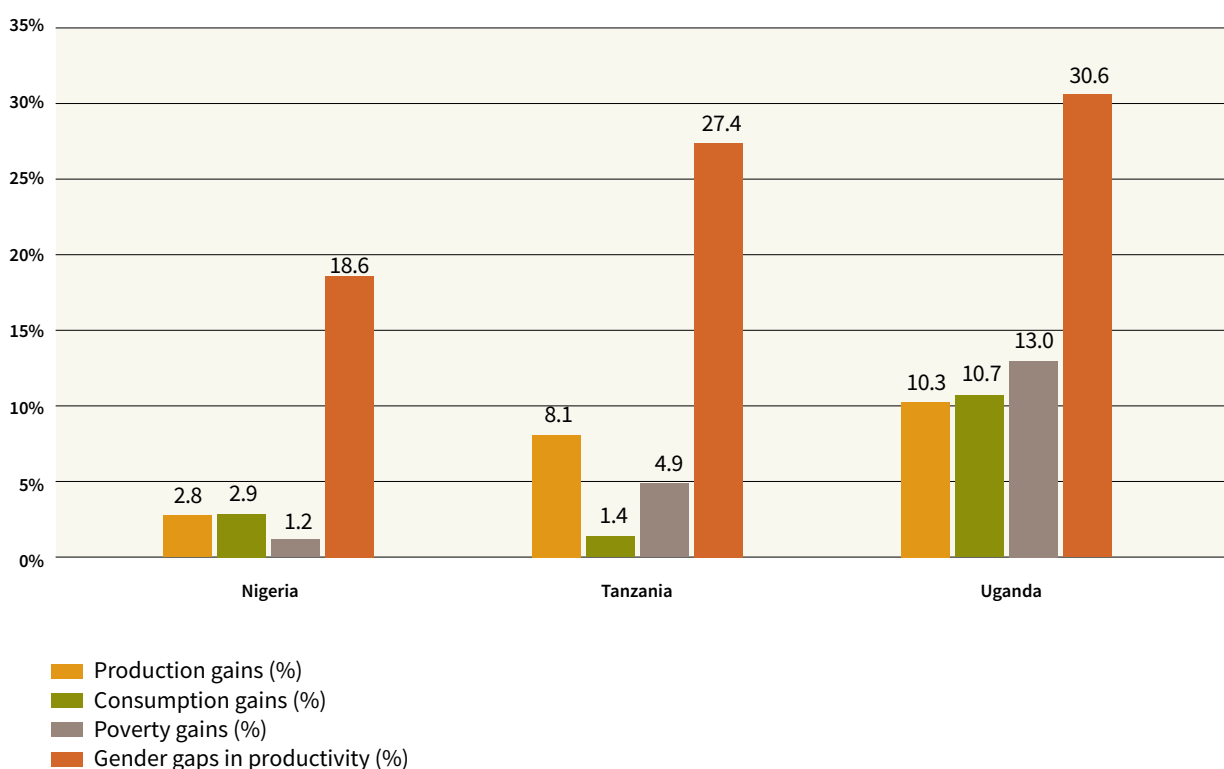
The Malabo Declaration and its Results Framework are associated with several indicators and targets on productivity, including access to inputs and resources, covering land, water and services. The following sections will analyse the prevailing gender gaps in the above-listed areas, which are crucial to enhance productivity.

4.2.1.2 Access to livestock and animal productivity

Livestock ownership and rearing is critical to produce food, generate cash, manage risks, build assets and escape poverty. Indeed, it secures assets, increases farming and animal productivity and can facilitate access to markets. There are usually strong correlations between levels of poverty and animal ownership (FAO, 2012a). In addition, a recent study demonstrated that livestock assets can help a rural household to reduce the negative effect of climate shocks by 10 percent. Having a livestock diversified portfolio (LDP) that includes small ruminants can double the resilience potential of livestock assets up to 25 percent (Acosta, Nicolli and Karfakis, 2018).

Yet, women and female-headed households (FHHs) usually have lower levels of animal ownership. They are mainly involved in small livestock (poultry, sheep and goats), while larger animals, such as cattle and camels, are generally under the control of men. Tasks and responsibilities in the livestock sector are also usually divided between men and women, with women being generally in charge of the day-to-day care of animals, such as feeding, watering, cleaning sheds and caring

Figure 14: Gender gaps and potential gains from gender equality in agriculture



Source: Adamon N. Mukasa and Adeleke O. Salami, 2016a, based on LSMS ISA dataset.

for the sick ones, while men are generally in charge of marketing, slaughtering and export activities, tasks that usually lead to income generation. Finally, women are usually in charge of milking and processing of milk (FAO, 2013c). A few countries with

sex-disaggregated data show that female-headed households (FHHs) are usually much less endowed with cattle than male-headed households (MHHs) and that mostly cattle is owned by male rather than female members (see Table 2).

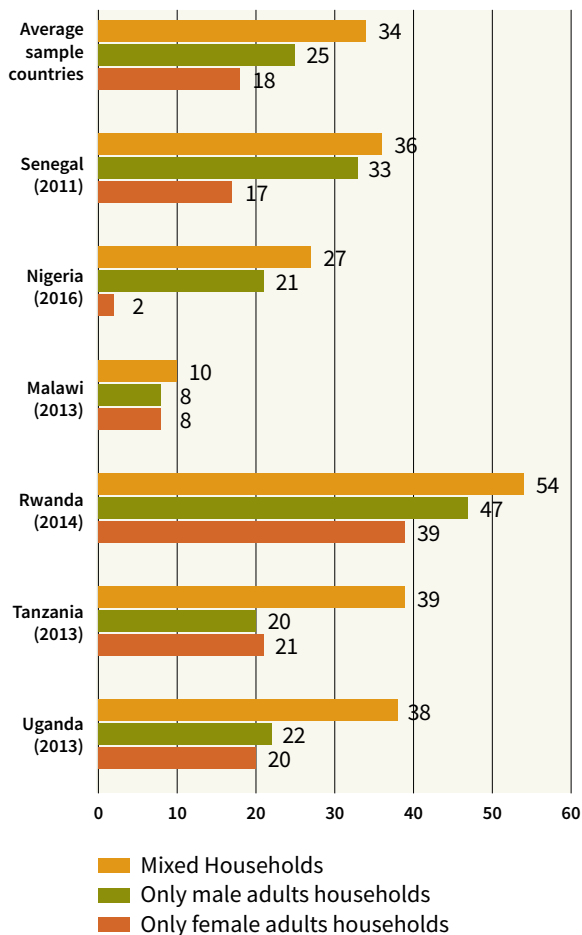
Table 2: Share of female and FHHs in cattle ownership across sample countries in SSA

| | Country | Indicator name | Value women (or FHH) | Value men (or MHH) | Source/date |
|-----------------|----------------------|---|-------------------------------|--------------------|--|
| Western Africa | Côte d'Ivoire | % of livestock farm households that are female-headed or male-headed (FHH representing 22% of HH) | 13.8 | 86.2 | Agriculture census 2014 |
| | The Gambia | % of cattle owned by females or males | 13 | 87 | Agriculture census 2011 |
| | Togo | % of HH having cows and sex of HH head | 4 (although 13.6% HH are FHH) | 96 | RNA 2013 |
| | Cape Verde | % of cows owned based on HH head (men or women) | 38 | 62 | ICIEG 2014–2015 |
| | Niger | % of cows' owners based on gender | 22.3 | 77.7 | General Agricultural Census 2004–2008 |
| | Burkina Faso | % of rural households rearing animals | 47.8 | 52.8 | National census of agriculture 2006–2010 |
| Central Africa | Congo | % of households with cattle that are FH | 13 | | RGA 2014 |
| Eastern Africa | Rwanda | % of HH owning other livestock | 59.5 | 66.2 | EICV 2014–2015 |
| | Uganda | % of households whose main livelihood is livestock | 0.3 | 2.2 | National census 2008–2009 |
| | Malawi | % of households owning livestock among FHH and MHH | 48 of FHH | 61 of MHH | National census 2006–2007 |
| Southern Africa | Zambia | % of HH having cattle | 9.8 | 19.6 | Central Statistical Office post-harvest survey raw data 2012 |
| | Zimbabwe | % of livestock ownership based on gender | 23 | 45 | GoZ & FAO 2013 |
| | Botswana | % of cattle owners that are female | 25 | | RGA 2015 |
| | Namibia | % of cattle owners based on gender | 21.7 | 78.3 | Namibia Census of Agriculture 2013–2014 |
| | South Africa | % of households involved in livestock production | 36 | 40 | Agricultural census 2011 |

Source: Data extracted from CGA and national census, as indicated.

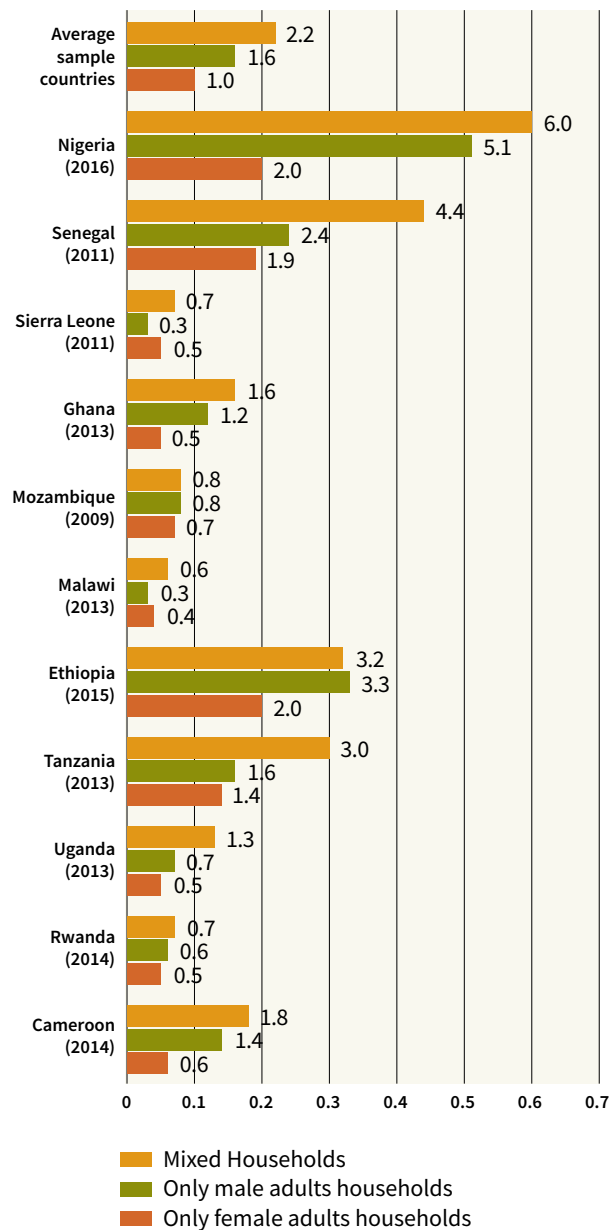
Women own between 13 percent and 25 percent of the cattle in Zimbabwe, Botswana, Namibia, Niger and The Gambia (CGAs). The specific analysis of female households (without adult males) shows that they own almost 50 percent less of large ruminants, such as cattle and camel (Figure 15) and the total size of their livestock is twice as less (Figure 16).

Figure 15: Gender gaps in large livestock ownership in female, male and mixed households⁵



Source: FAO, Rural Livelihoods Information System, Statistics Division, September 2018, Rome.

Figure 16: Gender gaps in total tropical livestock unit⁶ held in female, male and mixed households



Source: FAO, Rural Livelihoods Information System, Statistics Division, September 2018, Rome.

⁵ Female household refers to the composition of the household and not the sex of the head of the household. Female households represent a major subcategory of FHHs that represent about 15 percent of households in a sample of 15 countries (see Figure 34) and 62 percent of FHHs according to Milazzo and van de Walle, 2015. Such an analysis focuses on the household level, rather than the individual level and, therefore, does not capture intra-household gender inequality.

⁶ The tropical livestock unit is a standardized unit developed by FAO that allows conversion of different types of livestock and add them up to have an estimate of the total size of the livestock.

The review of CGAs and guidelines to understand and integrate gender into livestock programmes (FAO, 2013c) reveals that women face several constraints that explain their lower access to livestock and their lower productivity:

- They have limited access to and control over natural resources that are required to care for livestock. Notably, women often lack land for grazing and feedstock, or may face barriers with regard to access to water (FAO, 2013c).
- Customs and distribution of roles and responsibilities are often discriminatory to women. For instance, women are often forbidden to access the slaughter market (with wide differentiations across regions. For example, Somali women are mainly in charge of slaughtering and occupy leading roles in slaughtering facilities). CGAs reported that, often, women required permission from men to sell their livestock and sometimes cannot even sell their own animals, and have little control over the sharing of income, and collect, therefore, only part of it (Togo, Mali, Niger, Eswatini, Kenya and Guinea). Women, usually, have less access to ownership of animals and are sometimes forbidden to own certain types of animals due to the prevailing social norms.
- They have lower access to finance to procure and feed the animals as well as expand their livestock business.
- Women have lower access to technologies, training and animal care extension support services and often these services do not support smaller animals. Further, extension officers lack gender training. Also, women may be too busy or face mobility barriers to participate in training (FAO, 2013c).
- Often, women have lower access to markets, notably more formal markets that can provide higher returns but require them to comply with specific standards.
- There is weak participation of women in producers' organizations, which limits their voice and power along the value chain. In addition, their weak technical and organizational capacity

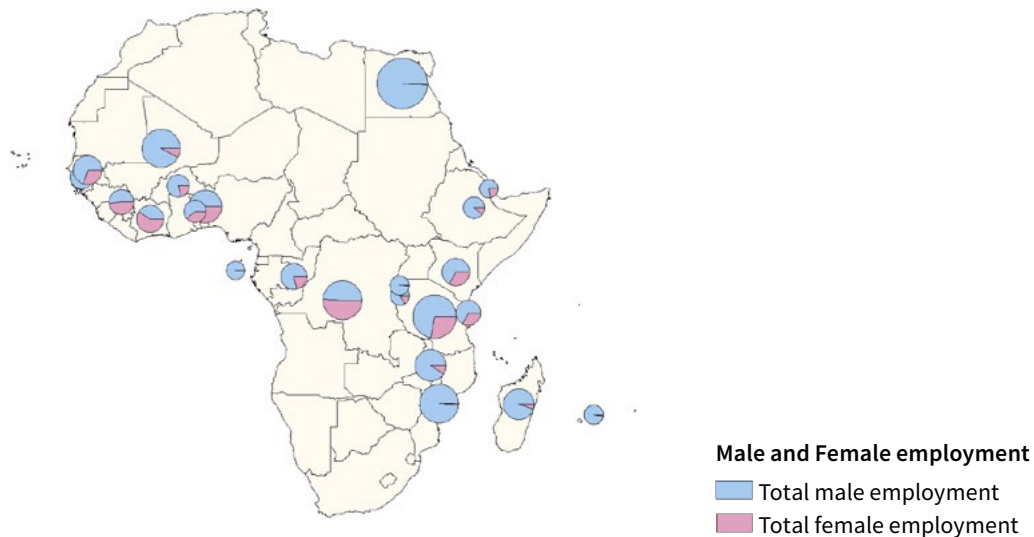
limits their capacity to access credit, negotiate for services and meet the quality and sanitation standards required to access better markets.

- When it comes to occupational health and safety, women are usually responsible for handling food. Often, they face more risk from animal-related diseases. But they could play a key role in mitigating such risks if properly trained in understanding disease transmission and safe food preparation (FAO, 2013c).
- Reliable sex-disaggregated livestock data is limited and there is weak participation of women in censuses to advocate for more gender-responsive livestock policies. The lack of sex-disaggregated data compounds advocacy for gender-responsive policies and programmes.

To better integrate gender into the livestock programme design, it is important to first identify the specific roles that women play and the constraints that they face. Only then can specific measures to address such issues in project design and implementation be put in place. This requires both gender-sensitive diagnosis and participation of women in these processes. Finally, to ensure accountability, the monitoring and evaluation system needs to include gender-sensitive targets, indicators and participatory review processes, including women's voices. The FAO guidelines includes several tools and practical checklists to support such gender integration (FAO, 2013c).

4.2.1.3 Access to fishery and aquaculture production, and productivity constraints

Fishery and aquaculture production activities in Africa accounted for about 10 percent of the world's fisheries in 2015 (totalling around 5.67 million people), nine times less than Asia but more than twice that of Latin America. African fisheries have increased by 35 percent since 2000. Aquaculture is a growing industry and now represents 16 percent of the total production, employing around 19.2 million people, of which 34 percent are women, but with large difference across countries and regions (see Figure 17; NEPAD, AU, 2016).

Figure 17: Male and Female employment in fisheries and aquaculture in sampled countries

Source: de Graaf & Garibaldi, 2014.

The specific constraints that women face, which reduce their productivity and participation in the sector, include:

- **Limited access to technology, infrastructure and services**
 - **Poor processing technology** with negative health and environmental impact. Most fish processing is done through traditional smoking methods. Due to lack of alternative energy source and equipment, traditional processing uses coal and fuelwood. It contributes to deforestation and climate change, and creates hazards from direct heat and smoke. In addition, traditional equipment contributes heavily to post-harvest losses. Finally, the traditional smoking process tends to generate products with abnormal levels of chemical, notably polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs), which have an extremely negative impact on health and are regulated by EU importers. Côte d'Ivoire, for instance, lost USD 1.6 million between 2006 and 2011 due to a self-ban from export.
 - **Poor marketing facilities**, especially storage for ensuring longer shelf life. In addition, we see low participation of women in cold storage of fish.
- **Lack of credit** for financing bigger and more remunerative business volumes.
- **Agency and women capacities**
 - Few or no organizational platforms to voice women's needs in the subsector, both for policy but also to better engage other stakeholders in the value chain. In addition, there is weak representation of women in fishermen associations.
 - Women often lack knowledge on trade standards to enter into more remunerative value chains, especially phytosanitary standards, which involve knowledge of improved smoking and packaging.
- **Weak enabling environment**
 - Employment conditions are poor with low income, exploitation of fisher folks, hazardous conditions, and gender inequality with more precarious conditions for women. In particular, there are major concerns worldwide about the presence of child labour and forced labour, as well as the exploitation of migrant workers. The protection of labour rights in fishing and aquaculture is limited (FAO, 2014).

- There is a lack of a gender strategy and specific gender programmes in the fisheries subsector of most countries. The SmartFish Project¹² pointed out that some African countries' food security and nutrition policies overlooked fish despite its importance in people's diets.
- Fisheries and aquaculture statistics remain limited and are rarely disaggregated by gender and age, and fail to capture more qualitative issues related to working conditions and child labour for instance. Therefore, the contribution of women is poorly assessed, inhibiting the formulation of gender-aware policies.
- **Practices and beliefs**
 - Social norms that forbid women from fishing, lack of full recognition of women's contribution, and women's limited access to credit, processing technology, storage facilities and training perpetuate gender.

4.2.2 Access to land and forestry resources

4.2.2.1 Context and concepts

In rural areas, land is a key input for agricultural production. It can be used as collateral to access financial resources, extension services or join producer organizations, and it can generate income directly, if rented or sold.

According to the voluntary guidelines on responsible governance of **tenure of land, fishery and forestry, tenure systems define and regulate** how people, communities and others gain **access to natural resources**, whether through formal law or informal arrangements. The rules of tenure determine who can use which resource, for how long, and under what conditions. They may be based on written policies and laws, as well as on unwritten customs and practices. Many tenure problems arise because of weak governance, and attempts to address tenure problems are affected by the quality of governance (FAO, 2012c). Three main types of rights can be identified when it comes to agricultural land: (a) **ownership rights** are usually conceptualized as

the full bundle of rights, with the right to alienate as the critical one; (b) **management rights**, or the rights related to making decisions on the use of the land for crop production or other agricultural use, including whether to plant crops or leave the land fallow, what crops to plant, what inputs to apply, and when to harvest; and (c) **economic rights**, or rights to derive economic benefits from the land in accordance with its use, including decision-making on the use of the output/income derived from the use of the land.

Secured tenure over land for women is critical for poverty reduction, food security, inclusiveness and overall sustainable development objectives. Secured land tenure for women has been linked to important gains in women's welfare, productivity, equality and empowerment (GSARS, 2016b). At the same time, it has a strong empowering effect on women: it reduces their reliance on male partners and relatives, increases their bargaining power within the household and improves their chances of accessing a wide variety of productive resources, including extension services and credit.

Yet, as further analysed in this section, women have less secured tenure than men, and it is one of the most limiting factors for women in agriculture, contributing transversally to other difficulties in accessing credit, using inputs, implementing sustainable and profitable practices and realizing long-term investment in agribusiness. Women's land rights are further threatened by the increasing land scarcity due to land degradation, demographic growth and competition with investments based on large land acquisition.

Several gender equality commitments and targets of AU are related to equal tenure and access to land for women, including a specific target of 30 percent of documented land rights for women, advancement of legislations and initiatives by donors (see Box 12). Despite such strong continental commitments, the Malabo Declaration and the CAADP Framework do not include gender-specific indicators nor targets regarding land access and ownership. Only one sub-indicator covers "the proportion of farm households with ownership or secure land rights (tHhSL)".



BOX 12: AU COMMITMENTS AND TARGETS RELATED TO GENDER AND LAND

- SDG 1.4, 2.3 and 5a refer to women's ownership and control over land and natural resources. The two indicators developed to monitor women's land rights refer to (i) ownership or secure right by sex, and (ii) positive measures put in place by countries to guarantee women's equal right to land ownership or control over land (FAO, 2016e).
- **VGGT of Land, Fisheries and Forests in Context of National Food Security** aims that "States should ensure that women and girls have equal tenure rights and access to land, fisheries and forests."
- An important part of the **AU agenda 2063** vision is that "African women will have equal rights to own and inherit property" as well as equal access to land. To achieve this goal, the Heads of States committed to develop and implement **affirmative policies and advocacy**. In October 2015 in Addis Ababa, the AU STC on Agriculture, Rural Development, Water and Environment endorsed a decision to move towards the allocation of 30 percent of land to women to improve the rights of women to land through legislative and other mechanisms by 2025.
- **Heads of States have also adopted a declaration on land issues and challenges (2009) as well as a framework and guidelines on land for Africa (2010) prepared by the Land Policy Initiative**. They point out specific issues that inhibit women land tenure rights and access to land, including a patriarchal system that confers inheritance rights upon male members and customs whereby women only access land through their male relatives. The framework provides various mechanisms, such as the enactment of legislation to advance women's access to land, including the land rights of women from the private sphere of marriage and family. Central to all land processes is the need for a fully gender-inclusive, informed and participatory mobilization and continuous engagement of all stakeholders in the policy cycle.
- **In addition to the AU commitments, other donors and programmes have more strongly integrated gender into their support for land**. For instance, the **AfDB gender strategy includes legal status and property rights** as its first pillar, including (i) improving land and property registration systems to ensure equal access for women; and (ii) support harmonization of customary and statutory laws.

4.2.2.2 Gender and access and control over land and forest resources in the region

The AU gender scorecard 2015⁷ showed that gender inequality was common in most African countries in terms of access to land and land ownership (AUC, 2015a).

Secured land tenure is not easily captured in statistics as it refers to a bundle of rights that can be formal and informal. Indeed, customary land tenure systems continue to govern access to and use of much of the agricultural land. Most land in Africa

remains unregistered and without formal ownership documents. African tenure systems are changing due to rising population pressures, changes in land allocation institutions, and the introduction of land registration programmes. While some countries allow individual land titles, others recognize specific areas under customary tenure and public lands. Others vest land ownership in the State and grant individuals only user rights (for example Ethiopia, Nigeria and Tanzania). Given these differences, the data from household and farm surveys on ownership may represent very different rights in different

⁷ The African Gender Scorecard is intended to be a simple, quick and user-friendly tool that Member States can use to measure their performance against key ratified equality gender commitments. The scorecard is made up of 7 sectors (including access to land), with an average of 3 subdimensions per sector and a total of 23 indicators. Data from international sources have been used to ensure relevance and comparability across countries. For each indicator, the latest available data for each country have been used (AUC, 2015a).

countries, depending on the existing customary and statutory legal frameworks (GSARS, 2016b). In addition, landowners may not be the ones managing and operating the land (agricultural holder) and, within the agricultural holding, different members, including women, may operate and manage land that they do not own. Therefore, ideally, beyond land ownership, it is important to understand the tenure rights of people cultivating the land, including through various temporary and long-term user arrangements. In Europe, for instance, farmers seldom own the land but they may farm under very secured and long-term land leases.

With regards to **agricultural land ownership (including documented, reported, certified and right to sell/collateral), a few countries have met the AU target of 30 percent female land ownership, notably in eastern and southern Africa, with Ethiopia at the top** (see Table 3, colored cells). In several countries, the share of women owners is below 20 percent, and, in Morocco, it is just 1 percent. The share of land owned by women remains below the incidence of female ownership and represents mostly less than 20 percent of the land in most cases.

Table 3: Incidence and proportion of female landownership

| Region | | % of landowners that are female (include documented, reported, certified land ownership and right to sell/collateral) | % of total agricultural land owned by women and in joint ownership | Data source and year |
|--------|---------------------|---|--|---|
| WA | Nigeria | 3.9% and women constitute 7% of all land owners (CGA) | 4% | CGA |
| WA | Senegal | 11% | 6.4% | CGA, DAPS 2015 |
| CA | Chad | 20% of rural women own land | | CGA, Oxfam, 2014 |
| WA | Togo | 20% of rural persons owning land are women | | IDISA, 2011 |
| WA | Mali | 20% of women have access to land | 14% of plots belong to women | CGA, Agricultural Situation Survey 2014–2015 |
| SA | Namibia | 21% | | NDHS, 2013 |
| CA | Cameroon | Women have obtained 21% of the land titles | | MINDCAF, 2013 |
| EA | Uganda | 31% | 15 | LSMS-ISA 2010-2011 National Panel Surveys) |
| EA | Tanzania | 31.7% | 18 | LSMS-ISA 2012-2013 |
| WA | Burkina Faso | 32% | | Demographic and Health Survey (Doss <i>et al.</i> 2015) |
| WA | Niger | 35.3%, but FHH constitute 5% of land owners | | LSMS-ISA Enquête Nationale sur les Conditions de Vie des Ménages et l'Agriculture de 2011 |
| SA | Zimbabwe | 36% | 40% | Demographic and Health Survey (Doss <i>et al.</i> , 2015) |
| WA | Ghana | 38% of landowners & 26% of registered land titles | 24% | Ghana Land Commission, CGA |
| SA | Lesotho | 38% | | Demographic and Health Survey (Doss <i>et al.</i> , 2015) |
| SA | Malawi | 41.6% | 16% | Demographic and Health Survey (Doss <i>et al.</i> , 2015) |
| EA | Ethiopia | 50% | 9% | Demographic and Health Survey (Doss <i>et al.</i> , 2015) |

Source: FAO Land and Gender Database, retrieved on July 2018 and from CGA and additional sources as mentioned.

Comparable data from the Demographic and Health surveys show that about **42 percent of men as against 32 percent of women own agricultural land in SSA**. Further, the **gender gaps appear narrower in Eastern and Southern Africa and higher in Central and Western Africa**. (Figure 18 and Figure 19). Such land ownership includes **joint ownership, which is a progressive arrangement** promoted in several countries to secure spouse rights within the household. Indeed, joint ownership is the main type of land ownership for women, while men have mainly sole ownership. It is particularly high for Eastern and Southern Africa and may explain why female ownership is higher there. However, such ownership does not necessarily mean equal access and management of land which are determined by gender relations in the household.

Therefore, **sole ownership is a more accurate indication** of the extent of inequalities in land ownership among adult women and men (GSARS, 2016b). When comparing the two types of ownership among men and women, we can observe a much

higher gender gap among sole land owners. In Western Africa notably, 7 percent of women as against 28 percent of men have sole ownership.

In six countries, the proportion of agricultural land area solely owned by women represented only 17 percent compared to 52 percent for men (Figure 20).

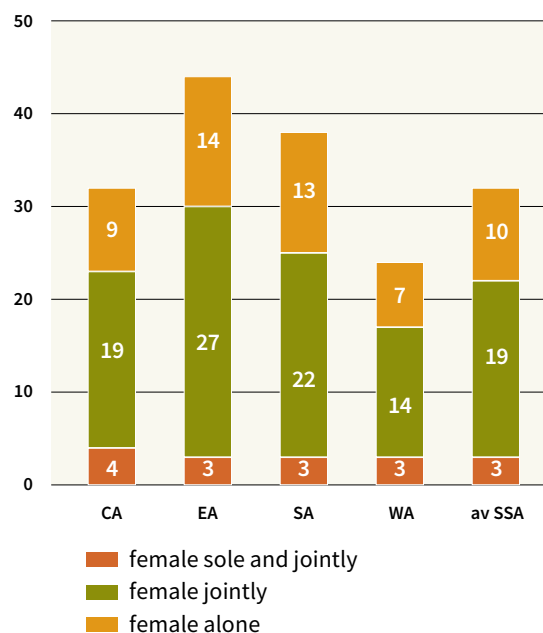
Few countries had sex-disaggregated data on **average land size, but those that did showed high gender gaps** (Doss *et al.*, 2013; Table 4). In some countries, the average size of land for men is two times larger than that of women. In addition, several country reports showed that the **plot sizes were smaller for women and, often, the quality of land poorer and that the land was sometimes far away from the household**. In other words, women own much smaller plots, more fragmented and less fertile than those men own, which affects their scope to engage in specific crops and technology requiring larger plots and land that is more fertile.

Figure 18: Share of agricultural land ownership type for male (average from data set spanning 2010–2017)

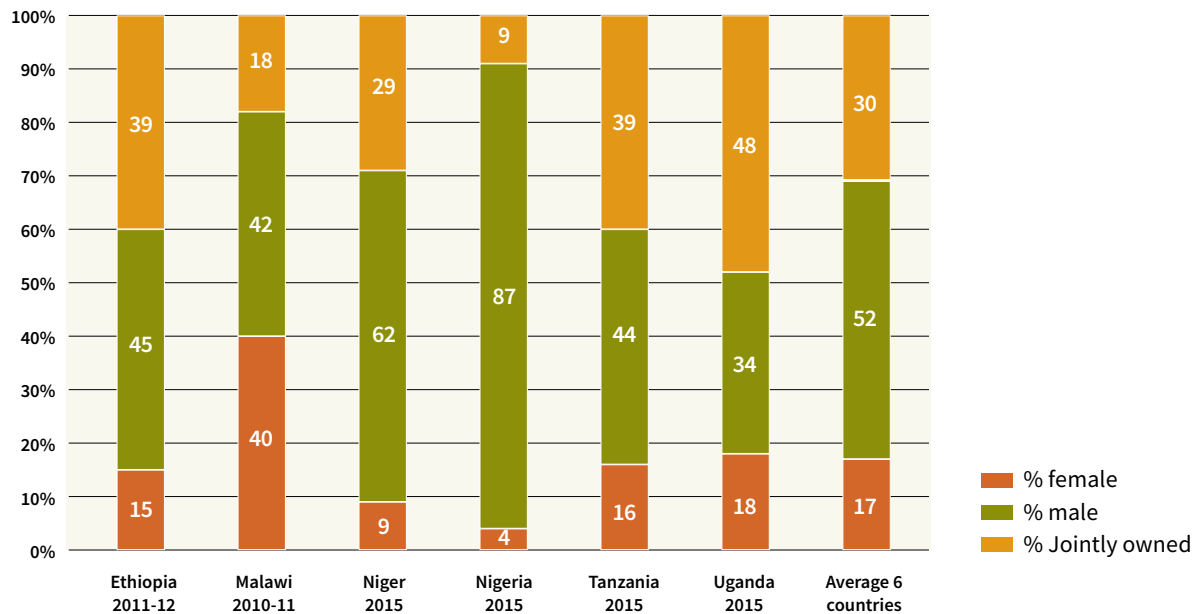


Source: World Bank gender database, Demographic Health Survey.

Figure 19: Share of agricultural land ownership type for female (average from dataset spanning 2010–2017)



Source: World Bank gender database, Demographic Health Survey.

Figure 20: Distribution of agricultural land area for female, male and joint ownership

Source: FAO, Gender-Land Rights-Database that compiles data from LSMS surveys, accessed September 2018, Rome.

Table 4: Average land size for men and women in a few countries

| Region | Country | Average land for women (ha) | Average land for men (ha) | Source |
|----------------|--------------|--|--|--------------------|
| West Africa | Burkina Faso | 0.88 | 1.23 | CGA |
| | Ghana | Men still hold 3.2 times more medium farmland and 8.1 times more of large land-holdings than women. Only 10.8% of farms larger than 5 acres are owned by women | | |
| | Togo | 2.19ha (for FHH) | 4,35 ha (MHH) | RNA 2013 |
| | Senegal | 0.4 | 1.3 | DAPS 2015 |
| | Mali | 0.6 | 1.7 | ASS 2014 |
| | Niger | 2.29 | 3.84 | LSMS 2011 |
| | Nigeria | 0.56 | 2.44 | LSMS 2010 |
| Central Africa | Cape Verde | 10 for FHH | 14 for MHH | RNA |
| | Cameroon | 0.05 ha against 0.03 ha on average in rural areas | | CGA Cameroon |
| | Congo | 1.63 ha for FHH | 1.56 ha for MHH | RNA 2014–2015 |
| East Africa | Ethiopia | 0.79 per FHH, including 0.59 ha cultivated | 1.07 per MHH, including 1.01 ha cultivated | CSA, 2015 |
| | Tanzania | 1.83 | 2.67 | LSMS 2010–2011 |
| | Uganda | 1.71 | 2.27 | LSMS 2009–2010 |
| South Africa | Malawi | 0.83 | 0.98 | LSMS-ISA 2010–2011 |

Source: Analysis of CGA reports, 2017 and agricultural census and compilation in IFPRI 2013 from LSMS database.



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In addition to understanding gender gaps in land ownership, it is important to understand women's management and economic rights on the household farm and on plots that they do not own.

- **Most agricultural holdings are held and managed by males** under patriarchal customs, providing them stronger control over the household's land and assets as well as management of the land and distribution of income. Some countries reported that **the head of the household usually holds the title of ownership**. Yet, we can see a progressive trend that encourages joint ownership (Figure 18 and Figure 19). However, gender gaps remain when it comes to women making decisions regarding the management of the land, investments and distribution of income (see section 5.3.3, page 93).
- **When women are the head of the household, they have stronger management and economic rights over the farm household.** Reports often indicate that women are seldom **heads of households** except through widowhood, where the land is held in trust for male children, while it is rarely directly inherited from the husband. However, female heads of households appear more frequent in Eastern and Southern Africa than in Western and Northern Africa according to the few countries where data is available (see Table 7 in Section 5.3, page 90).
- A recent study on six African countries confirms that there are significant **gender gaps with regard to other land rights such as plot management and the rights to sell or use the plot as collateral with variations across countries**. Countries in Western Africa (Niger and Nigeria) exhibit larger gender gaps than countries in Eastern and Southern Africa (Ethiopia, Malawi, Tanzania and Uganda). However, there are sometimes no gender gaps in the control over the use of the harvest from the plot, confirming that the focus on one metric of land rights may yield misleading results about the overall gender inequalities (GSARS, 2016b).
- Women generally have **unsecured tenure rights on the land they farm (and which they rarely own)**. In general, statistics do not capture security of land tenure and consider ownership

as a proxy (GSARS, 2016b). The CGAs reports show that, in many countries, women have temporary tenure rights under community arrangements (FAO, 2012b). **User rights** depend on male relatives and traditional authorities and can be withdrawn at any time, for example by divorce or widowhood. This lack of tenure security is a barrier to access training, financing and innovation as well as the implementation of land conservation practices requiring investments over time. It also has an impact on their access to water, as land rights are also connected to water user rights.

Access and control of women over land raise specific issues in the forestry sector. Their limited ownership of land that women enjoy and their insufficient user rights usually prevent them from planting trees (usually forbidden in short-term arrangements). Such constraints limit their participation in agroforestry and plantations.

Women derive substantial income from non-timber forestry products. For instance, in Burkina Faso, women constitute 90 percent of people engaged in collecting wood fruits, but they are, most often, engaged **in unpaid gathering for household use** (fuelwood, fruits, spices and medicine, sponge, snails, mushroom), while men target commercial purposes (raffia, canes, timber). The CGA of Nigeria reported that women are increasingly exercising their user rights to land and forest resources, but their rights are usually limited to products that have little or no commercial value. In addition, their user rights are often little recognized, and they are not considered key actors in forestry projects as they

do not own the land. Specific attention is needed to recognize their user rights and involve them in community management of forestry. In most countries, there are no defined customary forest tenure policies to guide the use of forest resources. This provides an opportunity to define new practices favourable to women provided they participate effectively in the process, and attention is paid to recognize their user rights.

4.2.2.3 Conclusion: need for bold measures

Achieving AU targets and commitments with respect to women's land tenure rights requires bold actions that will set right the structural flaws responsible for women's weaker land rights compared to their male counterparts.

The following issues need to be addressed:

- Often, the **tenure of land owned by women depends on men and remains fragile, due to their lack of empowerment at the household and community levels.** In Africa, possibilities of women acquiring land are often limited to inheritance and clearing of new land. Acquiring land titles through the legal system is a third mode but remains difficult and infrequent. The first two modalities tend to exclude women (CGARS, 2016b). Indeed, usually, **patriarchal societies** confer titles and inheritance rights upon male family members because of cultural practices establishing that women, especially married women, can only access land through their husbands or male children (AU, Afdb and ECA, 2010). In most countries, not only does a woman not inherit her father's property, but also loses property and land-use rights upon the death of her husband or in the event of a divorce. Consequently, women mostly have simple user rights granted by their husband or other male family members. Such rights are fragile and can be suspended at any time, notably in case of death or divorce. (FAO, 2012b and CGAs)
- **The progress achieved in legal governance and tenure of land does not sufficiently impact women's tenurial rights on the ground**
 - Women **face difficulties to secure land titles through the legal system** also because of gender-insensitive land administration institutions. **Procedures** are often difficult,



expensive and time consuming. In addition, women are constrained by their lower literacy, lower financial capital and travel constraints.

- There is also the issue of formal **discriminatory laws** (land laws, but also family and civil laws regarding inheritance for instance).
- Often, customary laws coexist with the legal system, in other words, there is **legal pluralism**. Customary tenure derive its legitimacy from the values and traditions of the indigenous or local group. Land tenure customary rules, often influenced by patriarchal norms, are often more persuasive to local communities than statutory laws that may provide for women's land ownership. While many countries theoretically include access to land ownership for men and women, in practice, customary law prevails and does not facilitate women's ownership of land (FAO, 2012b and CGAs, CGARS, 2016b).
- The **legal governance system does not often address the issue of rental markets** and temporary tenure rights. Yet, considering the more limited access of women to land ownership, it appears crucial to provide them secured user rights when they farm.
- Further, often, there are **social norms** preventing or hindering women's ownership or control over land and/or other productive resources. For instance, in CAR, the gender profile states "women cannot own a cow, let alone a piece of land, a taboo subject." In fact, she does not even aspire to it.

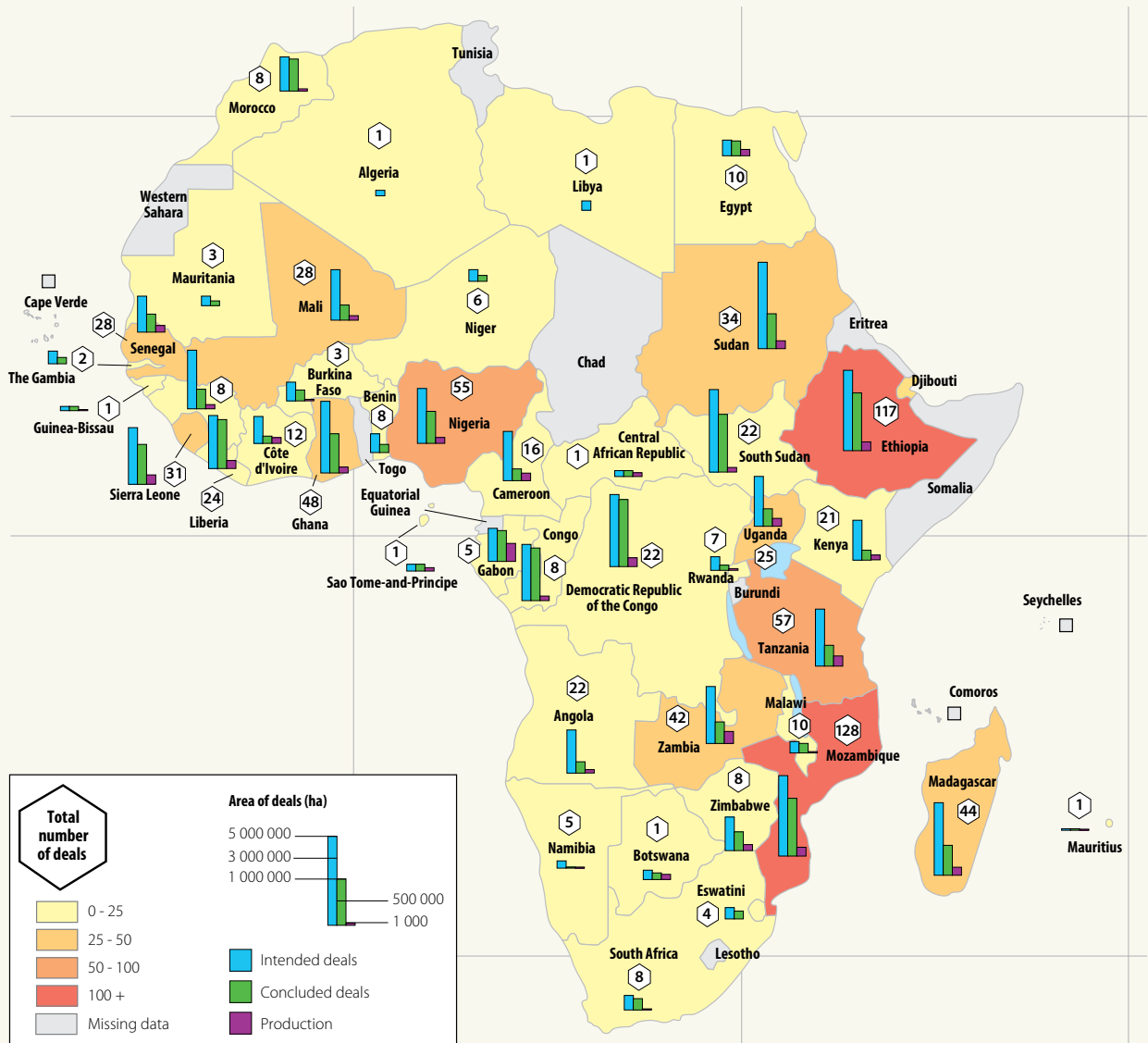
It is ultimately the man who must own the cow and the land and "the woman must submit to the man to benefit from land use, even through rental" (CGA, year 2019).

- There is insufficient **women participation in governance of natural resources** (both land and forest). In fact, there is a lack of specific space for women and limited efforts in capacity-building to enable them to participate and influence such platforms. Several countries do have participatory resources management for forest and land, but women inclusion often remains on paper.
- **Conflicts** prevailing in several African countries have made women's access to land even more fragile. In addition, land insecurity and growing pressure on land contribute to conflicts between different users like farmers/pastoralists, and natives/migrants.
- There is **increasing pressure on land due to the burgeoning rural populations, land degradation and growing land investments**. For example, slash-and-burn farming does not allow for the regaining of soil fertility when population densities become too large. Farmers must then clear new areas to compensate for yield losses. Industrial agriculture, in its demand for large-scale land, limits the land potential of small producers, including women. Meanwhile, investment may have specific gender impacts depending on the agribusiness arrangement modalities (see section 3.1.2, page 20).



BOX 13: TRENDS IN LARGE-SCALE LAND INVESTMENT AND GENDER IMPLICATIONS

Africa is by far the most targeted continent in terms of large-scale land investment. The land matrix recorded 642 deals initiated covering 23 million ha, equivalent to the total agricultural land of Kenya (see Figure 21). Only 199 deals were, however, relatively operational and 4 percent of such land was cultivated in 2016. Most targeted areas were fertile land with access to water and infrastructure. Therefore, the land investments were mostly made in zones that were already cultivated and well populated, increasing the pressure on natural resources and smallholders' sources of incomes (Pesche, Losch and Imbernon, 2016).

Figure 21: Total number of land deals in Africa (2016)

Source: Rural Futures Atlas, land matrix database retrieved in 2016.

Farmland acquisitions also have significant gender implications on land.

Indeed, considering their lower access and ownership of land, women are often not included and compensated in land deals, even if they lose their user rights. Investments in plantations and forests often do not consider that women benefit and have pre-existing user rights to harvest non-timber forest products. Farming contracts are often concluded with male household heads, with payments made to men even when women do most of the work (HLPE, 2011).



4.2.2.4 Gender considerations in agricultural policy and investment plans: good practices and recommendations

Engagement with gender issues remains insufficient at the regional level. The ECOWAS Regional Agricultural Investment Plan for Food Security and Nutrition (RAIPFSN) for 2016–2020 emphasizes that efforts need to be made on land tenure reform and inclusive national dialogue, while result 1.5 specifies efforts to be made to ensure equal access to productive resources including land, water, inputs and finances. **However, no specific gender target is included. The RAIPFSN for ECCAS similarly promotes an inclusive land process** protecting the user rights of local populations. It includes, in several places, goals to strengthen farmers' organizations capacities and participation. **However, gender is not specifically mentioned, and targets remain gender blind.**

At the **country level**, the integration of gender in land programmes varies considerably, but we can note several good practices and efforts to incorporate gender and adopt gender-specific targets (see Box 14). The key intervention points are summarized below:

- **Enhance data collection on land tenure rights beyond land ownership** to also capture management and economic rights, as well as the different levels of tenure security experienced by men and women (GSARS, 2016b).
- **Make effective the AU goal of 30 percent of women documented land rights in all countries** by enhancing policy implementation, accountability and compliance framework.

- **Promote decentralized and inclusive land governance** systems, including women's voices.
- **Review legal frameworks on individual, household and community land rights to better address issues of gender**, the legal and customary laws governing the range of land rights, marital regimes and inheritance practices beyond simply considering land ownership (GSARS, 2016b and AUC, AfDB and ECA, 2010). The issues that need to be examined include equal inheritance law and protection of women's land ownership within marriage; relationship between customary systems and the formal legal system; and gender-sensitive monitoring and evaluation capacities.
- **Develop simple legal procedures accessible to rural people**, including women with limited literacy and mobility (advocated in the VGGT), and provide legal sensitization.
- **Reinforce women's agency and capacity** to advocate for their land rights and help enforce them.
- **Reinforce gender capacities of land institutions** so that they can adapt their services to women's needs and priorities. For instance, develop simple legal procedures and training programmes for women.
- Foster **social transformations and community engagement** to transform customary systems. This will mean engaging in dialogue with traditional authorities and customary and religious leaders, opinion leaders, and broaden the awareness to advocate for women's land rights.



BOX 14: EXAMPLES OF GOOD PRACTICES REGARDING WOMEN'S ACCESS TO LAND ACROSS AFRICA (FROM CGAs)

A study on land rights in six countries showed that, in countries where women have stronger protection of their rights, the gender gaps in land ownership are smaller. For example, in Ethiopia, Tanzania and Uganda, women have strong legal rights. While there is still often a lack of awareness about women's rights, the existence of these provisions in the legal system, as well as less gender-discriminatory customary practices, may help explain the smaller gender gaps in land rights in these countries compared to Niger and Nigeria (GSARS, 2016b).

Box 14 cont'd

◀ **In Rwanda**, the constitution provides for equality in marriage, but it applies only to recognized monogamous marriages, leaving aside some of the spouses of polygamous households. The land law has provisions for the equal rights of women and men to land ownership. Joint ownership of land for spouses is the result of various innovations in land law and land policy reform.

In Ghana, civil society plays a strong role through the Ghana Women's Manifesto, which has led to gender mainstreaming in the Land Administration Project (LAP). LAP has developed a gender-mainstreaming strategy. The Ghana Land Bill contains gender and spousal provisions to ensure gender equality and the protection of women and vulnerable persons; prohibits discriminatory land allocation; encourages joint registration; and restricts the transfer of land by spouses without the consent of the spouse. The land strategy includes actions to raise the awareness of women at the formal and customary level through dialogue. Land sector agencies promote the collection of gender-related and institutionalized data.

In Mali, the Agricultural Land Law includes the decentralization of land management to local land institutions, with which traditional authorities must "cooperate". The benefits granted to women, youth and vulnerable groups are: (i) recognition of collective and individual rights; (ii) granting of 15 percent of lands managed by the State or local authorities; and (iii) increase in land commissions, especially to rural women.

In Zambia, to improve women's access to land, the Ministry of Justice has issued a circular allocating 30 percent of all advertised land to women. However, the State administers 10 percent of the land, while 90 percent falls under customary law. The Zambia Land Alliance has initiated land certification, which is supported by the NGOCC membership. Further, traditional leadership gives some form of loose evidence for authorization of land use, thereby protecting women's rights.

In Tanzania, the constitution permits equal access to land for both women and men and the Land Act of 1999 and the Village Land Act of 1999 provide for complete gender equality in ownership, access and control over land. The legal framework for land rights also provides for women's representation in governing bodies. The Village Land Act provides that women shall fill three of the seven positions on village councils. A quorum, which is four members, requires at least two members to be women. In addition, there is provision for strong protection of women land ownership and recognition of a wife's household land upon widowhood or divorce that prevents village land councils from discriminating against women.

Women's empowerment and community-dialogue approaches have also helped achieve results. For instance, the FAO Dimitra Clubs approach promotes greater participation of rural women and men using dialogue and communication. In Niger, debates that began in their listeners' club have resulted in the women of Banizoumbou securing access to a large plot of land for 99 years. The debate on the community radio station enabled them to share their views and suggest solutions.

At the **international level**, efforts are being made to support countries develop comparable statistics on women's land right to contribute to SDG reporting. The FAO gender and land rights database provides qualitative and quantitative information on land rights as well as legal information on 25 countries. In 2014, for instance, FAO used the database to support Sierra Leone to develop recommendations to domesticate the VGGT (FAO, 2016e). The Global Strategy to improve Rural and Agricultural Statistics (GSARS) provides reviews and guidelines to collect sex-disaggregated data, including on land (GSARS, 2016a).



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4.2.3 Sustainable and reliable inputs, technology and mechanization

4.2.3.1 Context and AU commitments

Improved access to reliable inputs, technology and mechanization is core to improved productivity whether the land is owned by men or women. Women have to face many limitations, in addition to the type of labour women can undertake, they have specific time constraints related to their triple responsibilities, which include work, home and childcare, and community work. Enhanced adoption of time and labour-saving agricultural technologies, inputs and practices, can offer valuable solutions to reduce women's work burden and enhance their productivity (FAO, 2015a). These include for example, improved farming and processing tools, adequate storage facilities, practices such as roof water harvesting or minimum tillage, and related services, including credit, information, knowledge, mechanization services.

AU **includes several commitments** to enhance access to technology, but they are not sufficiently gender-sensitive as they do not enable mechanization that targets women in particular and is adapted to women's needs.

- The AU 2063 targets also include a promise to banish the hand hoe by 2025. To achieve this target, Heads of States must commit to take action to expand the introduction of modern agricultural systems, technology, practices and training, including the banishment of the hand hoe.
- The CAADP Results Framework notably includes gender-neutral targets in terms of “**fertilizer consumption per ha**” and “**the share of inputs needed that are actually supplied**”. It shows that the region uses less than 40 kg of fertilizer per ha of arable land. It states that on average, less than 20 percent of input needs are met, except in Eastern Africa (26 percent) and Northern Africa (38.7 percent).

The following subsection reviews existing information regarding gender gaps in the adoption and use of various inputs, technology and mechanization as well as the specific constraints that women face and the efforts required to enhance women's access to inputs, technology and mechanization. Finally, the last subsection will review gender considerations in NAIPs and policy, identify best practices and provide orientation to enhance women's access to inputs, technology and mechanization.

4.2.3.2 Insufficient access to input and mechanization in Africa

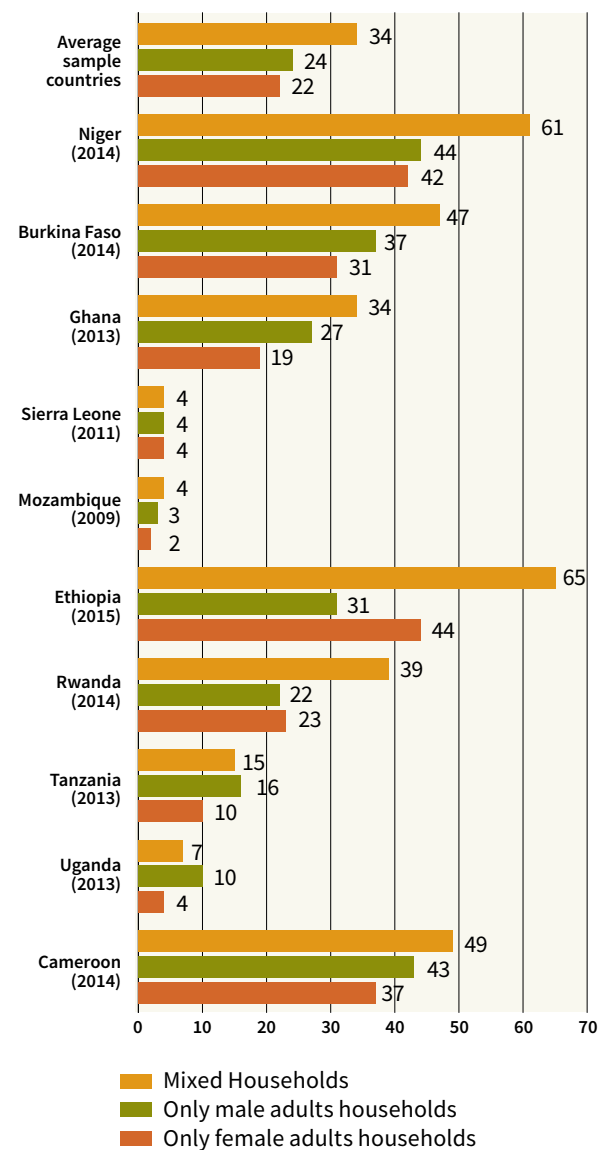
In 2005⁸, on average, **more than 70 percent of the farmers used only hand-held tools** across SSA. Usage varied from 85 percent in Central Africa to 50 percent in Eastern Africa. Use of tractors was low, varying from 4 percent for farmers in Central Africa up to 25 percent in Southern Africa (FAO, 2005). The relatively high level of tractor use in Southern Africa is due to the high level of tractor use in South Africa.

Gender gaps exist for a wide range of agricultural technologies, including machines and tools, improved plant varieties and animal breeds, fertilizers, pest control measures and management techniques (FAO, 2011). The 2011 *State of Food and Agriculture* (SOFA), which focused on gender, reviewed several country case studies, confirming such gender gaps. For example, it showed that FHHs generally use fewer machines. More recent data

⁸ The data is outdated but the FAO mechanization dataset is also available only until 2005. The 2016 publication of FAO on mechanization of smallholders in SSA used the same data source (FAO, 2016f).

analysis in 10 countries shows that the share of only female adults households using inorganic fertilizer is 22 percent compared to 24 percent for only male adults households for the average sample countries (Figure 22). The share of only female adults households using mechanical equipment is 2 percent compared to 5 percent for only male adults households for the average sample countries (Figure 23). This in spite of the fact that gender-sensitive technology can offer valuable solutions to reduce women's work burden and enhance their productivity (FAO, 2015a).

Figure 22: Share of female, male and mixed households using inorganic fertilizers

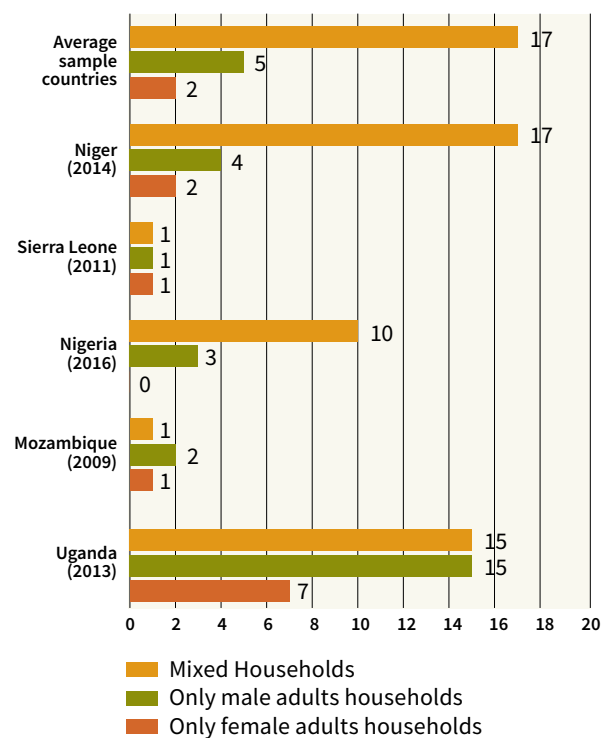


Source: FAO, Rural Livelihoods Information System, Statistics Division, September 2018, Rome.

More recent compilations and articles confirm such gender gaps:

- **Assessment of LSMS–ISA data in Tanzania, Uganda and Nigeria** shows that “the proportion of female managers applying simultaneously inorganic fertilizer, improved seeds, and pesticides is lower than male managers. On average, less than 1 percent of female-managed agricultural lands used the three inputs. (Mukasa and Salami, 2016)

Figure 23: Share of female, male and mixed households using mechanical equipment



Source: FAO, Rural Livelihoods Information System, Statistics Division, September 2018, Rome.

● **The FAO CGAs of agricultural and rural livelihoods also show strong gender gaps:**

- The Ethiopia CGA shows that less than 20 percent of the female holders used various crop extension packages, as compared to 28 percent of the male holders. Further, FHHs are less likely to use or adopt improved technologies and use less input. Plots of male heads are more likely to use chemical fertilizers, improved seeds and herbicides, while plots of female heads are more likely to manage with manure and limited improved seeds.
- In Zambia, 38.5 percent of the women use manual equipment, mainly the hand hoe as against 31 percent of the men.
- In Cameroon, 33.5 percent of FHHs use inputs as against 52.2 percent of MHHs.
- In Rwanda, 26 percent female households purchase fertilizers as against 40 percent of the male households, while 31 percent use equipment as against 68.9 percent of male households.
- In Senegal, 48.5 percent of women as against 70.5 percent of male use animal draught power, while 49 percent of women as against 26 percent of men use manual equipment.
- The report from Gabon also shows that FHHs have less access to information technology.
- The Tanzania profile highlights that men have better access to improved and certified seeds when compared to women.

The introduction of **technologies and mechanization affect women and men differently**. Several CGAs highlighted that **men usually tend to dominate mechanization and adoption of specific technologies**. In addition, such increased **mechanization may replace manual labour, usually carried out by women and therefore may reduce their activities and income**. For instance, The Eswatini report notes that, in conservation agriculture, women are involved in the initial digging (holing), which is done using hoes. This time-consuming task leads to drudgery for women. However, when the same task is mechanized, such as when ridging is done using tractors or ox-drawn implements, men take over the work,

ignoring women. The Morocco report highlights that, if not well planned and if gender considerations are ignored, large-scale mechanization may have a negative impact on women's involvement in agriculture. Indeed, in several cases, women are unable to adopt such equipment and their existing manual work is replaced by mechanization. It also highlights limited availability of small-scale mechanization adapted to small farms and difficult terrains (including mountains).

4.2.3.3 Gender constraints that explain gender gaps in access to inputs and services

Such constraints originate from other **gender gaps** in access to various productive resources, services, women's limited empowerment at the household and community levels and the inherent weaknesses in rural institutions to address gender constraints. Some of the gaps are listed below:

- Several studies have shown that reduced access to and adoption of new technologies, and reduced use of purchased inputs can be explained by **reduced access to land and labour, lower education levels and limited access to credit markets and purchasing power** (FAO, 2011).
- Generally, there has been **insufficient adaptation of the proposed innovative technology to the conditions of rural women** (FAO, 2015a). Women may face specific constraints in terms of physical

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forces, volume of activities, time management, specific needs to combine work and childcare, and so on. In addition, they often dominate specific activities that may not be sufficiently targeted by innovation and research programmes (for example post-harvest technology).

- Often, **fertilizer markets are not adapted to small-scale business**. For example, for women, 50 kg packs are particularly heavy and costly to transport. They often have smaller farms and plots and may not need to transport such quantities. Further, fixed transaction costs may also be too high when compared to the quantity that needs to be transported (Croppenstedt, Goldstein and Rosas, 2013).
- There is **limited local and regional partnership to foster gender-sensitive technology development and there is insufficient inclusion of women in farmers' groups and productivity programmes** that allow their members to access credit and organize bulk purchase of inputs. Also, capacity of **women's cooperatives may be too weak** to inform and train rural women in technology and business management, organize collective actions (input and technology purchases) and negotiate a fruitful partnership with rural institutions along the value chain (credit, extension, repair and maintenance, and so forth).
- In some countries, **social norms** constrain women's use of improved technology and mechanization, preventing, for instance, women from using animal traction in some cultural contexts. For instance, in Tigray Region (Ethiopia), there is a cultural norm against women ploughing with oxen (Fisher *et al.*, 2017). "Targeting women with technology alone is unlikely to confer full rights over the technology to women, since the rules of the household often override any norms or expectations promoted by projects, and historically men have been adept at interceding to appropriate a technology or economic activity once it is shown to be profitable" (Theis *et al.*, 2018). In addition, social norms contribute to an unfair division of labour, and women are generally overburdened with work (FAO, 2015a). Therefore, programmes need to challenge gender norms and encourage intra-household dialogue to promote behavioural change vis-à-vis the division of labour and technology use (household methodologies).
- Overall, such gaps show inadequate gender considerations in programme design as well as insufficient gender capacities of institutions to deliver programmes while addressing gender constraints.

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4.2.3.4 Gender considerations in policy, good practices and recommendations

Although most NAIPs and RAIPs are not gender-sensitive, some good examples of gender-sensitive inputs, technology and mechanization can be identified. For instance, Zambia and Ethiopia integrate gender-sensitive targets in their inputs and technology programmes. Moreover, NAIPs of Madagascar, Malawi and Uganda incorporate gender activities specifically targeted at women, including labour-saving technology.

Outside the NAIP, there are several initiatives to develop gender-sensitive technology and enhance women's access to such technology and inputs. The reviews indicate different entry points to enhance women's access to inputs, technology and mechanization.

- It is important **to design interventions that are based on an understanding of the specific constraints that women face** and seek to address them through gender-sensitive planning and monitoring. Only a few national initiatives specifically target these gender gaps. These initiatives are mostly based on gender-sensitive data that allow an understanding of women-specific time constraints and technological needs, women's participation in the governance of these programmes, women's targeting mechanisms, including quota and specific activities, and gender-sensitive monitoring and evaluation.
- It is also important to promote **gender-sensitive technology development partnerships**. These technologies must be adapted to the specific needs and capacities of women. Rapid prototyping technology is being successfully tested to engage rural women in designing labour-saving tools for their needs (FAO, 2015a). In addition, to technology for agricultural production, the development of improved technology for domestic and care tasks can reduce women's time constraints and enable them to be more productive. For instance, introduction of biogas digester to replace fuelwood cooking considerably reduces the time spent on cooking and fuelwood collection. A Uganda-based time study shows that traditional cooking requires six hours plus one-and-a-half hours devoted to fuelwood collection, and a further hour collecting water. After the introduction of the biodigester, women have much

more time for community activities, childcare and home-based income-generation activities such as selling vegetables from kitchen gardens and poultry-keeping (SIANI, 2013).

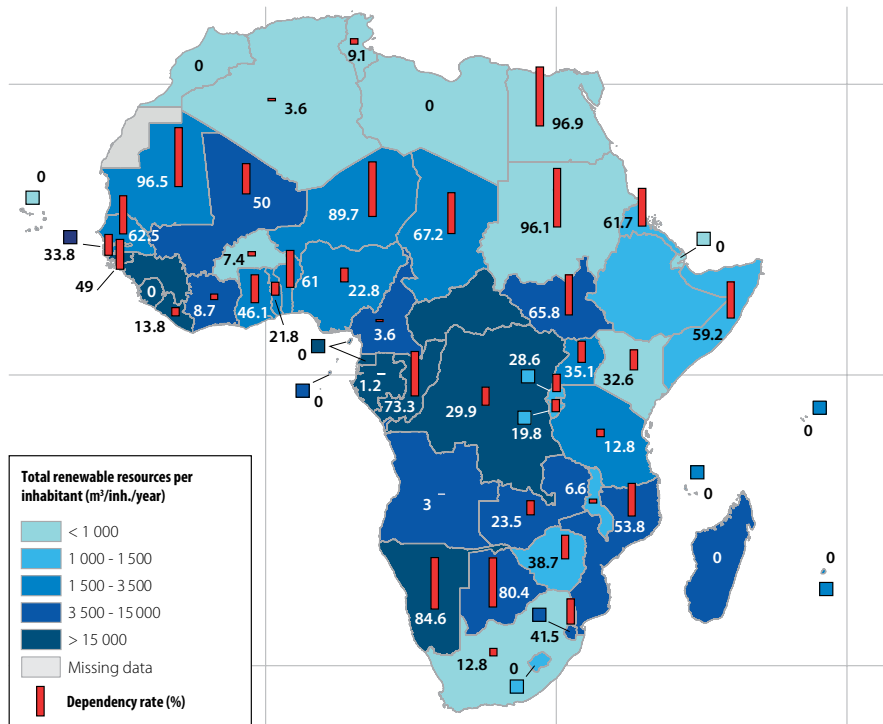
- It is also necessary for women to build social capital through their inclusion in farmers' groups or the development of women's groups that can organize collective actions to enhance access to new technologies (Croppenstedt, Goldstein and Rosas, 2013).
- There is also a need to adopt an integrated approach that takes into consideration other structural constraints hindering women's access and use of technology.
- The development of programmes for input and technology use must be also linked to rural finance access programmes as women have limited access to cash income and finance, which limits their capacity to purchase technology and inputs.
- Ideally, the programmes should also integrate investments to improve rural infrastructure, including electricity, water and energy, which is often needed to use such equipment and technology. The goal should be to empower women at both the household and the community level, seeking to transform adverse social norms while enhancing women's literacy and education levels (FAO, 2016f).

4.2.4 Water management systems

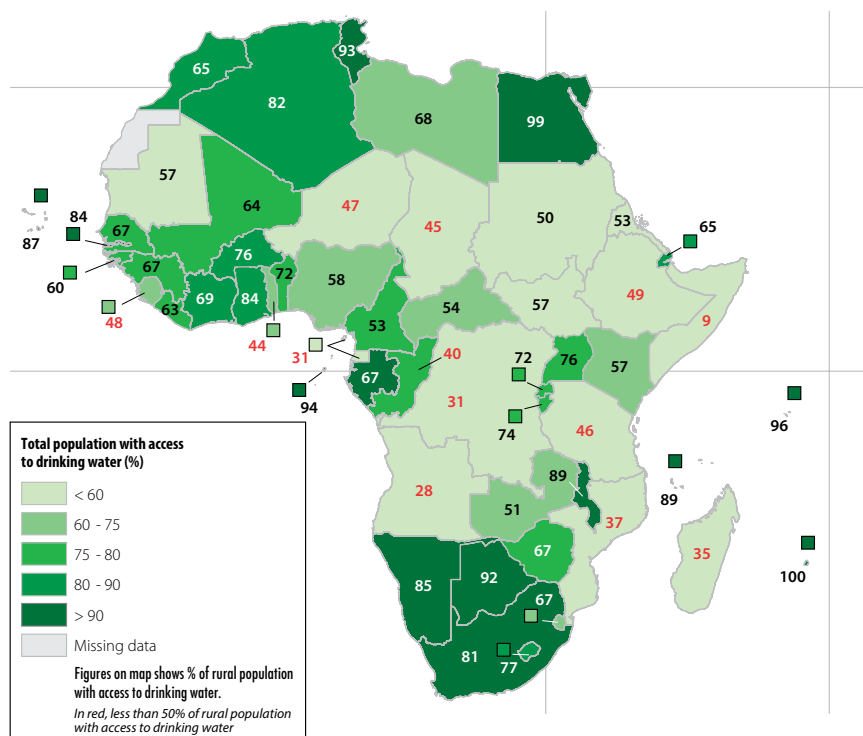
4.2.4.1 Water, agricultural productivity, and household welfare

Improved **management of water resources and expansion of irrigation is among Malabo and CAADP priorities**, with an ambitious target to double the size of irrigated areas from what it is in 2000. The 2018 Malabo Evaluation Report shows increase in area under irrigation since 2000 in Eastern Africa (328percent), Central Africa (407 percent) and Western Africa (160 percent). The Report shows less increase in Southern Africa (91 percent) and Northern Africa (42.6 percent), but some regions, notably Northern Africa, has a higher rate of irrigated areas.

Africa is affected by several challenges regarding water availability. Further, dependence and access differ according to each region (see Figure 24 and Figure 25).

Figure 24: Total availability and dependence on water resources

Source: Rural Futures Atlas, from FAO Aquastat⁹ 2016.

Figure 25: Total population with access to drinking water

Source: Rural Futures Atlas, from FAO Aquastat 2016.

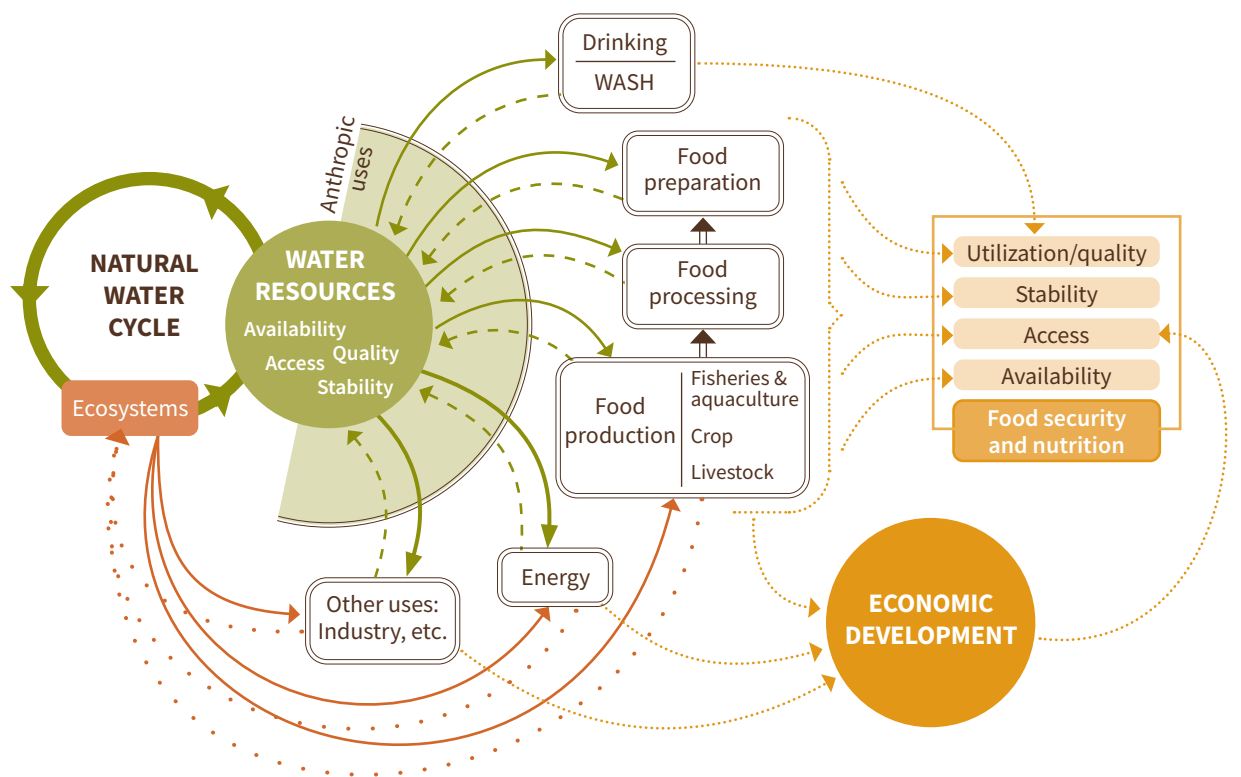
⁹ FAO's global information system on water and agriculture

Household demand and water use cover a wide range of activities that are fundamental to achieve food security and enhanced employment for production, processing and utilization of food (WWAP, 2016; see Figure 26). In particular, food production and utilization unavoidably depend on water. Rain-fed systems produce more than 60 percent of the world's crops on 80 percent of the world's cultivated areas. Irrigated agriculture thus accounts for about 40 percent of the production on 20 percent of the world's cultivated areas. It accounts for approximately 70 percent of the world's total water withdrawals, with higher shares in some developing economies. Livestock, food processing and preparation are heavily reliant on water as well (HLPE, 2015). Inland fishery production relies fully on natural and modified water bodies (FAO, 2014). Finally, in the absence of separate drinking water

supply in most African rural areas, the same water resources is being used for household domestic and food preparation purposes.

Insufficient and erratic water supplies constrain agricultural productivity and compromise income stability, with dramatic effects for the poorest households with limited assets and safety nets to cope with risks. Prolonged drought causes persistent unemployment, which often leads to migration as a coping strategy, notably when off-farm options are limited. In Sahel countries, because of insufficient irrigation facilities, 80 percent of the agricultural population is engaged in agriculture (productive work) only during the three-month cropping season. Many inland fisheries that are dependent on seasonal floods and rainfall are also affected by pollutants and water scarcity.

Figure 26: Interface between water and food security



Source: HLPE, 2015, Figure 1, p. 27.

With the lowest level of irrigated agriculture (5 percent of the cultivated area as against more than 40 percent in Asia and a world average of just over 20 percent), and only one-third of its potential in irrigation tapped, SSA appears to be a priority for investment in water and aquaculture (FAO/WWC, 2015).

4.2.4.2 Gender and water in Africa

Women are important stakeholders in agricultural water management – they play a key role in water and land conservation, rainwater harvesting, and watershed management. In addition, women use water for household purposes (cooking, cleaning and laundry) as well as for food processing (grating of cassava, manufacturing of local drinks and fruit products).

Women are particularly affected by the lack of access to water (drinking water and water for agriculture) and experience specific obstacles with regard to its use. Gender-sensitive approaches to water management must notably address the following challenges:

- The **supply of drinking water for domestic use mostly lies with girls and women** in SSA. In view of the low access to water, women often have to travel long distances in the morning and evening, which limits their productive time. One estimate suggests that women spend some 40 billion hours a year in collecting water in SSA – a year’s labour for the entire workforce of France. For instance, in Mozambique, rural Senegal and Uganda, women spend, on average, 15–17 hours per week collecting water (AfDB, 2014). Morocco’s gender profile shows an increase in access to drinking water (from 14 percent in 1994 to 95 percent lately), reducing the time that women and girls spend in search of water by 50 percent and even 90 percent, depending on the region (Morocco CGA).
- Women **generally have less access to large irrigation infrastructure and their lack of land tenure and financial capacity limits their ability to invest in small-scale irrigation systems**. For instance, the Botswana gender report reveals a huge disparity in borehole ownership, with women owning 27 percent and men owning 73 percent. This could mean that women have less access to water for domestic use and farming, and that they have to walk long distances to get water. The Ethiopia CGA shows that only 11.3 percent and 9.4 percent of FHHs participated in growing vegetable and fruits through irrigation as compared to 88.7 percent and 90.6 percent of MHHs. This reflects women’s lower access to irrigated fields.
- **Women are most often excluded from water programmes and water management committees** that allocate resources and could better respond to their needs. When they participate, they find it more difficult to access positions of responsibility and to make their voices heard because of existing social norms and their lower level of education. Infrastructure is often set up without taking sufficiently into account the needs and capacities of women and their multiple uses of water (HLPE, 2015). Further, some of the equipment is unsuitable and difficult for women to handle.
- **Norms based on socio-cultural traditions as well as new laws may restrict women’s control over water**. Allocation and water use authorization systems often allocate water and/or land to the adult male in the household, even where women are the primary farmers, resulting in situations where land and water resources used primarily by women are formally controlled by men (HLPE, 2015).
- **The scarcity of water resources generates conflicts** among different users. Water shortages increase competition within and across sectors with water being drawn away from the agriculture sector, since there is greater economic return per unit of water in other sectors. This results in smaller, and poorer agricultural water users losing access to water. These problems tend to disproportionately affect the poor and marginalized women, men and children, because of existing power imbalances, skewed access to resources, structural discrimination and gender inequalities (HLPE, 2015).
- There is **insufficient consideration of the multiple uses of water for women**. In the absence of potable water supply, water from irrigation canals is often directly used for drinking and food preparation, which has a direct impact on health. Identifying the interlinkages between

agricultural water quality, food safety and WASH and promoting an integrated approach that takes into consideration multiple uses of water shall help to draw up workable water-sharing programmes (HLPE, 2015).

- **The lack of sex-disaggregated data** on the differentiated use and access of water constrains the drawing up of gender-sensitive policies. In addition, too few surveys assess the time involved in collecting water (HLPE, 2015).

4.2.4.3 Good practices and recommendations

Gender-sensitive investment in water access and management are, therefore, core to raising women farmers' productivity and overall agricultural productivity. Studies have shown that when women are included in the design and implementation of an irrigation project, the project is more effective and sustainable (FAO, 2012). Finally, such gender-sensitive interventions are critical in achieving food security.

Interventions need to address the root causes of gender inequality and the specific challenges affecting women, as highlighted above. Review of existing practices provide tentative key domains of interventions (FAO, 2016f; see Box 15):

- Support the development and adoption of innovative **technology and infrastructure** that address women-specific constraints and needs, including their multiple uses of water and specific labour constraints.
- Create an **enabling environment** towards gender equality and prevent discrimination and gender violence. Best practices include:
 - Inclusive **governance structures** ensuring the representation and effective participation of women at different levels of interventions, including through a gender quota (like in Ghana and Senegal)
 - **Mainstream gender in policy and legal instruments** (for example, gender policy adopted by the African Ministers' Council on Water)
 - **Reinforce institutional capacities on gender, including training of women**
 - Ensure **collection, analysis and use of sex-disaggregated data**

- Train and empower women so that they can participate and influence governance mechanisms, enforce their rights and access inputs and services:
 - Legal empowerment, leadership skills, literacy and so forth
 - Collective action and networking

4.3 Gender-responsive services: knowledge, research, extension, information and market-oriented services

Good and timely information on new technologies and techniques is essential for farmers when deciding whether to adopt an innovation (FAO, 2011b). Rural Advisory Services (RAS) are also known as agricultural advisory services or extension, and cover a wide range of services to strengthen capacities, empower rural people, and promote innovations. Traditionally, RAS were focused on disseminating information and training farmers on production techniques and new inputs. With the drive for extension reform in the 1990s, a broader scope for RAS has evolved to include a range of information about technologies, markets, inputs and financial services, and assist farmers to develop their farming and management skills (FAO, 2010). RAS also broker interactions between farmers, the private sector, research, education, and government. RAS coach different actors to improve their market access, deal with changing patterns of risk, and protect the environment (GFRAS, 2013).

RAS can help close the gender gap in agriculture by making information, new technologies, skills, and knowledge more relevant and accessible to women farmers (FAO, 2016c).

4.3.4.1 Policy commitments and targets regarding research and advisory services

Improving women's access to technologies and services is directly linked to the AU campaign to banish the hand hoe to the museum. To achieve such targets, heads of states have committed to



BOX 15: EXAMPLES OF GENDER INTEGRATION IN WATER POLICY AND INTERVENTIONS

The African Ministers Council on Water developed a policy and strategy on gender mainstreaming within the water sector that built on the socio-economic and gender analysis approach (SEAGA) developed by FAO. Gender-sensitive indicators for the agriculture and irrigation sectors focused on land and water resources management, access to employment and education, and institutional empowerment to support gender-equality interventions. Gender-awareness programmes were organized at the local, provincial and national levels to sensitize the community regarding the important role of women in managing water resources and the agricultural sector (FAO, 2016f).

In Ghana, the irrigation policy, which includes a strong focus on gender mainstreaming, has initiated the following steps: (1) reform land tenure and rights to water use to give women access to the benefits from natural resource management; (2) ensure local water management arrangements are all (socially) inclusive; (3) recognize the central role played by women in the use, provision, management and safeguarding of water; (4) take affirmative action so that 40 percent is reserved for women when it comes to implementation depending on the specific activity; (5) conduct gender-sensitization programmes on some selected (10) GIDA schemes (Ghana CGA).

In Senegal, the chart displaying the irrigation domain of SAED includes gender profiles. The water policy also integrates gender to enhance women's participation in governance and training in gender integration, with a specific project seeking to enhance **women's participation in irrigation projects**. In addition, there is a successful pilot project that uses water cisterns to store water to make it available during the dry season (November to May), supporting both domestic use and food production (Senegal CGA).

The Gambia has established drip irrigation for 21 communal garden schemes (5 hectare/garden) through the Gambia Commercialization and Value Chain Management Project (GCAV) and the implementing partner is the Horticulture Technical Services of the Department of Agriculture. It is a World Bank-funded project. It aims to commercialize horticulture and reduce the drudgery for women (The Gambia CGA).

take action to expand the introduction of modern agricultural systems, technology, practices and training, including abolishing the use of the hand hoe. In addition, Agenda 2063 promotes equal access of women to assets and services and affirmative actions.

The Malabo Indicator Framework contains two targets: to double the proportion of farmers having access to advisory services and to increase share of expenditure on agricultural research to 1 percent of the AgGDP.

The 2018 Malabo Evaluation Report (AUC, 2018a) shows contrasted situations across African regions (see Table 5): North Africa has the highest proportion of farmers receiving advisory services (88.9 percent) but the expenditure on agricultural research is low. Southern and Eastern Africa have the highest access to advisory services and have gone beyond Malabo's target in their budget for agricultural research. Western Africa and Central Africa provide advisory services to only a quarter of their farmers, but Western Africa invests 1.7 percent of its AgGDP in agricultural research.

Table 5: Access to advisory services and agricultural research expenditure

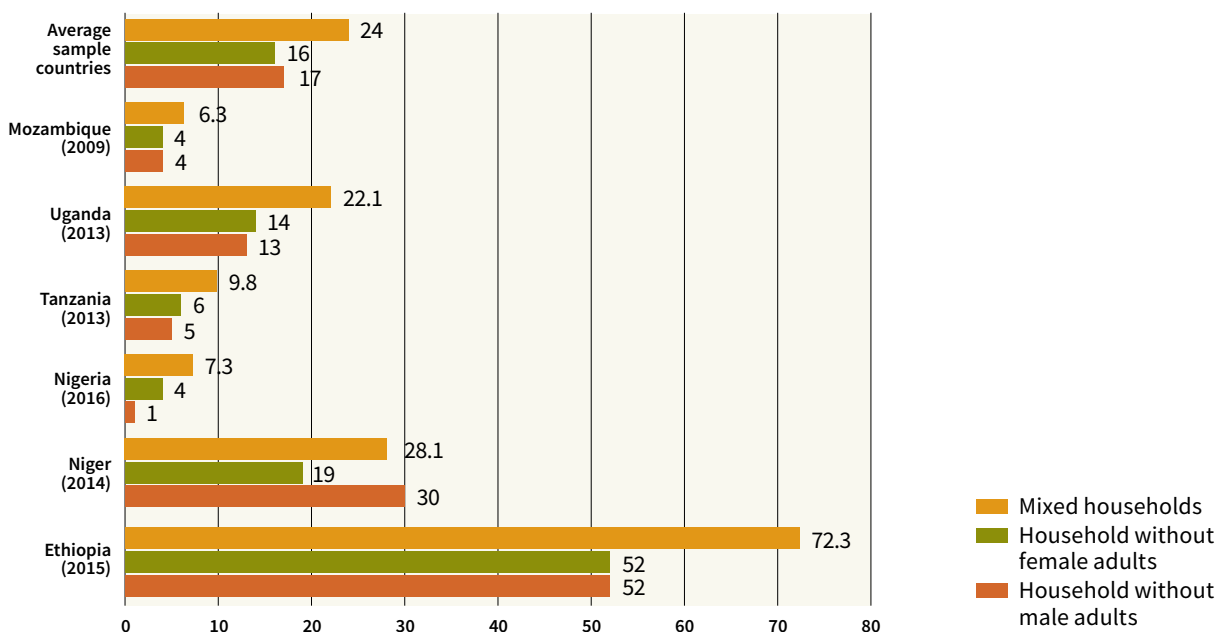
| | Proportion of farmers with access to advisory services (%) | Total agricultural research spending as a share of AgGDP (target: 1%) |
|-----------------|--|---|
| Central Africa | 25.9 | 0.2 |
| Eastern Africa | 52.6 | 1.2 |
| Northern Africa | 88.9 | 0.7 |
| Southern Africa | 51.5 | 2.1 |
| Western Africa | 27.7 | 1.7 |
| Africa | 42 | 1.36 |

Source: AUC, 2018a. Malabo Evaluation Report. Compilation of countries self-reporting scores.

4.3.4.2 Gender gaps in access to RAS

Women generally have less access than men to agricultural services and research (FAO, 2011). The Ethiopia CGA shows that the percentage of female holders who received advisory services was about 13 percent lower than that of male holders. Burkina Faso reported that 26 percent of women benefit from extension compared to over 70 percent of men. Tanzania, Zimbabwe and South Sudan also reported lesser access of women to such services. In Ethiopia, 20 percent of women compared with 27 percent

of men had been visited by an extension agent. In Ghana, 12 percent of MHHs as against 2 percent of FHHs had received extension visits. In the MHHs that were targeted, only 2 percent of the spouses had received such extension support (Croppenstedt, Goldstein and Rosas, 2013). Review of six household surveys showed that FHHs without any male adults receive less extension services or training, with some exceptions. For instance, in Niger, data showed that they have similar access; meanwhile, women receive substantially less extension services support in Nigeria (Figure 27).

Figure 27: Percentage of farm households with access to agricultural training or extension

Source: FAO, Rural Livelihoods Information System, Statistics Division, September 2018, Rome, from LSMS dataset.

In addition, **the number of women agricultural extension workers is limited**, which can hamper women's full access to such services due to cultural factors and social norms. The World Wide Extension Study and the FAO CGAs show that women represented from 5 percent to 32 percent of the field staff, often with better representation at higher levels of coordination and specialization (GFRAS, 2013; see Table 6).

Further, a case study analysis showed that, **when women have equal access to advisory services, their incomes increase more than that of men.** For instance, the Agricultural Support Programme in Zambia documented that FHHs progress relatively more (78 percent increase of incomes) than MHHs (31 percent increase of incomes). An International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI) review of farmer field schools (FFS) in Africa showed similar results (GFRAS, 2013). This confirms that investing in women can provide quicker and higher returns in agricultural growth.

Some **gender-specific barriers** that require strong policy actions include (FAO, 2016c):

- The **literacy rate of women and their knowledge of national languages is lower** than that of men, especially in rural areas. This is a definite obstacle to some extension programmes, especially those based on written materials or not in the local language.
- **Women often have to bear a heavy workload.** Their responsibilities in the management of the household may prevent them from attending extension programmes, notably those held at a time when they have to fulfil other family responsibilities.
- There is a further constraint when it comes to **women's mobility**, which inhibits them from attending training programmes. Often, they have to ask for permission from their husbands; do not have their own means of transport; and the other alternative means of transport are often expensive and not sufficiently secure.
- **Cultural barriers** and social norms like prohibition to participate in mixed discussion groups are other challenges.

Table 6: Percentage of women public extension staff in selected countries (2012)

| Country | Senior management staff | Subject matter specialists | Field staff |
|----------------|-------------------------|----------------------------|--|
| Tunisia (2004) | | 38% of coordination unit | 1.5% of lower level (radiance) and 3% at territorial level |
| Egypt | | 19% | 4% |
| Senegal (CGA) | | | 5.5% |
| Mali | 0 | 0 | 7% |
| Mozambique | | | 11% |
| Togo (CGA) | | | 12.6% |
| Zambia | 13% | 17% | 14% |
| Ethiopia (CGA) | | | 17% |
| Malawi | 39% | 31% | 21% |
| Ghana | 26% | 23% | 29% |
| Rwanda | 36% | 23% | 30% |
| Kenya | 32% | 33% | 32% |

Source: Data reported for 2012 from Worldwide Extension Study and compiled in GFRAS, 2013, plus inputs from CGAs as indicated.

- **Women have less access to modern technology** (internet, mobile phone), which is a barrier for accessing online extension services. For instance, the Benin CGA highlighted that 6 percent of women use the internet, compared to 14 percent men, to access online advisory services.
- **There is lower participation of women in rural organizations** that are key to access information and agriculture advisory services.

These constraints call for gender-sensitive extension that is tailored to the needs and capacities of women. The CGAs reveal that:

Most extension agents are men and have not been trained to consider gender. Cultural barriers thus hinder men as extension workers from talking to women without the presence of their husbands.

- **Extension and research programmes do not sufficiently target women's activities** and are not organized in places and at times favourable for women.
- **RAS may target the head of the household** with the faith that the information will trickle down. However, information-sharing is often insufficient, and women often require specific information and training programmes.
- **The extension programmes are not necessarily adapted to the literacy levels** of populations and are not always translated into the local languages.
- **There is insufficient participation of women and beneficiaries** in the formulation of extension and advisory programmes. In addition, Monitoring and Evaluation (M&E) and targets do not sufficiently include gender. This does not allow for disaggregated monitoring of access to

inputs and programmes and does not motivate officers to integrate women sufficiently among their beneficiaries.

4.3.4.3 Promising practices and orientations for gender-sensitive advisory systems

Several interesting initiatives at the country level have benefited women. Most often, they include the following good practices (see Box 16):

- Inclusive approaches to service provision, including women's quotas in management committees, staff/service agents and among the beneficiaries of services (for example Cameroon);
- Support to establish partnerships that include the government, producers' organizations and advisory services; for instance, some programmes are implemented or managed by producers' and women's organizations and show promising results (for example, Kenya and ROPPA);
- Gender diagnosis to identify women's roles and constraints, target women's activities, and choosing women's plots for demonstration of good agricultural practices;
- Adaptation of extension tools to suit illiterate persons (rural radio, translation in local languages, illustrated programmes) and association with literacy programmes;
- Capacity-strengthening of service providers (extension services, business development services, and so on) to target rural women in a more systematic and gender-sensitive way (Kenya, for example). FAO has also published guidelines to support the development of gender-sensitive advisory tools (FAO, 2016c)
- Integrate activities that transform social norms, intra-household dynamics and seek to empower women at different levels, challenging the root causes of inequality. There is need for household approaches, involvement of both men and women and community leaders to bring about social change. (See examples of Kenya and ROPPA in Box 16 and section 4.3.4.3, p. 73).

Usually, programmes have to address all major points systematically. Box 16 provides examples of cooperatives initiatives to develop gender-sensitive advisory systems.





BOX 16: EXAMPLES OF GENDER-SENSITIVE EXTENSION SYSTEMS

In Kenya's Lessos District, FAO and the Ministry of Agriculture collaborated to strengthen capacities of the Lessos Dairy Farmers Cooperative Society to provide gender-sensitive business development services. Located on the Cooperative's premises, the Business Service Centre (BSC) offers a wide range of training and counselling services for the promotion of business-oriented dairy farming and the incubation of enterprises that provide value-added services (for example milk processing and marketing) and other service-based enterprises. The BSC **operates in a gender-sensitive manner and follows a household-oriented approach**. Both content and delivery modalities are designed to make services easily accessible to both women and men, and respond to common gender-based constraints that undermine women's entrepreneurial potential, such as excessive work burden, time and mobility constraints and limited technical training. FAO implemented a thorough capacity development and mentoring programme, and systematically integrated gender dimensions into the programme's activities. The BSC staff is well equipped and deeply committed to sensitizing their clients about gender inequality and its negative impact, especially with regard to the performance of dairy farms and related businesses. The coordinator and the field workers have been trained to engage with entire households, not only with individual clients. They work to help family members plan together to reach shared business goals and overcome unequal and inefficient intra-household dynamics. In its first year of operation, the BSC has succeeded in increasing women's access to productive resources, knowledge and networks, and improving their technical skills in dairy farming and business practices. There have also been noteworthy changes in women's participation in the Lessos Cooperative and in their decision-making power at the household and community levels.

In Cameroon, the root and tuber programme had specific targets for participation of women in activities, including technology and extension services. It achieved 67 percent participation of women in the cooperatives and helped women occupy 60 percent of the leader positions.

ROPPA recently reviewed advisory services offered by its members. It showed that major farmer-based support systems exist in five countries (Benin, Burkina Faso, Guinea, Mali and Senegal), partially functional systems exist in four countries (Côte d'Ivoire, Ghana, Liberia and Nigeria), and that there are no support systems in four countries (The Gambia, Guinea Bissau, Sierra Leone and Togo).

In Senegal, the Federation of NGOs initiated a family farm monitoring system, which also provided advisory services. CNCR collaborated with FONGS to extend it to its various national producers' organizations platforms. Facilitators engaged 2 000 families in a participatory diagnosis to analyse the different livelihoods and coping strategies, and see how the family was managing to ensure food security. It paid attention to gender by involving both men and women in the process, focusing on identifying their specific roles and responsibilities. It also facilitated a joint dialogue on future options, favouring a more participatory decision-making process and providing evidence for policy advocacy. The synthesis report reinforces the capacity of the organizations to engage in policy (ROPPA, 2017b; CNCR, 2014).

4.4 Post-harvest losses

4.4.1 Context and policy commitments

Post-harvest losses directly impact food availability, food security and nutrition for all. Smallholders tend to sell all their produce to middlemen before post-harvest handling because they fear high post-harvest losses. Food losses during harvesting, post-harvest handling and in storage translate into lost income for small farmers and into higher prices for poor consumers.

Roughly, one-third of the food produced in the world for human consumption every year — approximately 1.3 billion tonnes — get lost or wasted (HLPE, 2014). Food losses occur at different levels of the value chain in different regions, with higher food losses during harvesting, post-harvest handling and storage in developing countries. Whereas in developed countries higher food wastages occur on the consumer side (see Figure 28).

It is estimated that the food currently lost in Africa could feed 300 million people. **In SSA**, in particular, per capita food losses are 120 kg to 170 kg/year and over 40 percent of the food losses occur during the post-harvest and processing stages (WB, NRI and FAO, 2011). **In Northern Africa**, food losses and waste amount to over 200 kg/year/capita, including about 25 kg of consumer losses (FAO, 2011c).

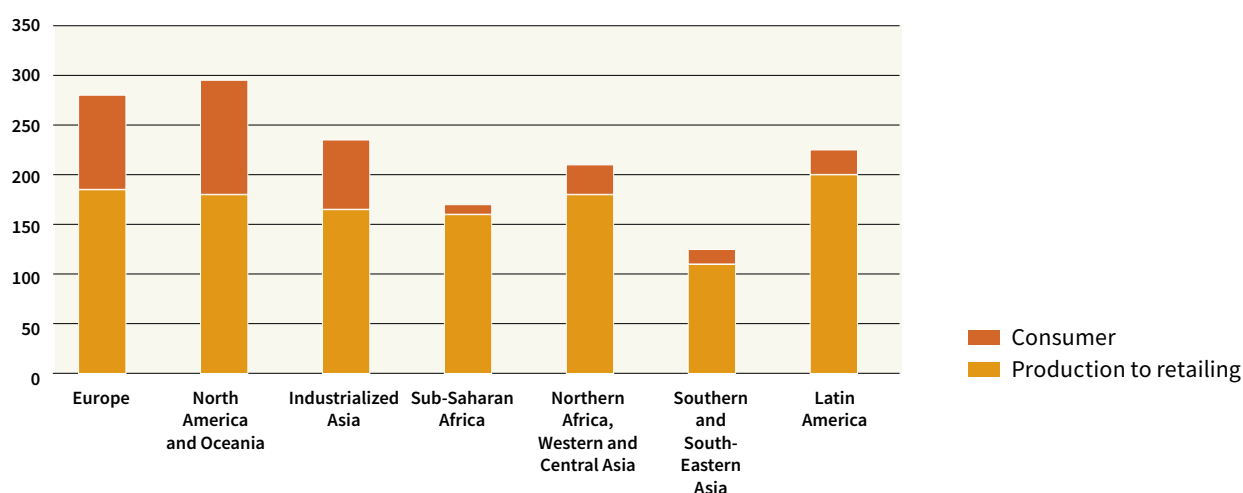
The extent of food losses and its origin varies across commodities and regions (see Figure 29, adapted from FAO, 2011c data).

- Food losses are highest for fruits and vegetables (over 50 percent, including 30 percent in post-harvest management, processing and distribution. Northern Africa does better in this segment but records higher losses in the production and consumption segments.)
- Root and tuber come second with 45 percent losses in SSA and 30 percent in Northern Africa, Western and Central Asia, 22 to 28 percent coming from post-harvest, processing and distribution losses.
- Cereals and animal production value chains (meat, dairy and fish) record lower losses of 30 percent or less, and between 10 to 20 percent due to post-harvest, processing and distribution losses.

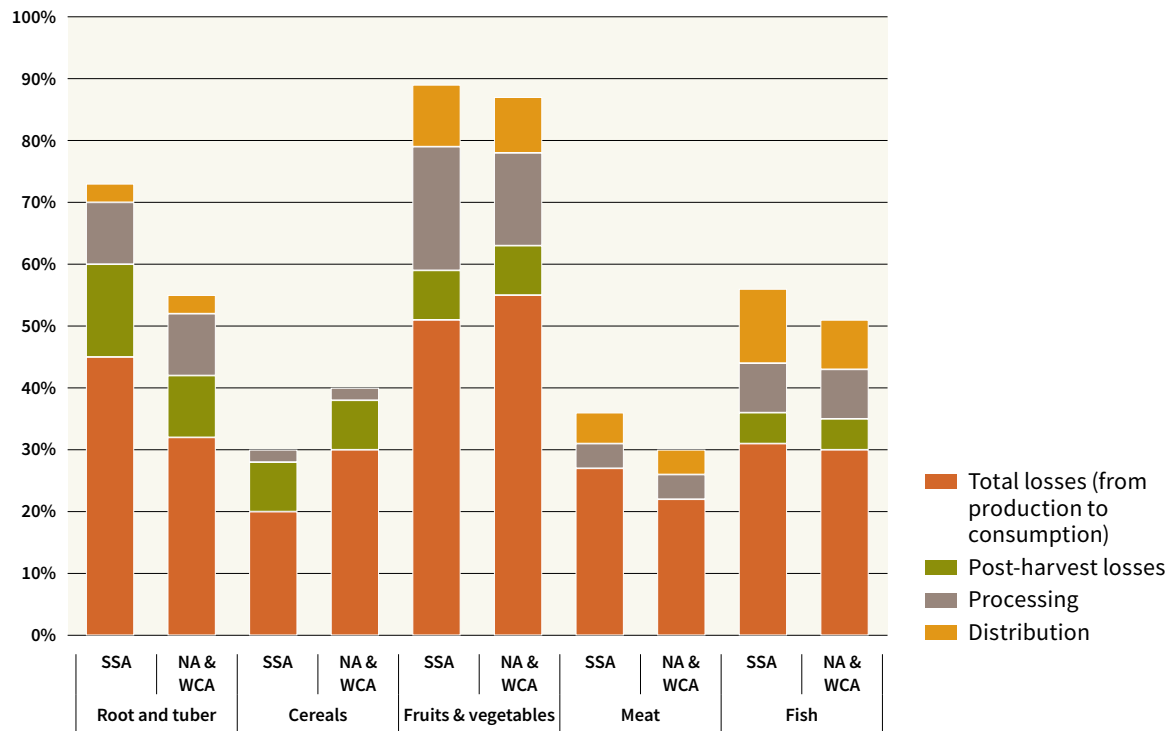
The reduction of post-harvest losses has been incorporated as a goal in the **major commitments for the region:**

- Malabo Goal 2 includes an ambitious target to halve post-harvest losses in five national priority commodities.
- SDG 12.3: By 2030, halve per capita global food waste at the retail and consumer levels and reduce food losses along production and supply chains, including post-harvest losses.

Figure 28: Per capita food losses and waste, at consumption and pre-consumption stages, in different regions



Source: FAO, 2011c.

Figure 29: Type of food losses across major value chains in Africa

Source: Data estimated from FAO 2011c and recompiled by author. No estimate specific to Northern Africa could be found, so the author had to take Northern Africa, Central and Western Asia, and SSA.

4.4.2 Gender and post-harvest losses: women's roles and vulnerabilities

Women are at the forefront of managing the post-harvest process and reducing related losses.

In fact, women generally dominate the harvesting, processing and marketing of agricultural products. They also dominate fish processing and marketing, as well as the processing of various forests products. They also dominate horticulture and dairy products, which are perishable and specifically sensitive to post-harvest losses. These losses, therefore, have a significant impact on the food supply and income of women.

Several countries reported **gender gaps in the use of improved storage and processing equipment that can reduce post-harvest losses**. For instance, the Zambia CGA noted that 40.5 percent of MHHs compared to 32.8 percent of FHHs use cribs for post-harvest storage and drying. The Botswana CGA

highlighted that women are also responsible for vegetable processing, which is mainly done through sun drying. They usually use manual, time-consuming technologies such as wooden mortar and pestle for dehusking and grinding grain and head loading for transporting grain. MHHs compared to FHHs are well resourced and are in a better position to construct durable cribs made up of iron sheets and steel for maize drying as in the case of the Eswatini Group. Again, women often engage in shelling and winnowing, while MHHs use technologies that are faster and less laborious such as maize shellers.

In Ghana, a study titled *Determinants of Post-harvest losses in tomato production in the Offinso North District of Ghana (2013–2014)* showed that **gender and household size were the demographic variables that had a significant effect on post-harvest losses in tomato production**. Only 23 percent of the tomato farmers are women, but women also contribute to their husbands' tomato farms. Female farmers had significantly higher



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levels of losses than the male farmers. All things being equal, women tend to use a longer period for fruit harvesting, which then causes high levels of post-harvest losses. Indeed, tomato harvesting is labour-intensive and time-bound. The study suggested that such higher post-harvest losses can be linked to women's specific time constraints (conflicts with other chores), limited access to hired labour, cash limitations and physical constraints (Aidoo, Danfoku and Osei-Mensah, 2014).

Several processing technologies that are used by women have serious health implications. Eswatini reported that chemicals used for food storage are risky for women, especially lactating mothers. In addition, they are often not adequately trained to use agricultural chemicals. The Zimbabwe gender profile showed that women complained of health issues such as chest problems, aching shoulders, flu, eye problems and itching, which they experienced due to the winnowing process. Further, the traditional fish processing is done by women through smoking the fish, which also has health implications.

Women face specific constraints that contribute greatly to the overall post-harvest losses. Socio-cultural norms and gender relations are significant underlying reasons for food value-chain inefficiencies, which, in turn, directly result in food loss (FAO, 2018b). Some of the key gender-based constraints contributing to food losses are summarized here (FAO, 2018b):

- **Poor logistics including insufficient infrastructure** to support the development of the rural sector (roads, warehouses, slaughterhouses, cold chains and electricity). This situation compels households to sell their perishable products immediately at farm-gate prices. In addition, **women usually face greater challenges than men do to access the storage facilities** and cold chains due to their lower economic empowerment, lower participation in collective organizations and mobility constraints. The lack of storage and processing equipment and the seasonality of the fresh produce, including fruits and vegetables, result in their having to be consumed immediately. This results in the non-availability of fruits and vegetables between the cropping seasons, which can lead to nutrition problems (Angola Report).
- **Constraints more specifically related to social norms and women's empowerment in the households**
 - **Women may face greater mobility constraints** due to higher cash constraints, lower access to transport, specific gender-based violence on the roads and social norms preventing women using specific modes of transport in several countries. Social norms might also include restrictions on women leaving the house or community rather than assume their traditional role within the household and family.
 - **Specific time constraints of women** make it more difficult for them to harvest or process on time (see Ghana case study on page 75, FAO, 2018b). A similar study in Sierra Leone CGA highlighted that women were unable to harvest perishable products in the early morning due to their household commitments, which included care of children and elderly, domestic chores, productive activities and community responsibilities (see also section 4.3, p. 68). This has an impact on the level of PHL since harvesting later in the day leads to higher losses. Such constraints are notably due to the traditional gender roles, which demand that women have double or triple responsibilities – household commitments that include care and domestic chores, productive activities and community responsibilities.

- **Decision-making mechanisms at the household-level** do not empower women. For instance, in Chad, post-harvest management and storage are the responsibility of the head of household, who also decides what to do with the income. This can lead to (violent) conflicts in some socio-cultural contexts, for instance when products acquired after selling food are not needed/important. Women's limited access to decision-making also reduces the opportunities for them to invest in food loss reduction initiatives.
 - **Insufficient research, innovation and technology to develop post-harvest technologies sensitive to gender issues and/or targeting women-dominated value chains**
 - In several countries, insufficient attention is paid to gender-sensitive equipment and infrastructure (for instance heavy equipment technologies that negatively impact health). Replacing traditional smoking devices with improved versions or using solar drying, improving winnowing tools would be examples of gender-sensitive technology.
 - **Gender-sensitive simple time and energy-saving equipment can reduce time, fuel use and health hazards and reduce post-harvest losses.** For instance, in Ethiopia, introducing milk-processing facilities and fuel-saving stoves could reduce the time women spend on processing milk by 75 percent, and the stoves could improve efficiency by 50 percent (Ethiopia CGA, 2018). Similar innovations have been developed for fish processing with promising economic, environmental and health results (Ndiaye, Sodoke-Komivi and Diei-Ouadi, 2014). Interventions that reduce drudgery for women (for example, the introduction of hammer mills and investments in dehulling equipment for processing sorghum flour in Botswana), can offer women more time to pursue productive activities and increase their ability to care for their children (World bank, NRI and FAO, 2011). Therefore, reducing drudgery should be viewed as a way to increase labour productivity by permitting human energy, and in this case that of women, to be more effectively converted into useful work.
 - Access to **credit and timely financial resources** is key to avoid premature harvest. Financial need often forces women to harvest produce early, lowering the nutritional and economic value of the crop. In addition, their time constraints could be partially addressed if women were able to hire labour when needed.
 - Weak access to **education, training and extension limit** the technical knowledge and capacities of women to implement good practices and to comply with food safety standards and health requirements, which may cause further difficulties in marketing products, leading to food losses.
 - **Women's** lower participation in cooperatives hinder their capacity to access programmes and training on post-harvest losses, as well as the required credit and financial services to buy equipment that will aid their work.
- Therefore, meeting Malabo targets to halve the post-harvest losses requires gender-sensitive approaches.** Based on the analysis of gender-based constraints, FAO produced specific guidelines to **systematically include gender concerns in planning and designing interventions that would reduce food loss**, starting from appropriate gender-sensitive analysis to identify gender-specific challenges to reviewing the differentiated impact of the solutions (FAO, 2018b).
- Generally, gender-sensitive interventions must have an integrated approach that will address the structural constraints of women, seeking to transform adverse social norms and weak women agency in the household and community; reinforce women cooperatives; support rural institutions to deliver gender-sensitive services; and foster an overall gender-sensitive enabling environment.

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GOAL 4

Halving poverty through
an inclusive value chain





The following subsections evaluate the situation of women and gender inequalities using some of the sub-objectives and targets of the following Malabo goals base: 4:4.1. Agricultural GDP and poverty reduction; 4.2 Inclusive Public Private Partnerships (PPPs) for commodity value chains; 4.3. Youth jobs in agriculture; and 4.4. Women participation and empowerment in agribusiness.

5.1 Agricultural growth, poverty reduction, employment and gender

The MDGs progress reports published in 2012 indicated that women in SSA are **at a greater risk of living in poverty than men**. A recent global study encompassing 141 countries showed **that USD 160.2 trillion of human capital wealth is lost due to gender inequality in earnings**. This is about twice the value of the GDP globally. Human capital wealth could increase by 21.7 percent globally, and total wealth by 14.0 percent, with gender equality in earnings (Wodon and de la Brière, 2018).

Similarly, in Africa, gender gaps in earnings constrain growth. Such **gaps in agricultural earnings** are detrimental, considering the important contribution of agriculture to national GDP. In addition, “**extreme poverty is disproportionately concentrated in rural areas**, and the rural poor are more likely to rely on agriculture than other rural households, especially in SSA.” In SSA, 52 percent of the rural population is extremely poor as against 29 percent of the urban population, while in Northern Africa and the middle east, extreme poverty is lower but twice more prevalent in the rural areas. “It is the poor’s reliance on agriculture for their livelihoods and the high share of their expenditure on food that makes agriculture key to poverty and hunger alleviation interventions.” Economic growth, especially agricultural development, is essential to poverty reduction, but it is ineffective if such growth has not been inclusive (FAO, 2015b).

Poverty is also closely related to **exposure and resilience to the various shocks** affecting rural households (see section 7, p.124). Indeed, rainfall variability, land degradation and desertification contribute to vulnerability and poverty. Climate change is set to worsen these stresses over the coming decades. In addition, there is evidence of considerable mobility into and out of poverty as households suffer the effects of shocks and then recover from them (FAO, 2015b).

Therefore, **bridging gender gaps in agriculture could contribute significantly to agricultural and general economic growth** as well as poverty reduction as it will lead to more inclusive economic growth.

The following sections identify specific gender gaps in agricultural earnings and its impact on poverty levels; further, mechanisms that can address such poverty levels and gender gaps are examined.

5.1.1 Overall context and policy commitments

- SDG 1 on the eradication of poverty that should have guaranteed equal rights to both men and women when it comes to economic resources, basic services, technology, financial services, and ownership and control of resources (including land).
- AU 2063 targets to eradicate poverty in the coming decades through enhanced investment in the productive capacities (skills and assets) of our people; improve incomes; create jobs; and provide basic livelihood necessities.

- The Malabo Declaration targets to halve poverty by 2025 with gender-neutral sub-indicators related to agricultural growth, and its contribution to reduction of poverty and poverty headcount ratio.

The 2018 Malabo Report highlighted some **general progress but without specifying progress achieved for women**. Eighteen Member States reported an increase in agricultural GDP of at least 6 percent in 2016. No country reported on the contribution of agriculture to poverty reduction. Only a few countries reported on the reduction of poverty headcount by national poverty lines. Only two countries reported a 38 percent reduction in poverty (Djibouti and Equatorial Guinea). Others reported low reduction or even an increase in poverty headcount (Mali, Lesotho, Central African Republic and South Africa).

5.1.2 Estimating poverty and income gender gaps in Africa

Figures of population living below the income poverty line, as provided by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), are based on weighted subgroup estimates from household

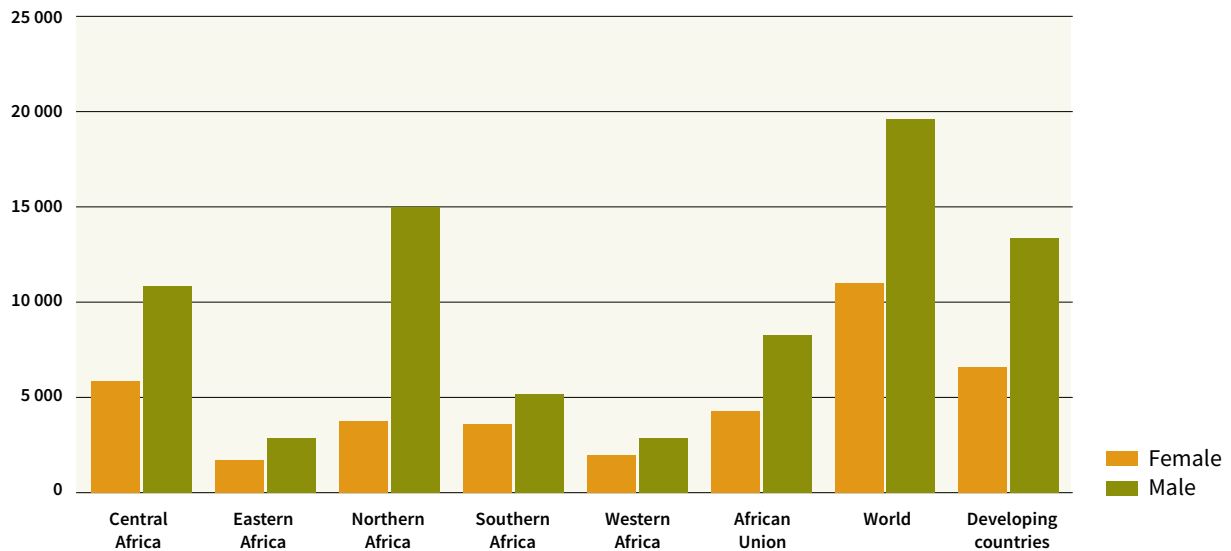
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surveys and are not sex-disaggregated in the online database (<http://hdr.undp.org/en/composite/MPI>). UNDP multidimensional poverty indicators that take into account education, living standards and health are also not available in a sex-disaggregated format.

The non-availability of sex-disaggregated income data results in UNDP roughly **estimating earned income for its gender development indicator** (UNDP, 2016; HDR, 2016). It is calculated based on female and male wage shares of the economically active population, the ratio of the female to male wage in all sectors and gross national income in 2011 purchasing power parity (PPP) terms, and female and male shares of population from ILO (2016), IMF (2016), UNDESA (2015) and World Bank (2016). Such an indicator does not include unmeasured subsistence and nonmarket production, which are dominant in African poor rural households, notably for women. Section 5.1.3 will, therefore, focus on **analysing the disparity in gross national income (GNI) and relate it to various other gaps in labour force participation, employment and waged gaps and various levels of participation in remunerated work**.

Analysis of GNI for both males and females shows high-income gaps. Female income represents 30 percent of male income in Northern Africa, about 50 percent in Southern Africa and around 64 to 70 percent in Central, Western and Eastern Africa. African countries have, however, on average, lower income gaps than the world average, estimated at 56 percent (Figure 30). The analysis of the income gaps across various countries shows that some countries have **lower gender gaps, notably among lower income countries**. For instance, in Tanzania, Burundi, Malawi and Mozambique, female income represents around 80 percent of male income. In higher income countries, lower gender gaps are seen in Congo, Angola, Gabon, and Equatorial Guinea, where GNI for women represents between 60 to 70 percent of the male GNI, while it represents 18 to 34 percent in Libya, Algeria, Egypt and Tunisia (UNDP development indicators series 2018. Author's calculations).

Figure 30: Gender gaps in gross national incomes per capita across African regions

Source: UNDP Development Indicators Series. Author's calculations.

FHHs are also among the poorest in most countries.

However, a recent report shows that they remain a diverse group and they display faster poverty reduction (World Bank, 2015). The following trends were notably elicited in the report:

- Africa-wide, **26 percent of all households are currently headed by women**, comprising 21 percent of Africa's population, from 43 percent in Southern Africa down to around 20 percent in Western Africa (World Bank, 2015; see also section 5.3.3, page 93).
- On average, FHHs have **fewer assets and more labour constraints**. Many of them are older (reflecting the fact that probably they are widowed), and they have fewer years of education than male heads (4.1 versus 5.6). These households also tend to be smaller (3.9 versus 5.1 members), and have higher dependency ratios (1.2 versus 1.0). Mirroring the latter, female heads are 27 times more likely to live in households in which they are the only adult living with one or more children (World Bank, 2015). They, therefore, face more severe labour constraints than MHHs because they typically have fewer adult working

members and more dependents. In some areas, male out-migration adds to their constraints. FHHs may receive help from male relatives, but only after the men have taken care of their own plots. In addition, as evidenced earlier, FHHs usually have smaller plots (FAO, 2011b).

- With the exception of Western Africa, there is a tendency **for a larger share of the FHHs to be ranked in the bottom quintile of the wealth index**,¹⁰ with the difference rising with the age of the female heads (Milazzo and van de Walle, 2015). Similar poverty trends are reported in the CGAs, with variations across countries. For instance, in DRC, FHHs account for 61 percent of the households living below the poverty line (2009). In Rwanda, 44 percent of the FHHs are poor compared to 37 percent of the MHHs, while 24.2 percent are extremely poor as against 14.6 percent of the MHHs. In South Africa, according to the 2008 National Income Dynamics Study, FHHs are between 38 percent and more than 100 percent poorer than MHHs (depending on the measure used). However, the Cameroon 2014 household survey shows higher poverty among MHHs.

¹⁰ Composite measure of a household's living standard calculated using data on the ownership of selected assets. Generated using principal components analysis, the wealth index places households on a continuous scale of relative wealth, and then places them into five wealth quintiles (Milazzo and van de Walle, 2015).

- It is also important to provide some nuance and acknowledge the **diversity among FHHs**, distinguishing notably widows and divorced, separated, and abandoned women from married women with a non-resident (polygynous or migrant partner). Moreover, 62 percent of the FHHs do not have any residing adult male (69 percent of the female heads being unmarried). When there is a residing male, it is mostly the son or grandson of the female head, more rarely the spouse (only 19 percent). Those without a residing adult male or a supporting spouse are usually the poorest (Milazzo and van de Walle, 2015). The Rural Livelihood Database provides further insight into this, distinguishing households without any adult males. In the 16 sampled countries in SSA, such households represent 15 percent of all households (see Figure 31).

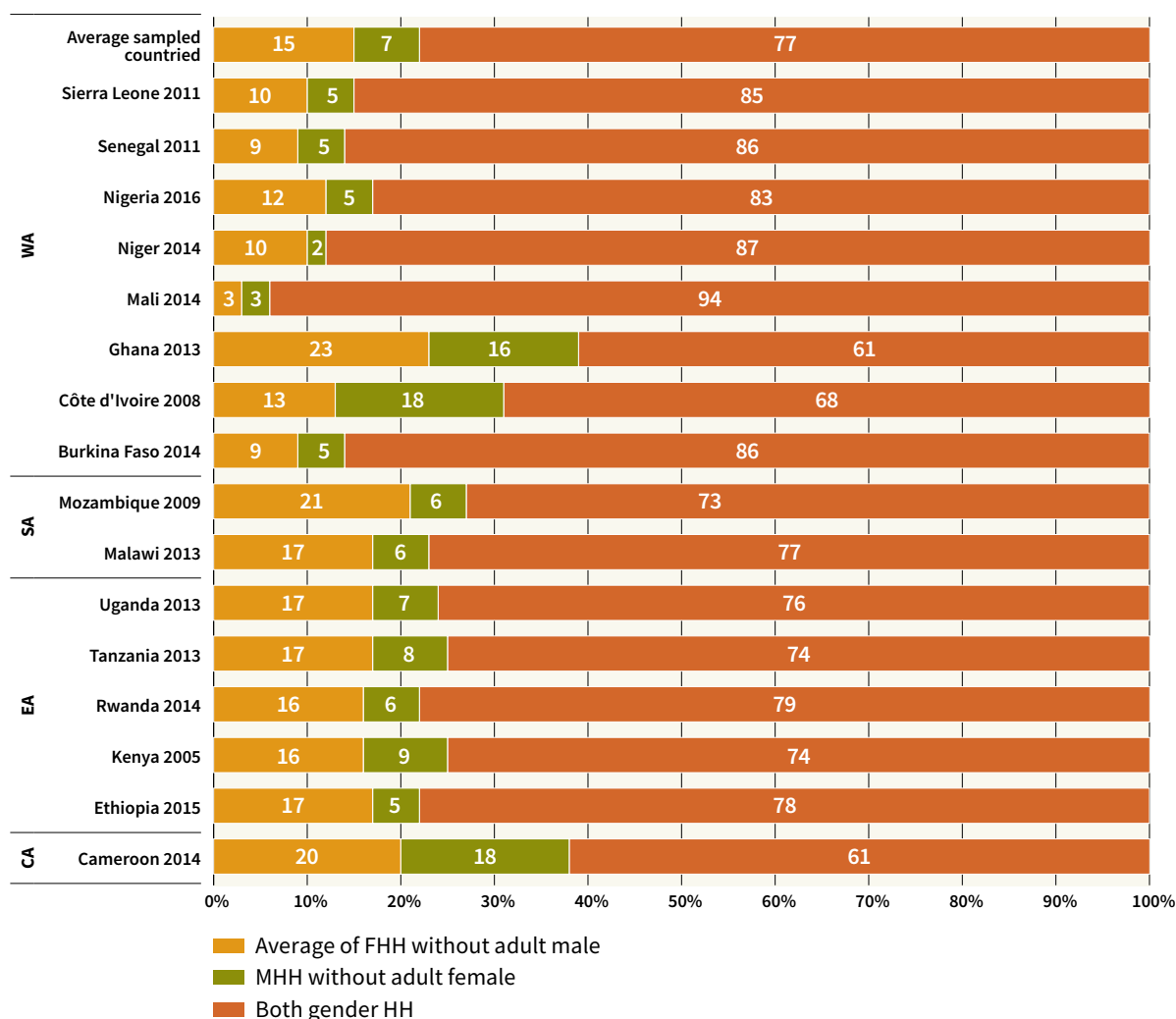
- A more recent study on 24 African countries covering 80 percent of the Africa's population found that “**poverty declined for both male and female-headed households**. But, in most countries, poverty fell faster for FHHs, and therefore FHHs are a potential major contributor to poverty reduction.” (World Bank, 2015)

5.1.3 Key sources of gender gaps in income and poverty

5.1.3.1 Gender, poverty and employment trends

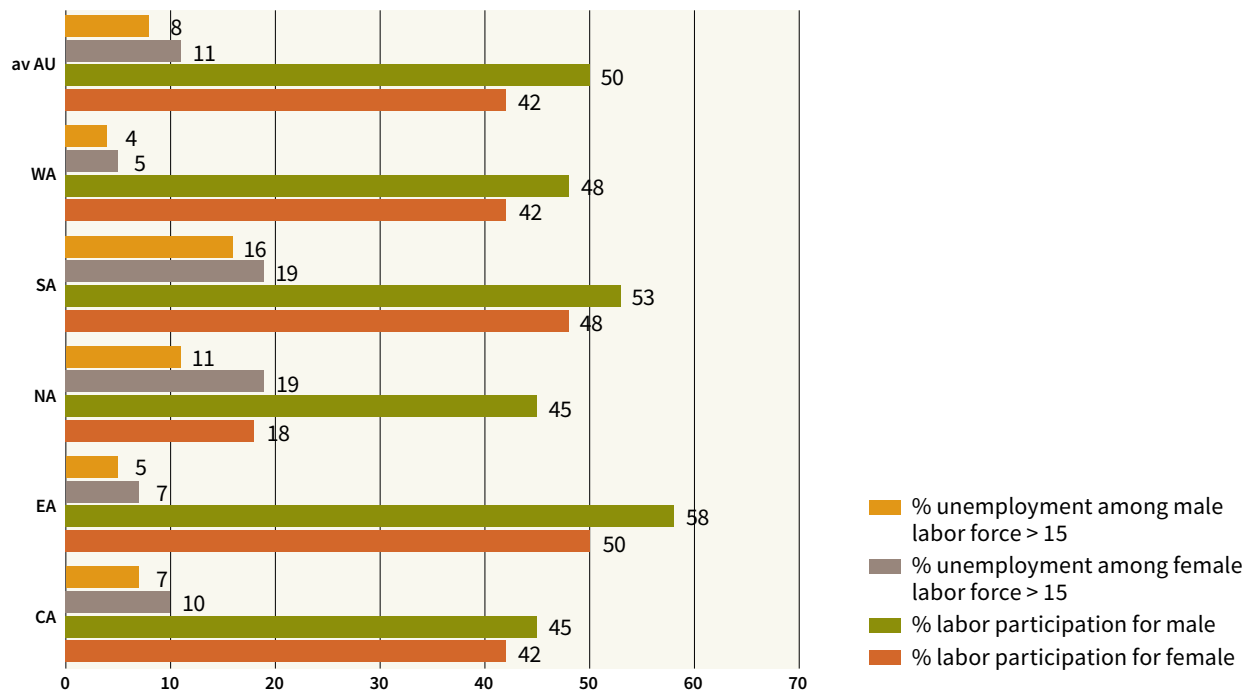
Gender gaps in income can be primarily linked with **lower participation in the workforce and higher unemployment rates** (Figure 32) **as well as employment in activities that generate lower or unaccounted incomes** (Figure 33).

Figure 31: Distribution of households based on sex composition of households



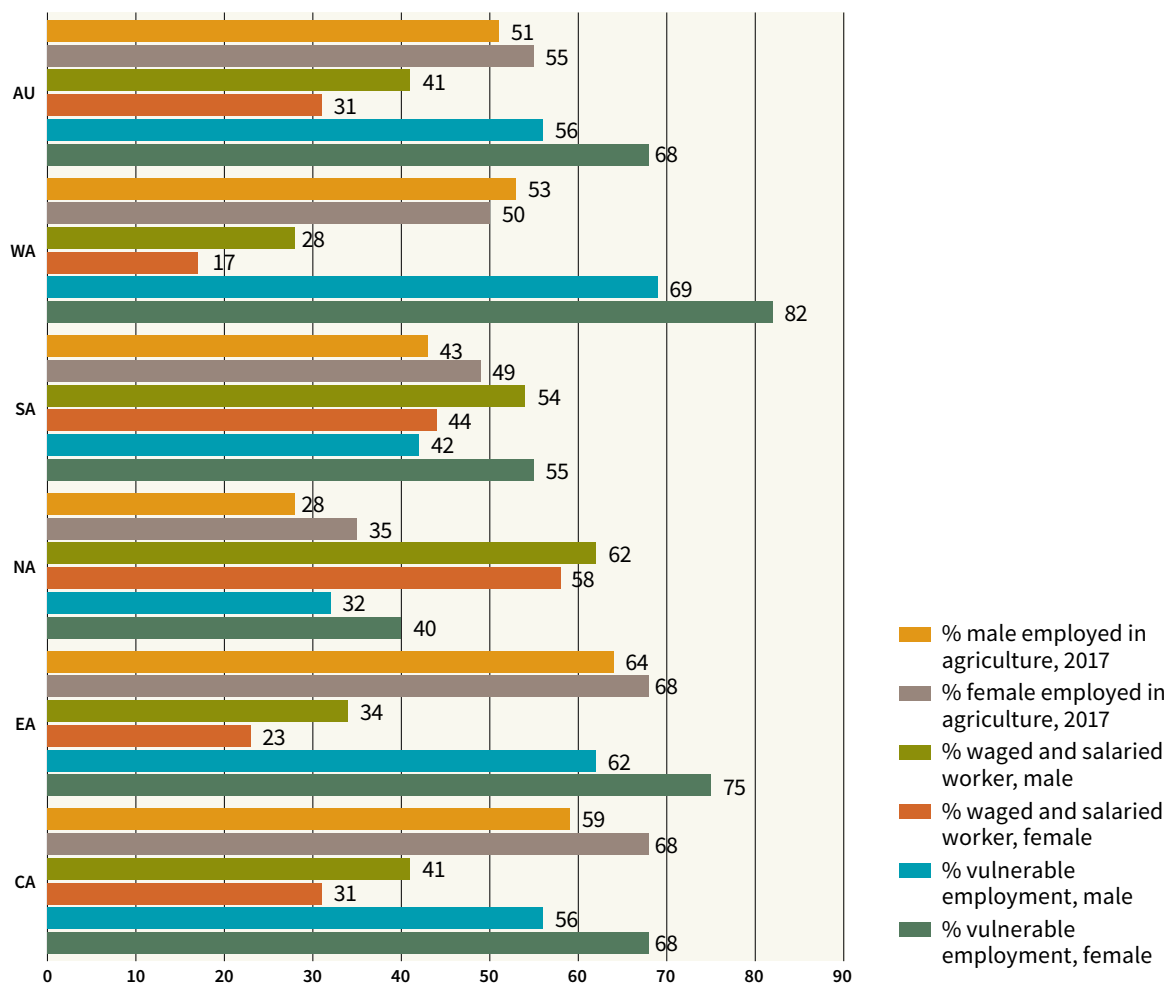
Source: FAO, Rural Livelihoods Information System, 2018.

Figure 32: Gender gaps in labour participation and unemployment (ILO modelled estimate 2015–2017)



Source: World Bank gender database, accessed August 2018, and ILO statistics. Author's calculations.

Figure 33: Gender gaps in vulnerable, agricultural and waged employment (ILO modelled estimate, 2015–2017)



Source: World Bank gender database, accessed August 2018, and ILO statistics. Author's calculations.

- Women labour force participation rates are lower than that of men¹¹ as 42 percent of them are economically active as against 50 percent of men aged 15 and above in Africa. In Northern Africa, only 18 percent of the female adult population is economically active as against 45 percent of adult males. However, several CGA reports (including the ones from Morocco and Egypt) point out that the analyses **may not cover the activities of women** in the informal sector and may, in fact, undervalue activities that may not be strongly commercialized but still contribute to meet household livelihoods and food security needs.
- Men have an underemployment rate¹² of 11 percent against 8 percent for women with the highest difference in Northern Africa (19 percent as against 11 percent).
- **Vulnerable employment**¹³ is 68 percent for men as against 56 percent for women, which confirms that a higher proportion of women are engaged in non-commercialized self-generated activities or contributing to family businesses.
- Fifty-five percent of women are employed in the agricultural sector as against 51 percent of men. However, their employment is through self-employment in their own activities and contribution to the family farms. Both are considered “vulnerable employment”, and tend to generate lower incomes.
- Several reports **point out to differences in wages and salaries** as well as type of contracts for the same work (daily employment vs. more stable employment, for instance). Within the agricultural sector, they reveal women often receive lower agricultural wages than men do. For instance, in Ethiopia, in the rural areas, the wage gap between men and women grew from 43 percent in 2009 to 44.7 percent in 2010. In the case of paid labour, women earned half of what men earned according

to the Cabo Verde Report. The Morocco CGA report highlighted that, generally, male workers were paid, on average, 50 percent more than female workers across all regions and for all commodities. An FAO synthesis of 14 studies showed that, on average, women are paid 28 percent less than men in rural areas, the wage gap ranging from 14 percent to 58 percent in Nigeria, Malawi and Ghana in 2009 (FAO, 2011a). In Senegal, only 2 percent of women as against 28 percent of men have permanent contracts.

5.1.3.2 Other key gender gaps contributing to differences in poverty

Lesser income for women can also be attributed to **higher “time poverty”** (World Bank, 2006) and unequal share of time as well as the prevailing intra-household dynamics and women’s weak empowerment. (Further elements can be seen in section 5.3, p. 143: Empowerment of Women, from household to national levels).

- For instance, women spend a **much higher proportion of their time on unpaid domestic and care work**. Such gender roles contribute to more women being left out of the economically active population (“housewives” for instance, even if they work on the family business). It also contributes to women being able to spend less time on income-generating activities.
- In addition, in the rural sector, **women spend considerable unpaid time on the farm as family workers**. Such unpaid work contributes to the family income and in part to cash earnings. However, traditionally, male heads of households manage farm holdings and they decide on investment, expenditure and the share of benefits. Women usually do not benefit equally and derive very limited cash earnings from time spent on such unpaid work.

¹¹ Proportion of the population over the age of 15 that is economically active: all people who supply labour for the production of goods and services during a specified period (ILO statistical database definition).

¹² Unemployment refers to the share of the labour force that is without work but available for and seeking employment (ILO statistical database definition). It remains, of course, controversial as to what constitutes “without work” and the capture of people that are available and seeking employment, especially in countries without an unemployment agency or benefits and registers for unemployed people.

¹³ Vulnerable employment refers to contributing family workers and own-account workers as a percentage of the total employment (ILO statistical database definition). Such vulnerable employment is predominant in African small-scale agricultural holdings that mainly include contributing and own-account family workers. However, not all family farms are vulnerable.

- As a result, though women tend to work more, they spend a **lower share of their time on income-generating activities**. Meanwhile, statistics tend to **underestimate such contributions that are productive but not-marketed**.
- In Tunisia, per day, rural women usually work for two hours more than men, but only 19.7 percent of them earn incomes compared to 65 percent of the men.
- The Ethiopia Report stated that 30 percent of the women compared to 9 percent of the men are not paid for their work. Further, 56 percent of the women engaged in agricultural work are unpaid workers, usually working on the family farms as part of their household share of roles and responsibilities.
- The Kenya Report also highlighted that women constitute the majority of unpaid manual labour in agricultural production as compared to men, whose labour is often quantified and paid for.
- The Guinea Report pointed out that women tend to consider working on the family land as part of their domestic chores, and only consider activities on their private personal land as an economic activity. Similarly, the Zambia Report also underlined that female labour input is often not given any economic value.
- In Rwanda, 67 percent of subsistence food producers – categorized outside the labour force – are women.

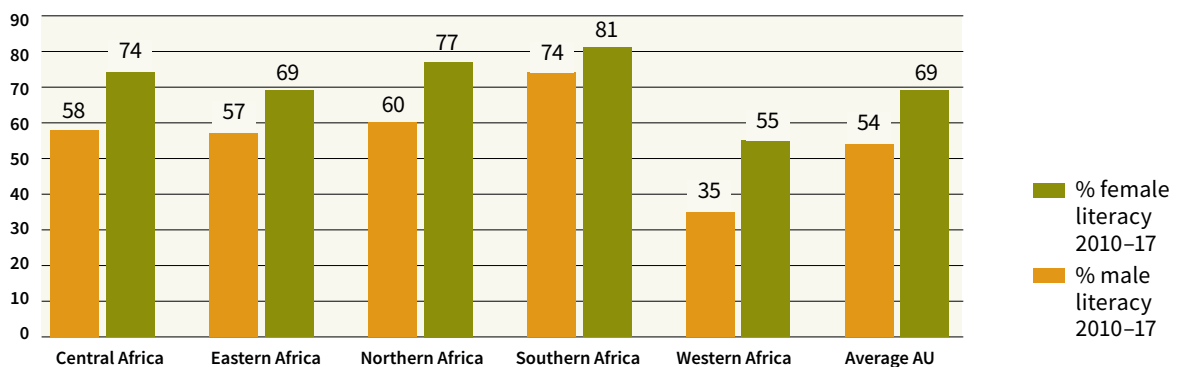
Strong gender gaps in education levels and literacy, notably in the rural areas, also limit

the access that women have to diversified, qualified and better-paid employment. This report also identifies it as a broader constraint to their economic empowerment. Indeed, on average, 54 percent of the females as compared to 69 percent of the males are literate, with the strongest gender gaps in Western Africa (35 percent as against 55 percent), Northern Africa (60 percent as against 77 percent), and lower in Southern Africa (74 percent as against 81 percent). Everywhere, literacy rates are lower in the rural areas, and, concomitantly, gender gaps are generally higher. For instance, in Gabon, although the adult literacy rate is around 71 percent for both men and women, it is 37 percent for rural women and 30 percent for rural men (CGA Gabon, 2017).

Since only limited data was available, the **gaps related to the overall income generated from agricultural activities could not be estimated**.¹⁴ However, they could be inferred by compounding several gender gaps in the various factors contributing directly to agricultural incomes:

- Lower productivity, fewer assets and limited access to inputs and credit (see subsection 4.2.1, p. 43).
- Strong gaps in labour available (both due to women's time constraints and higher rates of vulnerable employment and unemployment among women workers).
- Different levels of participation in the value chain and agribusiness and disproportionate distribution of value among the value chain actors (see subsection 5.3.5, p. 100).

Figure 34: Gender gaps in literacy across African regions (average 2010–2017)



Source: Calculations by the authors after taking the average for 2010–2017 since some countries do not have the recent data. Data was extracted from the World Bank Gender Database and Database from UNESCO; and was accessed on August 2018.

¹⁴ **Upcoming FAO initiative (Rural Livelihood Monitor)** is compiling household data and shall provide more in-depth sex-disaggregated data analysis in countries having LSMS data.

- Produce from women's farms often fetch lower market prices. This needs to be set right. (see section 6 on GOAL 5: Boosting intra-African trade in commodities and services).
- Women's weaker empowerment in the household that leads to lower decision-making and lower share of income (section 5.3).

In addition, poverty also contributes to food insecurity (section 4: Goal 3. Ending hunger by 2025: food insecurity, nutrition and gender). Finally, a thorough analysis of poverty and gender shall also take into account the dynamics that bring people in and out of poverty, including an analysis of the crucial role of shocks and weak resilience of poorer household (section 7: Goal 6: Resilience to shocks and climate variability).

The previous analysis shows that both **FHHs and females within households tend to earn lower incomes and face higher incidence of poverty than MHHs and males**. Addressing **these gaps is crucial to tackling the multidimension of poverty**. Indeed, as analysed in the section 4.1 on food security, women tend to spend a higher proportion of their income than men do on household welfare, notably children's nutrition and education, which are the key elements of multidimensional poverty. In addition, the most recent data show that FHHs have higher impact on poverty reduction rates and contribute in a big way to national poverty reduction (World Bank, 2016).

When addressing gender poverty gaps, there is need to consider their structural causes, such as gaps in labour-force participation, levels of unemployment and vulnerable employment, lower literacy and education, and gaps in wages. In addition, women spend a much higher proportion of their time on unpaid work, both on household care and family farms. Finally, prevailing social norms, customs and intra-household dynamics limit women's capacity to use their own incomes and to benefit from the family income. In some countries, men receive the wages that women earn. This leaves the women in a much more precarious position, even though they may belong to households that are above the poverty line.

However, existing national frameworks like the **CAADP Result Framework ignore such indicators and there are no specific targets or measures related to decent employment** for women. A review of 38 NAIPs across SSA showed that decent employment and the issue of unpaid work by women were excluded. However, less than 10 percent included some measures to enhance the working conditions of women, but almost none of them addressed the issue of intra-household unequal work and income sharing that overburdens women and provides limited incomes. In addition, most NAIPs did not refer to the work conditions that may have different implications for men and women. For instance women are mostly involved in processing activities that can be dangerous (for example traditional smoking of fish exposes women to dangerous smoke and burning risks).

The following sections will first identify the specific situations and gender gaps that exist for the youth. It will also include a review of the levels of empowerment of women in the household and in the community as they are the key factors contributing to poverty gaps. Finally, the last section will examine gender gaps along the value chains and identify entry points to ensure that value chain development can help reduce poverty and offer women opportunities for better employment and increased income.

5.2 Youth employment and gender

5.2.1 Youth employment and agriculture: key facts and policy considerations

Two-thirds of Africa's population is under 35 years of age. For the period 2015–2020, the total fertility (children per woman) in Africa is, on average, 4.43. By 2030, Africa's population will reach 1.7 billion people. Demographic forecasts predict that the African labour market will have to absorb 440 million youth by 2030, with Nigeria alone having to absorb 70 million. Some 10–12 million new jobs will have to be created every year for the new labour market entrants over the next 20 years (FAO, 2018c).

Depending on the country, between **30 percent and 70 percent of the youth will continue to be in the rural areas and depending mostly on agriculture** for their livelihood. Unemployment is a major problem that youth in the African countries face. Even if they do have jobs, these are often precarious and informal jobs. As a result, they are excluded from the statistics of job seekers and are even less integrated into the social protection schemes (that is if such schemes exist). There is, therefore, an urgent need to create jobs and the agrifood systems sector offers strong opportunities (AU, NEPAD, 2016b).

Agrifood systems are increasingly recognized as strategically important for job creation and inclusive broad-based growth. Particularly in the rural areas, where there are limited education opportunities, agriculture employs about 60 percent of the young people between the ages of 15 and 34. Rapidly growing demand for food is creating new market opportunities for producers and processors and offers scope for substantial job creation (FAO, 2018c).

Several **AU commitments relate to youth and the need to empower them economically** and enhance their employability and work opportunities, including in the agricultural sector (see Box 17).



BOX 17: EXAMPLES OF POLITICAL COMMITMENTS TO YOUTH AND AGRICULTURE IN AU

- Youth empowerment is central to **AU 2063**. In its Aspiration 1, it states that “the [agricultural] sector will be modern, profitable and attractive to the continent’s youth and women.” In addition, it recognizes that “Africa’s women and youth shall play an important role as drivers of change” and that “the youth of Africa shall be socially, economically and politically empowered through the full implementation of the African Youth Charter.” Further, that attention shall be paid to “improve the skills profile, employability and entrepreneurship of especially youth and women, and closing the skills gap across the continent as well as access to finances.”
- In the **Malabo Declaration**, adopted in June 2014, the African Heads of State **committed to creating new job opportunities for at least 30 percent of the youth in agricultural value chains by 2025**.
- The determination to address youth unemployment is also evidenced by the **Declaration at the 29th ordinary Summit of the AU held in July 2017**, where 2018–2027 was declared as the “African Decade for Technical, Professional and Entrepreneurial Training and Youth Employment”.
- **African Union’s First Five-Year Priority Programme (5YPP)** on employment, poverty eradication and inclusive development includes a key priority (No. 2) on youth and women empowerment: Aspiration 6 of Agenda 2063 refers to an “... Africa where development is people-driven, unleashing the potential of its women and youth,” reinforced in Goal 14 on Gender Equality, and within the ten-year planning framework. Key Priority Action 2 on youth and women employment is also in line with the African Youth Decade Plan of Action, AU Gender Policy (2013) and African Women Decade (2010–2020), and the “Grassroots Approach to Gender Equality and Women’s Empowerment”, all of which put the employment of youth and women as a major driver and catalyst of poverty eradication and inclusive development. Employment and social protection are at the heart of demographic benefits.

The 2018 evaluation report on achievements related to the Malabo Declaration states that “reliable data on the proportion of new jobs created for the youth in agriculture are not available in most countries that have rather reported on current youth engagement in agriculture. Considerable efforts need to be made by Member States to give more opportunity for youth in agriculture and to track data on youth engagement” (AUC, 2018a).

5.2.2 Youth employment and gender

Gender gaps remain significant for the youth and it is therefore crucial to mainstream gender in youth programmes (see Figure 35).

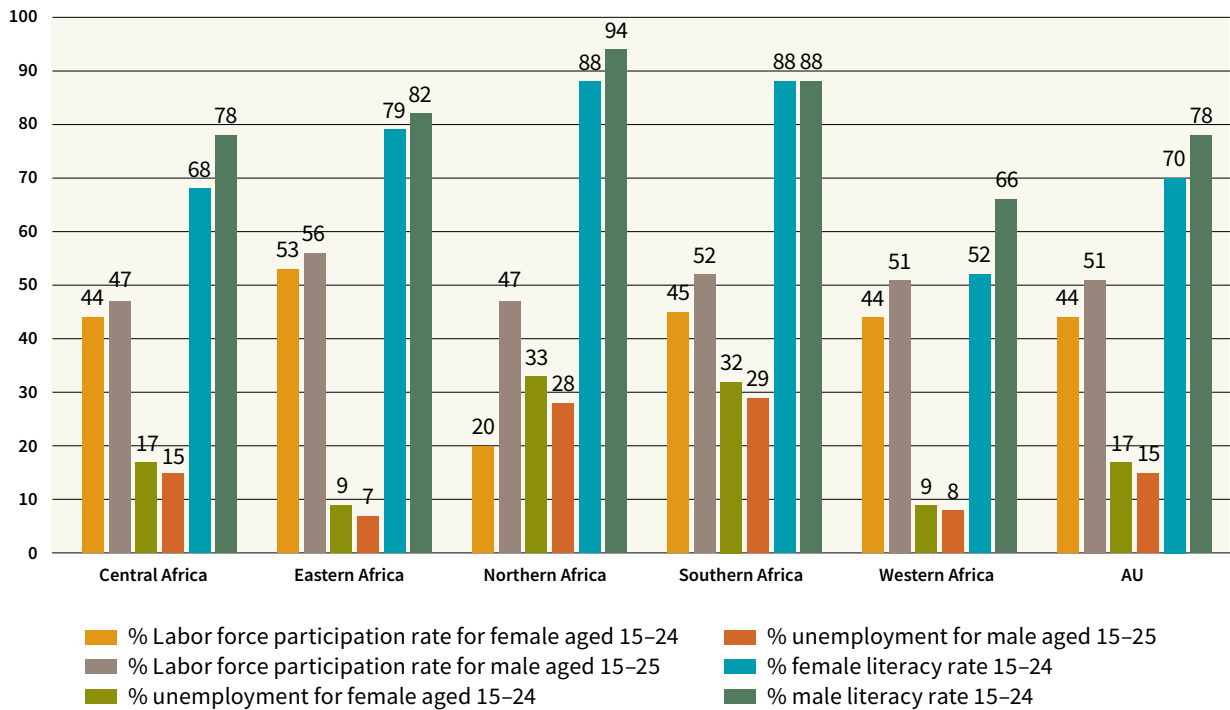
- The rate of **participation of young women in the labour markets is 44 percent as against 52 percent for men, contributing to a gender gap of 8 percent** at the AU level. In SSA, it is 10 percent to 16 percent lower than that for young men SSA, and 29 percent lower in Northern Africa (19 percent of young women participate in the labour market as against 48 percent of young men).
- **Unemployment rates are 3 percent higher** for young females than for young males at the AU level (19 percent of young females are unemployed as against 16 percent of young males). We can see very different rates in the subregions, with Northern Africa and Southern Africa having 2 to 3 times more unemployment than the other subregions. However, it reflects not only actual unemployment, but also disparities and challenges in calculating an indicator that depends on how job seekers are estimated and on national definitions of employment.
- **Gender literacy is progressing and is higher for the youth than for the general adult population. For instance**, about 70 percent of the female youth are literate in AU as against 54 percent of the female adult (see Figure 34). An even greater progress can be seen in gender parity in literacy. Indeed, the corresponding gender literacy gap is around 10 percent for the youth (70 percent of young females are literate as against 78 percent of young males); 21 percent for the adult population (54 percent adult females as against 69 percent

of adult males) It is absent or very narrow in Southern, Eastern and Northern Africa. However, there is a 13 percent gender gap in Central Africa and 21 percent in Western Africa (see Figure 35). However, several countries do not have data on gender differences in literacy: Algeria, Libya and Mauritania in Northern Africa; Equatorial Guinea in Central Africa; Somalia, South Sudan and Sudan in Eastern Africa; and Botswana and Mozambique in Southern Africa.

Female youth education and economic empowerment would reap several benefits:

- **Education of youth is paramount to their empowerment and employment, and will enable achievement** of AU 2063 objectives. Indeed, female education is closely associated with smaller family size, greater decision-making power, better employment prospects, higher incomes and improved nutrition. Yet, illiteracy rates remain close to 30 percent among females aged 15–24 in AU, and almost 50 percent in Western Africa, and certainly higher in rural areas.
- As advocated in AU 2063, **youth is a vector of change**. Mainstreaming gender in youth programmes can trigger significant positive changes towards gender equality, as youth are usually more prone to new ideas and can contribute to influencing the attitudes and practices within their families (see best practices in section 5.2.3).
- **Enabling young women to participate more effectively in agriculture translates into improved well-being of their families**, thereby building the human capital of future generations and contributing to long-term economic growth (FAO, 2018c). However, attention needs to be paid to not involve girls at too young an age and to ensure that such involvement does not constrain their access to education and other work opportunities.

Transforming education and skills development and providing employment and entrepreneurship for young women and men will be central to achieve the Malabo targets. Based on the gender gaps identified, youth employment strategies need to address **specific constraints and gaps faced by young women**.

Figure 35: Gender disparities in labour participation, unemployment and literacy in youth

Source: World Bank database, from ILO statistics, modelled estimates for unemployment and labour force participation for 2015–2017; literacy rates are compiled from UNESCO data and represent average for the period 2010–2017 as data are not always frequently available.

5.2.3 Addressing gender gaps in youth employment in agriculture: constraints and best practices

In 2018, the FAO Africa Regional Conference (ARC) identified notably the following specific issues for female youth (FAO, 2018c) in addition to the general vulnerabilities and constraints associated with youth:

- **Managing household chores** is usually gender-specific, with different requirements for boys and girls. In many contexts, young women may be occupied almost full time in taking care of the household, which hampers their access to gainful employment. In other cases, young boys may suffer more and be more involved in agricultural and pastoralist activities (for instance, the responsibility of driving the livestock to pasture all day long falls on them).
- In some settings, young women are pressurized to conform to **societal expectations** by entering into early marriages and early pregnancy, which

restricts their access to decent jobs; this is particularly true for poor women with little education (FAO, 2018c). Further, in poor HHs, young girls are also viewed as **income-earners** for the family and, in desperate situations, are sometimes sent to urban areas to be employed as heard-carriers, domestics, prostitutes, and so on.

- **Female education faces specific gender barriers.** Indeed, young rural women remain especially disadvantaged as cultural norms, gender-based violence and lack of appropriate toilets and sanitation facilities in schools impede their ability to access education and acquire employable skills. When families have limited resources, they may give priority to educating their sons rather than their daughters (FAO, 2018c).
- In addition, young women face the **same constraints as adult women in terms of access to land, financial services, markets, participation in economic cooperatives** and so on. Achieving economic and social emancipation in a traditional society is a major challenge to young people, particularly to young women (FAO, 2018c).

Various types of programmes are proving successful to enhance youth's access to employment and empowerment, and mainstreaming and targeting gender effectively. The following examples provide an orientation for further action:

- **Capacity development, education, incubation and mentorship have proven effective** to provide youth with the knowledge and skills they need to succeed in agribusiness and agriculture. The Songhai Centre in Benin carries out training, production and research by combining traditional and modern learning methods. The model has been promoted as a Centre of Excellence in Africa and is being replicated in over 14 countries across Africa (FAO, 2018c). FAO's Junior Farmer Field and Life Schools (JFFLS) methodology is designed to support vocational training, based on a combination of topics specifically tailored to the youth and to agriculture and rural settings. The scheme has been applied in over 20 countries, benefiting more than 35,000 young men and women. Gender equality is one of the pillars of JFFLS: male and female students discuss how to respond to concrete problems together and learn how to avail equal opportunities, including equal access to use and management of natural resources. Through role-playing, the youth practise scenarios in which men and women interact as equals – and by sharing the results with their families and neighbours, they contribute to improving gender relations in their communities.
- Measures to **overcome cultural resistance to girls' education** may require incentive schemes, such as stipends to families who enrol daughters in school, ensuring that schools are “safe” for girls, and preventing GBV (FAO, 2018c).
- It is important to **reinforce the voice and agency of young people in policy and the value chain**, paying attention to include young women's participation and voices. This includes the opening up of policy space, supporting the development of platforms and strengthening youth organizations, apex agribusiness bodies, and enhancing the participation of organized youth in the governance mechanisms of modern value chains. Youth empowerment is an important priority of regional producer's organizations. For instance, the latest African Cooperative Alliance included two thematic conferences: (i) the Africa Alliance Youth Conference focused on Co-operatives Promoting

Sustained, Inclusive and Sustainable Economic Growth for Youth in Africa, and (ii) the Alliance Africa Gender and Research Conference focused on Transforming Co-operatives in Africa through Research, Practice and Education (International Cooperative Alliance Africa, 2016).

- There is need to enhance opportunities for **additional and innovative financing mechanisms** for youth in agriculture, including through multisectoral coordination mechanisms and donor groups. For instance, the 2018 general assembly of the Global Donor Platform for Rural Development discussed the strategic perspectives on the role of donors and international development agencies in empowering young people in rural areas, including through advocacy and specific support to youth organizations to effectively advocate and negotiate for better policies and services (<https://www.donorplatform.org/aga.html>).
- **Decent employment policies** must be put in place that can improve the working conditions of young men and women employed in agrifood value chains. Use of modern technologies and innovations must be encouraged, while ensuring social safety nets. There is need **to promote change in customs and norms that may constrain the youth, and empower female youth through media, household and community sensitization and dialogue** (see example in Box 19).

5.3 Empowerment of women, from household to national levels

5.3.1 Concept, importance and policy consideration of women's empowerment

The UN Women glossary defines **women and girls' empowerment** as their gaining **power and control** over their own lives. It involves awareness-raising, building self-confidence, expansion of choices, increased access to and control over resources and actions to transform the structures and institutions that reinforce and perpetuate gender discrimination and inequality. This implies that, to be empowered,

they must not only have **equal capabilities** (such as education and health) and **equal access to resources and opportunities** (such as land and employment), but they must also have the agency to use these rights, capabilities, resources and opportunities to make strategic choices and decisions (such as is provided through leadership opportunities and participation in political institutions).

Women's empowerment is crucial to achieve the Malabo Goals. Indeed, recent quantitative analysis shows that **women's empowerment** in agriculture,¹⁵ notably their decision-making power, significantly **increases maize productivity** (Diirro *et al.*, 2018). For instance, an increase in women's empowerment by 1 percent led to a 6.4 percent to 16.8 percent increase in maize yield, depending on the calculation methods.

Explanatory factors include the fact that empowered women show increased use of improved technologies such as inorganic fertilizers, agronomic practices such as push-pull technology (72 percent as against 52 percent), use of pesticides and improved maize varieties.

The AU is highly **committed to women's economic and political empowerment** in keeping with the SDGs, AU 2063 and, more recently, a newly constructed CAADP indicator has been devoted to this theme. In AU, specific commitments to women's empowerment include the following: gender parity in offices and elections, recognition and valuation of unpaid care and domestic work, empowerment of women at the household level and economic empowerment in access to resources and opportunity (Box 18).



BOX 18: AU COMMITMENTS REGARDING WOMEN'S EMPOWERMENT AND PARTICIPATION

- **AU 2063, Aspiration 6 on gender equality:**
 - The African woman will be fully empowered in all spheres, with equal social, political and economic rights, including the rights to own and inherit property, sign contracts, register and manage businesses, while recognizing and valuing unpaid care work and domestic work.
 - The Africa of 2063 will have **seen full gender parity**. It will see women occupy 50 percent of elected offices in the state, regional and local bodies, and 50 percent of managerial positions in the government and the private sectors.
- The CAADP result indicator targets **20 percent of the women empowered in at least four of the following five domains:** (1) decisions about agricultural production, (2) access to and decision-making power about productive resources, (3) control of use of income, (4) leadership in the community, and (5) time allocation.
- The AU gender strategy aims explicitly to achieve gender equality and women's empowerment and includes a Pillar 1 on economic empowerment that includes attention to care work, education, access to resources and opportunities. It also has Pillar 4 on leadership, voice and visibility of women, which refers to equal participation in all leadership and decision-making positions; equal voice and power to exercise agency in the home, community and public spaces; enhanced visibility and positive image of women; and change in adverse social norms.
- **SDG 5 on gender equality** addresses (i) women's equal rights to economic resources, access to property and control of land and other forms of property, financial services, inheritance and resources; (ii) unpaid care and domestic work provided by women through public services, infrastructure, social protection policies and the promotion of shared responsibility in the household and family.

¹⁵ Measured with the Women's Empowerment in Agriculture Index (WEAI), which is also proposed in the monitoring of women's empowerment in the Malabo Reporting Framework. The indicator was measured using six variables spanning participation in groups, decisions about credit, production and income, assets controlled and workload.



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5.3.2 Women's empowerment in agriculture along the Malabo gender indicator

According to the 2018 Malabo Evaluation Report, **38.5 percent of women have already been empowered** (see definition in Box 18), that is twice the target, from around 19 percent in Central and Western Africa, 24 percent in Northern Africa and 78 percent in Eastern Africa, with pronounced disparities across countries. However, some countries reported less than 5 percent of women empowered (Benin, Burundi, Congo and Guinea) and others between 10 and 22 percent (CAR, Djibouti, Mauritania and Togo), and between 30 and 40 percent (Gabon, Madagascar and Egypt). In Burkina Faso, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Rwanda and Seychelles more than 70 percent of the women were empowered.

The predominance of outliers (very low and very high scores), which contradicts other UNDP gender indicators, seems **to indicate issues with the way the women's empowerment indicator is reported**. Indeed, among the countries and regions reporting the highest rates of women's empowerment, we do find countries that score very high in gender indicators (like Mauritius and Rwanda), and also countries that score low (such as Burkina Faso, which ranks particularly low on UNDP gender indicators).

The following subsections will further analyse the five sub-indicators of AU-CAADP women's empowerment indicator, which has been reorganized into four parts:

1. Women decision-making power in the household [includes sub-indicators of (1) decisions about agricultural production, (2) access to and decision-making power about productive resources, and (3) control of use of income].
2. Time allocation (indicator 5), which is connected to the concept of time poverty (see section 5.1.3.2), is a transversal constraint to achieve most goals.
3. GBV within households and along agricultural value chains is also further examined as they impact women empowerment as well and are high on AU gender priorities.
4. Leadership in the community (indicator 4), including participation in producers' organizations and agency in such organizations.

Finally, a few paragraphs have been devoted to review the major common factors that contribute to weak women empowerment, and provide several entry points to empower women.

5.3.3 Women decision-making power in the household and with regard to agricultural holdings

5.3.3.1 Overview of women participation in decision-making in households

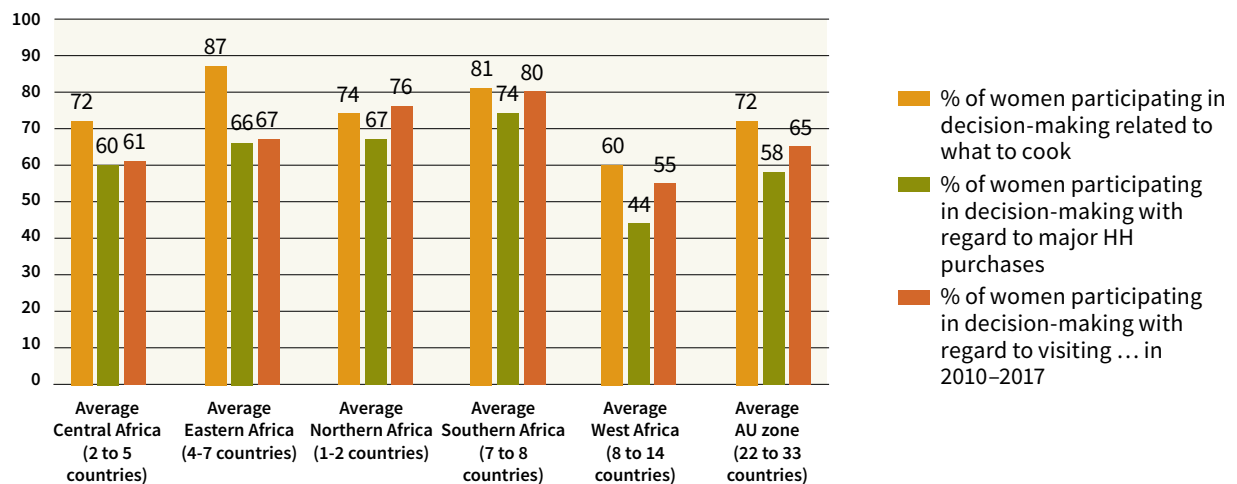
As highlighted in the AU-CAADP women's empowerment indicator and in different sections of the report, women's empowerment in decision-making at household level is key to achieve women's economic empowerment. In agriculture, it entails notably their capacity to decide on production and productive activities, access and decision about use of productive resources (including land) and the degree of women's control over the use of income.

The demographic and health surveys, which are regularly implemented in several African countries, include questions to measure the **participation of women in household decision-making**. During 2010–2017, the surveys were implemented in

around 30 countries, with only Egypt in the Northern African region. The following trends could be traced (Figure 36):

- Sixty-five percent of the women, in 28 countries (only one from Northern Africa), had a say in decision-making when it came to social visits to friends, family and relatives. The data ranged from **55 and 61 percent in Western and Central Africa, 66 percent in Eastern Africa up to 80 percent in Southern African countries**.
- **Less than 60 percent of the women participated in major decisions regarding household purchase**, with less than 40 percent in Western Africa and around 60 percent in other subregions.
- In 2003–2010,¹⁶ in a sample of 19 countries, 70 percent participated in deciding what they would cook on a daily basis. The figures for freedom to make independent cooking decisions ranged from 60 percent in Western Africa to over 80 percent in Eastern and Southern Africa.

Figure 36: Participation of women in selected household decision mechanisms from 2003–2010 to 2011–2017



Source: Author's calculations from demographic and health household surveys accessed through World Bank Gender Database, extracting latest data from the 2010–2017 dataset.

¹⁶ It seems that, over time, many countries dropped the question in their surveys; only two countries have recent data after 2010. Therefore, the author has used older data.

Most countries that have two records have shown **encouraging progress between 2003–2010 and 2011–2017, notably Southern Africa and Egypt**. We can note an average 17 percent increase in women's participation in household purchases, and over 20 percent in Egypt and Southern Africa.

We can see **wide variations across countries** not only in women's participation in decision-making, but also in of the progress achieved in the past 10 years. Such differences depend partly on **existing social norms, but are also likely to be related to differences in political efforts** in education, awareness and policy framework to address gender inequalities and enhance women's empowerment.

- Four countries in Western Africa report that only **around 20 percent of the women participate** in major household purchase decisions (Mali, Niger, Burkina Faso and Senegal), while 12 countries report that **over 65 percent of the women participate in decisions on major household purchases** (Rwanda, Kenya, Gabon, Ghana, Ethiopia, Angola, Namibia, Liberia, Madagascar, Zimbabwe, Lesotho and Egypt).
- **A few countries have managed to achieve greater progress than others in enabling women to engage in decision-making, achieving a 20-percent increase in their participation** (Ethiopia, Kenya, Lesotho, Malawi and Egypt) within the past 10 years. However, there are a few countries that have not made any progress at all (Mali, Burkina Faso, Guinea).

5.3.3.2 Specificities of family farm decision-making and women's empowerment

When it comes to the agricultural sectors, most national gender profiles indicate that, traditionally, **agricultural holdings are managed and operated by the head of the household, who is mostly a male and who often adopts a traditional patriarchal style of functioning**, taking all major decisions. Burundi's NAIP notes "despite all her responsibilities, the woman, the main producer, does not control the productive resources and make decisions about the distribution of family resources." To sum up the main points of the document:

- **Farm management and decision-making is linked to the level of ownership of land resources** (see section 4.2.2). On family farms, male and female participation is often equal on family land, but management rests generally with the farm manager, who decides on resource allocations, time schedules, sharing of harvest and income, and investments to be made. On their personal land, women may have greater decision-making power with regard to management, but will first have to work on the farm.
- **Processing activities** are most often under the control of men, who provide the raw material (for instance the maize or paddy to be processed) and often control the use of income.
- Women **cannot freely sell their produce**. Further, personal livestock and productive assets of women are not fully considered their own. In fact, it is often considered a coping mechanism – a household saving that is first sold in case of a crisis (see also section 4.2.1.1).
- Women's weak decision-making power also relates to their **mobility**, as often they do not have the freedom to venture out of the house alone and attend trainings, participate in producers' organization meetings or undertake specific activities.
- Another constraint is that women cannot independently decide whether they want to open a bank account and initiate economic activities.

However, an **intra-household survey studying decision-making has found that it is a somewhat complex issue, with different household members, including women, being responsible for different aspects of the operation of the farm. Therefore, focusing merely on the sex of the household head may underestimate the women's role in decision-making (FAO, 2015c)**. The decision-making field test conducted by GSARS in Uganda revealed that the sex of the head of the holding (holder) was assumed to be male unless a male was not present, leading to estimate that 71 percent of the holders in the sample were male and 29 percent were female. However, according to the holders' responses, in the most recent agricultural season, both men and women were primary decision-makers in agricultural activities in 67 percent of the holdings.

In 19 percent of the holdings, women were the only primary decision-makers across all activities, and in 11 percent of the holdings, men were the only primary decision-makers across all activities. Overall, in 86 percent of the holdings, women were the primary decision-makers, in at least one agricultural activity, either exclusively or jointly with men and, in 78 percent of the holdings, men were the primary decision-makers (GSARS, 2017). Following such surveys, the GSARS guidelines on sex-disaggregated data collection provides recommendations to capture the complex decision-making process within the household more efficiently to enable better estimation of women's roles and decision-making powers (GSARS, 2018).

5.3.3.3 Increasing feminization of household

A growing number of households are headed by women. In fact, Africa-wide, 26 percent of all households are currently headed by women, comprising 21 percent of Africa's population, from 43 percent in Southern Africa down to around 20 percent in Western Africa (World Bank, 2015, see also section 5.1). In the countries sampled, FHHs now represent over 20 percent of the households and their proportion has increased from 12 percent to 22 percent in about 10 years. Most Central African gender profiles reported increasing feminization of household heads, with a higher rate in urban areas when compared to rural areas and greater increases in countries in conflict or post-conflict situations (see Table 7 below).

“Controlling for other factors, higher GDP is associated with lower female headship. The apparent paradox that female headship has been rising during a period of economic growth is explained by the fact that other things are changing across Africa. Changes in demographic and population characteristics, social norms, education, and the nature of the family all appear to be encouraging female headship” (World Bank, 2015). Wage earning, schooling and access to one's own income through trade seem to contribute to the emergence of female heads of households. Further, the increase in the number of FHHs can also be a sign of economic and political crisis, signalling that men are migrating or leaving. For instance, Burundi's NAIP notes “the number of female-headed households increases with the migration of men, conflict and AIDS.”

5.3.4 Gender-based violence (GBV) and women empowerment from household to society level

5.3.4.1 Context and policy consideration

Gender-based violence is closely linked to and reinforces weak women's agency from household to community level. It impacts, directly and indirectly, gender inequalities in agricultural production and food security. Disasters **and conflicts tend to increase GBV**. Further, insecurity and specific GBV on the roads is often worse for

Table 7: Share of FHHs in SSA countries

| Region | Country | Year 1 | % female | Year 2 | % female | Evolution |
|--------|-----------------------|-----------|----------|-----------|----------|-----------|
| WA | Senegal | 1998–1999 | 9% | 2013 | 7% | –23% |
| WA | The Gambia | 2001–2002 | 8% | 2011–2012 | 9% | 8% |
| EA | Tanzania | 2002 | 20% | 2008 | 20% | 3% |
| EA | Uganda | 1991 | 16% | 2008–2009 | 21% | 29% |
| WA | Côte d'Ivoire | 2001 | 10% | 2017 | 22% | 116% |
| CA | Cameroon | 1991 | 18% | 2007 | 26% | 43% |
| CA | Congo | 1990 | 9% | 2014/15 | 29% | 222% |
| SA | Lesotho | 1999–2000 | 31% | 2009 | 35% | 12% |
| CA | Sao Tome and Principe | 2001 | 32% | 2012 | 41% | 29% |

Source: FAO Land and Gender Database, updated with CGA data and more recently updated census report available on the FAO census website.

women and has a direct impact on their mobility and capacity to carry out activities, for instance in trade activities.

GBV remains high in most African countries. “Africa has an alarming incidence of violence against women, fuelled mostly by social norms around women’s inferiority” (UNDP, 2016). The AU gender strategy highlights that “violence against women and related harmful traditional practices are symptomatic of the accepted social norms in many countries and communities: The spectrum of violence affecting women across Africa includes domestic violence, rape, female genital mutilation (FGM), intimidation and additional threats to women’s personal security in periods of war and conflict.¹⁷ Such violence is exacerbated in conditions of conflict. Human security and bodily integrity for women is critical for the attainment of gender equality.”

Eliminating GBV is also high on the AU agenda:

- AU 2063 aspires that “Africa shall be free from armed conflict, terrorism, extremism, intolerance and gender-based violence, which are major threats to human security, peace and development.”
- The pillar 2 of AU gender strategy focusses on dignity, security and resilience and emphasizes largely the importance of addressing GBV.
- SDG 5 includes a target to “eliminate all forms of violence against all women and girls in the public and private spheres, including trafficking and sexual and other types of exploitation.”
- CEDAW has reinforced its recommendations regarding GBV in its General Recommendation No. 35 adopted in 2017. “Gender-based violence against women constitutes discrimination against women under Article 1 and therefore engages all of the obligations in the Convention. Overarching obligation of states parties is to pursue, by all appropriate means and without delay, a policy of eliminating discrimination against women, including gender-based violence against women. This is an obligation of an immediate nature; delays cannot be justified on any grounds, including on economic, cultural or religious grounds.”

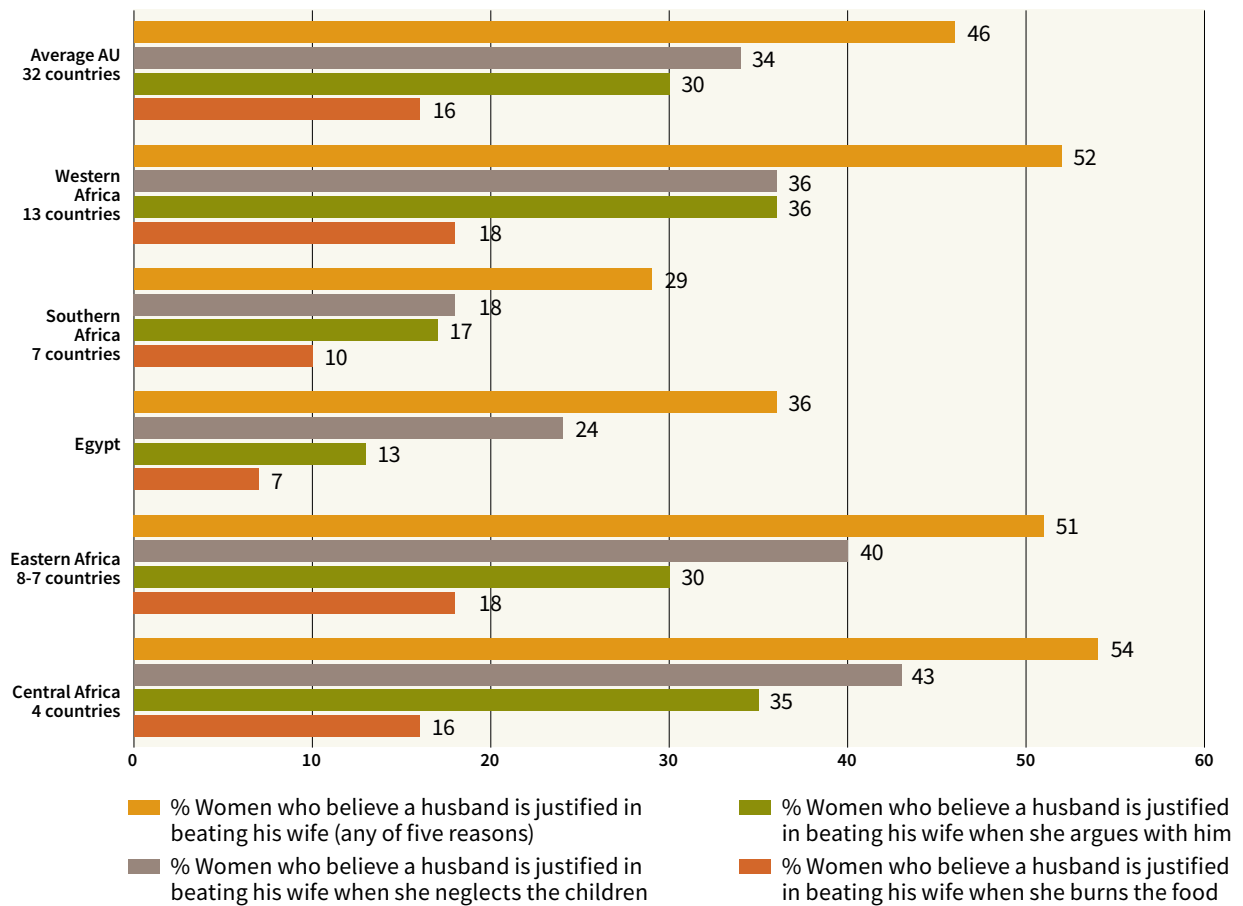
5.3.4.2 Women’s empowerment and social acceptance of domestic violence

Social acceptance of domestic violence has direct repercussions on women’s empowerment at the household level and in the family farm that is managed at this level as well. Indeed, socially accepted GBV limits women’s empowerment.

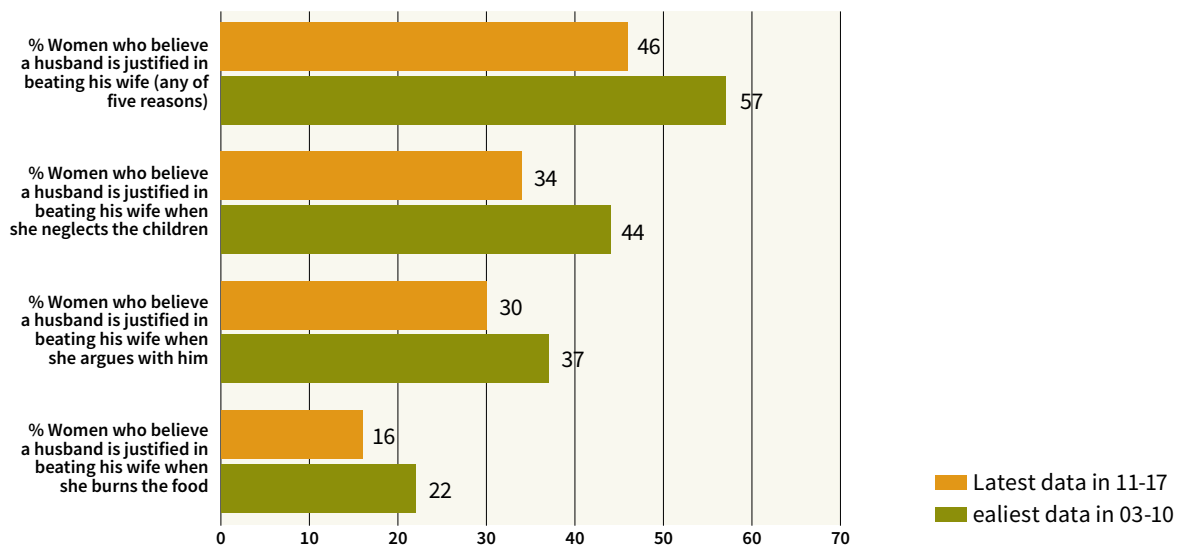
The demographic and health surveys include questions to understand social norms around domestic GBV. The analysis of data from 32 countries during 2011–2017 show the following (see Figure 37 and Figure 38):

- Forty-six percent of the women find it **normal that husband should beat their wives/partners** for any of the following five standardized reasons: burning food, arguing, neglecting children, refusal of sex and going out without permission. The proportion ranges between 50 percent and 58 percent in Western, Eastern and Central Africa, and is only lower at 29 percent in Southern Africa. Such a degree of social acceptance of violence is directly connected to women disempowerment at the household level as it contributes to reinforcing men’s power over decision-making and limiting women’s freedom. Social acceptance of domestic violence depends on the **reasons for beating the spouse, with variations across regions**. It is the lowest when it comes to the burning of food (around 16 percent at the AU level, varying from 7 percent in Egypt to 18 percent in Western Africa); whereas it appears to be the highest when it comes to neglect of children (34 percent at the AU level, from 18 percent in Southern Africa up to 40 percent and 43 percent in Eastern and Central Africa, respectively). The social acceptance of beating in case of the wife being argumentative worsens the power of women in terms of decision-making. Yet, 30 percent of the women consider that domestic violence is justified if they are argumentative, which is only 4 percent less than in the case of neglect of children. The proportion is the lowest in Egypt (13 percent) and Southern Africa (17 percent) and the highest in Western and Central Africa (around 35–36 percent).

¹⁷ UNDP Africa Report, 2016

Figure 37: Women's acceptance of domestic violence in households (2011–2017)

Source: Author's calculations from demographic and health household surveys accessed through the World Bank Gender Database, extracting the latest data from 2010–2017 dataset.

Figure 38: Evolution of women's acceptance of domestic violence from 2003–2010 to 2011–2017

Source: Author's calculations from demographic and health household surveys accessed through the World Bank Gender Database, extracting the latest data from 2010–2017 dataset.

- Social acceptance of domestic violence **has significantly decreased** by 20 to 30 percent since 2003–2010, with notably the highest decrease in Egypt (66 percent for burning food and being argumentative) and in Southern Africa (by 32 to 36 percent for all reasons).

We can observe strong differences across countries regarding social acceptance of spouse violence during the past years. Eight out of the 32 countries have over 60 percent of the women considering such spouse violence as normal (Chad, DRC and Mali above 70 percent and Guinea above 90 percent). However, seven countries have less than 30 percent of the women accepting such violence in similar regions, Malawi having the lowest social acceptance (16 percent), followed by Sao Tome and Principe, Eswatini and Mozambique around 20 percent, and Benin, Togo and Ghana around 27 percent. These countries have also witnessed the highest decrease in social acceptance of spouse violence, with above 40 percent decrease in Ghana, Togo, Benin, Malawi and 61 percent in Mozambique. A similar sharp decrease was observed in Nigeria and Kenya (38 percent), and Egypt, Lesotho, Liberia and Sierra Leone (30 percent). However, three of the countries with high social acceptance of violence saw an increase or stagnation in such social acceptance (Chad, Mali and Guinea).

5.3.4.3 GBV across agricultural value chains

Incidence and factors contributing to GBV in agricultural value chain

Comparable data on incidence of GBV in agribusinesses at a global scale is limited; however, some self-reported data exists from studies in different geographic contexts.¹⁸ In Kenya, among 40 women cut-flower industry workers, 90 percent perceived sexual violence and harassment as the biggest challenges they face (Jacobs *et al.*, 2015). A recent paper summarizes information from a synthesis of research conducted on sexual violence and harassment in four commercial agriculture contexts: one in Africa, one in Asia, and two in Latin America (Henry and Adams, 2018). The paper concludes that

“sexual violence and harassment among commercial agricultural workers is widespread, perhaps even pervasive” in the examined regions. The banana link website¹⁹ highlights that “sexual harassment in the workplace is commonplace and justified by some male banana and pineapple producers as ‘part of their culture’”.

The studies indicate that various factors contribute to GBV:

- On one hand, as analysed in earlier chapters, women often have **informal jobs and short-term contracts**. The study highlights that “non-standard forms of work, including temporary work and informal work, are key factors in creating power differentials for perpetrators to carry out sexual violence and harassment against women workers.” For example, in the cut-flower industry, in Kenya, nearly 65 percent of the women are casual labourers without contracts (Barrientos, 2014). Therefore, their day-to-day employment is determined by a supervisor, a position more often held by men than women. Women have reported that “men will abuse that position of power; if women refuse sexual advances from supervisors or report the incidents, they could face increased workload, wage reduction or dismissal.”
- “Sexual violence and harassment are also worse when combined with cultural norms that tend to tolerate such activities.”
- “Agricultural workers’ vulnerability to sexual harassment is compounded by **limited labour law coverage and poor labour inspection services** extending to agricultural workers.”
- Finally, in relation to insufficient legal framework to eliminate GBV, “employers of agricultural workers are also found to lack effective **preventative policies and practices**”.
- The recent post on the agrilink website (see footnote 22) reviews several factors that increase the likelihood of women experiencing GBV, including lower education and literacy, language barrier and lack of knowledge of their rights and

¹⁸ This part builds among others on a recent post produced as a collaborative effort of the Feed the Future Enabling Environment for Food Security project and Cultural Practice, LLC. <https://www.agrilinks.org/post/womens-work-agribusinesses-and-gender-based-violence-what-do-we-know>.

¹⁹ <http://www.bananalink.org.uk/gender-equity-banana-trade>

procedures to report GBV. Younger women tend to be more vulnerable; further, women working in places where they are isolated from other workers (such as fields, greenhouses and packing houses) are also more vulnerable.

5.3.4.4 Ways of addressing GBV from the domestic sphere to value chains

Options to address GBV includes the need to collect more data on the topic, to reinforce women's education and knowledge of GBV and their rights,

creating safer and easier procedures to report on GBV and reinforce their collective capacities and strengthen their voice on the topic. It is also important to train institutions and agribusiness companies to understand and address GBV and transform the legal, policy and cultural environments. **Promoting community dialogue and empowering collective organizations** to integrate such concerns and promote social and legal transformations appear to be key.



BOX 19: EXAMPLES OF HOW GBV HAS BEEN ADDRESSED IN THE COMMUNITY AND IN VALUE CHAINS

For instance, FAO supports Dimitra clubs, a **gender-sensitive participatory communication** approach to promote information-sharing and various levels of community dialogue. GBV, early marriages and peace are often some of the topics chosen. For instance, in the Democratic Republic of Congo, clubs have been formed in South Kivu and Katanga. Totally, 16 clubs were established in 2011 in partnership with the local NGOs. In addition to agricultural and nutritional themes, the clubs often address the issues of women's access to local decision-making, the empowerment of women within households and the sharing of work time, and sexual/domestic violence. Among the outcomes mentioned are women's confidence-building and increased participation in decision-making and improvements in their position in communities. "The clubs understand the interest of opening up the discussion, without discrimination". The discussions involved tackling difficult issues such as marital rape, encouraging traditional leaders and the population who "thought that rape, perceived as a shame by the family of the raped woman, was not a shame, let alone a crime" to change their perspective (FAO, 2011a).

Banana link is a not-for-profit cooperative, which works for fair and sustainable banana and pineapple trade.²⁰ They raise awareness of the poor living and working conditions faced by plantation workers and small producers in **Latin America, Africa and the Caribbean**. They have a gender strategy that includes fighting against sexual harassment in the workplace as it is considered frequent and sometimes socially acceptable as "part of the culture". Their strategy notably aims to build the capacity of trade unions in producer countries to represent the demands of workers, including issues related to women's freedom from sexual harassment and support for the education and training of workers and their representatives on international labour rights, occupational health and safety, gender, and environmental issues. These cooperatives are active in Cameroon and Ghana, and support the national workers union to educate and empower workers and their unions to undertake value chain studies and negotiate living wages and improved working conditions on banana and pineapple plantations. In Honduras, for example, trade unions have successfully fought to introduce a new law against domestic violence and are campaigning to raise women's awareness of the law and their rights. The Regional Coordinating Body of Latin American Banana & Agro-industrial Product Unions (COLSIBA) campaigns to end sexual harassment of women were, for example, successful in getting Chiquita to introduce the first sexual harassment policy in the Latin American banana sector.

²⁰ <http://www.bananalink.org.uk/gender-equity-banana-trade>

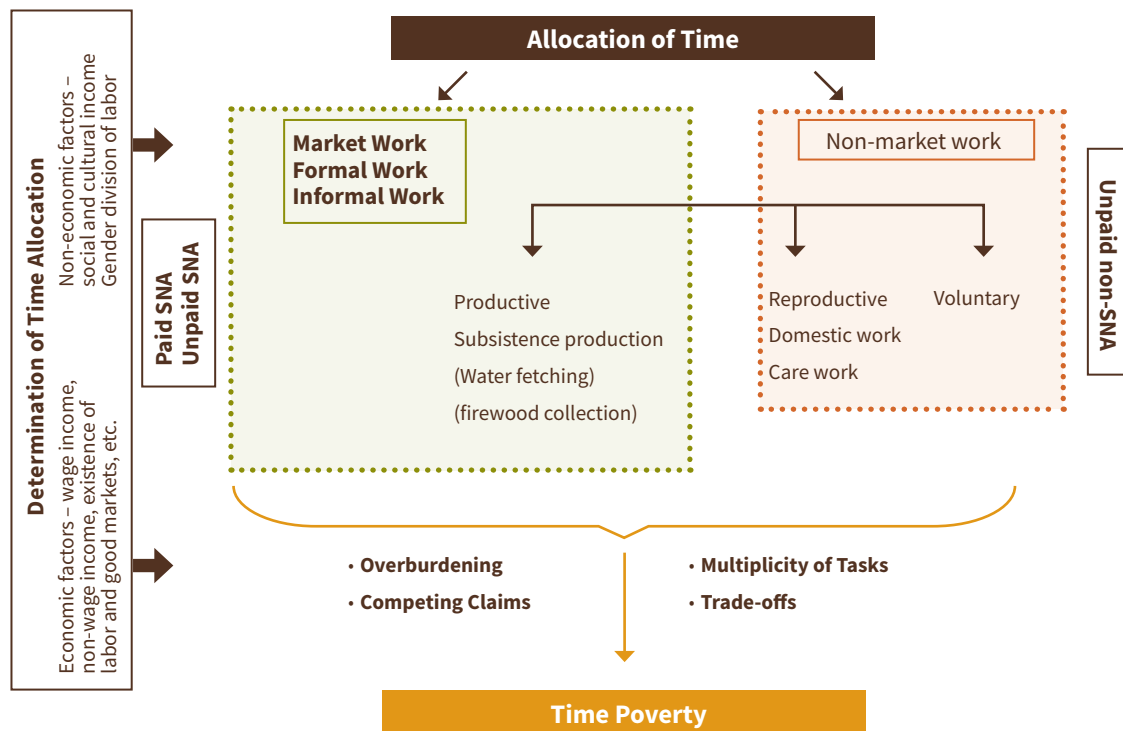
5.3.5 Women and time allocation: triple work burden, weak rural infrastructure and implications for agricultural productivity and time poverty

The 2006 World Bank report on Gender, Time Use, and Poverty in SSA provided a framework that is reproduced below (Figure 39) and illustrates **how individual time-use can be classified and contributes differently to economic indicators** (Blackden and Wodon, 2006). As illustrated in Figure 39, individuals' time-use can be broadly classified as market work and non-market work. Production of goods and services for the market is grouped under market economy activities and includes both formal and informal employment, and is counted in the system of national account (SNA) and in calculation of GDP (and therefore the gross national income analysed here). The main activities that are included in the non-market or household economy are subsistence production, reproductive work, and volunteer work.

As used here, subsistence production concerns production of goods for home use that, in principle, could be marketed, such as food, clothing, soft furnishings pottery, and housing. Reproductive work includes activities such as preparing meals, laundry, cleaning, household maintenance, and personal care. Voluntary community work comprises unpaid activity in community and civic associations, such as self-help groups of mothers organizing to run a soup kitchen or to secure improvements in neighbourhood safety (Blackden and Wodon, 2006).

In conjunction with women's weak empowerment in decision-making within the household (see section 5.3.1), the **distribution of productive and reproductive tasks is often unfavourable to women. Consequently, they spend a major share of their time on unpaid domestic and care work within the household, or community care work, which can limit their productive activities and put their health and care capacities at risk** (AfDB, 2014; FAO, 2015).

Figure 39: Framework for analysing time use and time poverty in SSA



Source: Blackden and Wodon, 2006.

- Families traditionally give women the responsibility for **family food security**. Rural women take care of their own production and processing activities and help their husbands on family farms. Such activities are often unpaid and not accounted for in national accounts. The female/male ratio in productive activities that are not part of national accounts is as high as 4.7 percent in Madagascar and 3.0 percent in South Africa.
- **In addition to agricultural and income activities, women are responsible for most domestic and reproductive unpaid tasks** that add to their workload when compared to men. Women cook, fetch water and fuelwood, clean and wash the clothes for the entire family. The time-use analysis in nine AU countries (see Table 8) reveals that women spend, on average, between 15 percent and 22 percent of their time on such tasks (Malawi being an exception with less than 9 percent). When it comes to men, they spend only between 1 percent and 9 percent of their time on such tasks, which is **3 to 7 times less than women. Differences can be seen across countries – the gap is between 7 and 10 times in Mali, Morocco, Tunisia and Algeria, while it is less than three times in South Africa and Ethiopia, where men spend between 6.7 percent and 8.7 percent, respectively, of their time on such tasks.**
- As a result, women's **workdays are up to 50 percent longer** than men's, spending up to 15–16 hours a day working in rural developing countries.

In addition to the work burden, women also face **constraints in accessing key services, notably water and energy**. Indeed, in rural areas, water

and fuelwood collection account for particularly heavy work because of **the distances that have to be covered for water and fuel wood collection**. In Western Africa, studies showed that rural women spend up to two to four hours a day on such tasks, mostly walking and carrying water and fuelwood on their heads. Women spend five hours a week to collect fuelwood in Tanzania and 13 hours in Zambia (FAO forest website). In Mozambique, rural Senegal, and Uganda, women spend, on average, 15–17 hours per week collecting water, while one estimate suggests that some **40 billion hours a year are spent collecting water in SSA** – work hours of the entire workforce of France for one year (UN women, 2015). It is unfair that women and girls should spend so many hours to collect fuelwood and water!



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Table 8: Proportion of time spent on unpaid domestic and care work (percentage of 24-hour day)

| | Ethiopia | Tanzania | Algeria | Morocco | Tunisia | Malawi | South Africa | Ghana | Mali |
|---------------|----------|----------|---------|---------|---------|--------|--------------|-------|------|
| female | 22.08 | 16.53 | 22.08 | 20.83 | 22 | 8.70 | 15.9 | 15.5 | 20 |
| male | 8.68 | 4.44 | 3.75 | 2.99 | 2.71 | 1.25 | 6.74 | 4.6 | 2.5 |

Source: World Bank Gender Database, based on compilation of national statistical offices or national database and publications compiled by United Nations Statistics Division. As the data is scarce for the earlier periods, only the latest data available (2005–2015) have been taken into consideration.

5.3.6 Women leadership and voice in rural institutions and policy decision-making

Collective rural organizations have a key role to play to both facilitate access to market (inputs, credit and marketing), advisory and research services as well as to influence policy and programme decision mechanisms. Women's participation and voice in such organizations is crucial to effectively mainstream gender across agricultural interventions. Yet the review of national gender profiles shows gender gaps:

- **Producer organizations combine mixed groups and female groups, with predominance of males** in general but variations across countries. A few countries offered sex-disaggregated data showing that women's participation is limited: 15 percent in Niger, 17 percent in cooperatives in Benin (40 percent in youth organizations), and 30 percent in Togo. Other countries reported higher women participation (45 percent in Eswatini, 48 percent in Burkina Faso, 49 percent

in Rwanda, 60 percent in Gabon, and 70 percent in Zambia). Morocco and Togo both reported that 14 percent of their cooperatives are women's cooperatives (developed by women to address women-specific activities and issues).

- Several countries reported **lower woman's participation in decision-making**. For instance, the Ethiopian report says that, *"traditionally, women are not given leadership roles and they are not taken seriously as decision-makers."* Men are five times more likely than women are to hold a leadership position within the cooperative. About 3 percent of the women who are in cooperatives hold such positions, while 15 percent of male cooperative members have some leadership roles within the cooperatives. Similarly, most reports quote that women hold less than 25 percent of the executive posts (Benin, Burkina Faso, Niger, Rwanda). However, there are exceptions, like in Gabon and Eswatini, where national cooperatives are managed mostly by women and the Panafrican Farmers' Organization, which had a woman president. The Morocco gender profile

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reports the issue of superficial posts. Though women hold positions of power to meet the gender quota standards, men take the decisions.

The following constraints hamper effective women's participation in policy-making:

- Social norms and prejudices regarding women's participation and leadership, as well as their mobility
- Lower education of women and lack of experience and leadership training in mixed context
- Cooperatives demand a lot of time for meetings, which women do not have (see section 5.3.3)
- The lack of technical and financial resources for rural institutions to reinforce women's capacities to influence policy (generate knowledge, gender policy analysis, support cost of consultation efforts and participation, leadership training and so on) as well as to properly mainstream gender into the activities of cooperatives
- Insufficient space for the participation of women's organizations in policy and various governance mechanisms in the agricultural and rural sectors

However, across the region, there have been **several efforts to enhance women's participation in producers' organizations at all levels and strengthen their voice.**

- Several national **producers' organizations have developed gender strategies** with specific targets in budget (20 percent budget for women in FUPRO in Benin) and in participation (25 percent of women representation in the local council in Niger and 20 percent in Benin). The 2015 survey shows that women's participation in cooperatives has increased over the past 20 years, with 132 percent increase in Uganda's agricultural cooperatives, and other positive markers in Ethiopia, Tanzania and South Africa (ICA, 2016).
- Several countries have adopted **laws and frameworks to enhance women's participation** in various governance mechanisms. In Liberia, the government is seeking to adopt a bill to ensure 30 percent women participation at all levels of decision-making. In The Gambia, the **local government act institutionalizes decentralized**

and inclusive governance, calling for **equal representation of women and men in the Village Development Committees**, which is the entry point for all development programmes into the communities.

- **Sex-disaggregated data** on membership are frequently available for the main national organizations and can help accountability to target gender in participation, as well as facilitate awareness and dialogue on eventual gaps. Several countries reported the development of **women's colleges or women's associations** to strengthen the voice of women in mixed producers' organizations (Senegal and Guinea with a college, Benin, Togo, Senegal, The Gambia, Liberia and Sierra Leone with specific women farmers' association etc.). Such women colleges are also available in all pan-African farmers' apex.
- **Regional investment plans have most often integrated outputs and activities to strengthen farmer's organizations and facilitate their participation in policy. Several countries have specific services** for rural women to strengthen women's groups, advocate for women's participation in policy planning, and also implement specific economic empowerment programmes for women.

5.3.7 Factors contributing to weak empowerment at the household level and examples of approaches to address it

5.3.7.1 Factors contributing to women's weak empowerment

The main factors contributing to women's low empowerment at the household level include the following:

Low women's empowerment at the household level notably relates to prevailing patriarchal norms, sex-discriminatory legal framework as well as weak economic empowerment of women.

Patriarchal norms tend to prevail in most African regions. The AU gender strategy defines patriarchy as the "traditional form of organizing society which often lies at the root of gender inequality.



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According to this kind of social system, men, or what is considered masculine, is accorded more importance than women, or what is considered feminine. Traditionally, societies have been organized in such a way that property, residence, and descent, as well as decision-making regarding most areas of life, have been the domain of men. This is often based on appeals to biological reasoning (women are more naturally suited to be caregivers, for example) and continues to underlie many kinds of gender discrimination” (AUC, 2018b).

Patriarchy shapes gender roles and responsibilities, imposing a heavy workload on women and their low participation in household decision-making. The **responsibility of the head of the household is usually attributed to men**, regardless of the duties and responsibilities devolved to women. In 2014, “all 51 national reviews on the implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action submitted to United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (UNECA) recognized that conservative gender norms, based on long-standing stereotypes, continue to

prevent the full realization of women’s rights on the continent” (UNDP, 2016). “According to the 2015 Afrobarometer survey, one quarter of Africans do not embrace the concept of gender equality, i.e. they disagreed or strongly disagreed with the fundamental notion of equal rights between men and women” (UNDP, 2016).

Despite progress in removing gender discrimination in legal frameworks, **patriarchal management is still endorsed in several national legislations, and contributes to reinforcing women’s weak empowerment**. Close to half of all SSA countries designate the husband as the head of the household, restricting the legal status of married women. As of 2014, up to 15 percent of the SSA countries limited women’s choice of the matrimonial home, and up to 30 percent restricted married women’s exercise of trades and professions (AfDB, 2014). Some also still require women to seek men’s approval to open accounts. The legal status of the family farm often recognizes patriarchal management of the farm under the household head and seldom provides sufficient recognition and rights to the contributing spouse and family workers (Box 21).

Women’s agency and economic empowerment are closely connected to gender gaps in productive resources ownership and tenure rights, including land (see section 4.2.2).

Conclusion

Even if progressive trends can be observed in several countries, all the reports identify that weak women’s agency in the household is a transversal constraint to economic empowerment. It limits their access to and use of productive resources (land, credit, animal), their freedom to engage in activities, and their mobility, which is key to access services, market, training and participate in producers’ organizations, governance and programmes. Finally, it also usually leads to unequal share of income and limited capacity to invest in their own productive activities. Women’s weak empowerment at the household level is also closely connected to unfavourable share of tasks within the household, which contributes to women’s triple burden and time poverty, as analysed in section 5.3.5. Moreover, these disempowering factors across all levels of female participation in food systems are exacerbated by GBV.

5.3.7.2 Entry points to address women's weak empowerment at the household level

The AU and several countries are trying to implement gender-transformative approaches that can address social change and encourage more gender-balanced intra-household dynamics **with a positive impact on productive activities**. Different entry points can be used to enhance women's empowerment at the household level (see Box 20).

- It is important to **highlight the issue of women's triple burden and weak participation in decision-making within the household**.

Regular implementation of the time-use survey can contribute to bring evidence and awareness on gender inequality in time-use and its implication on productivity. Attention must be paid to integrate seasonality, as time-use will vary much across seasons. In addition, surveys could seek to measure women's participation in the management of the farm.

- **Household and community approaches** will help families identify and discuss weak women empowerment and its impact on income and food security.



BOX 20: EXAMPLES OF HOUSEHOLD AND COMMUNITY APPROACHES TO EMPOWER WOMEN AT THE HOUSEHOLD LEVEL

Household methodologies rely on the analysis of intra-household dynamics and the of a shared vision of the future to help men and women in the household to recognize gender inequalities and correct the imbalance. To date, more than 100,000 people have benefited from this methodology in IFAD-supported programmes in Malawi, Nigeria, Rwanda, Sierra Leone and Uganda (IFAD, 2017). Participants report impact on overall livelihoods and the access of household members to these resources, improving the sustainability and resilience of their livelihoods to climate change and other shocks. **Participatory decision-making and shared workloads increase agricultural productivity, and household members (both men and women) can engage in value chains**. Men become more involved in household chores, women have a greater say in household decision-making, and there is more transparency in the use of resources and benefits. Further, there is better food and nutrition security, increased incomes, joint investments in land and business, better school attendance of children and there is less GBV and alcohol consumption.

FAO's Dimitra radio listeners clubs have proven effective to support dialogue between men and women on various topics, including time constraints, leading to changes in attitude and behaviour. The 1 200 active Dimitra clubs in SSA have significantly improved rural women's access to decision-making at the local level. It is estimated that more than 300 000 rural women and men will benefit directly from the clubs and the changes they bring to their communities (FAO, 2015a).

Morocco has initiated action to transform social norms and stereotypes and to promote gender equality and women's empowerment. For instance, the government is promoting **gender-sensitive media** through its national radio and television organizations. Framework and projects include fight against discrimination, gender stereotypes and the promotion of gender equality. Similarly, the AU new gender strategy includes a **component on media** to develop ways of fighting gender prejudice and promote women's empowerment.

The GSARS has developed **guidelines to support countries to collect sex-disaggregated data** in their national surveys. It includes approaches to better assess women participation in decision-making and provides methods to develop time-use surveys (GSARS, 2017).

- Education systems and media can be used to bring about a change in mindsets so that people discard customs and norms that hamper women's empowerment. Further, they can also be used to highlight women's achievements.
- Another important vector of change includes the **evolution of legal and business frameworks** to remove remaining discriminations (for example barriers to women registering their businesses, to access credit, to move and so on). In agriculture, one can provide formal recognition to the family farm, recognizing that both men and women can be the head of the farm. Further, one can acknowledge the contributing family workers, and promote joint ownership and management of the farm between spouses.

Beyond family farming, many advancements are required in work and labour legislation and organization to ensure decent work for women. Finally, in addition to improving the legal framework, there is need to build workers' awareness on such rights and increase their capacities to claim and enforce such rights through individual and collective organizations (see example in Box 21).

Finally, development of **specific gender-sensitive labour technologies and improvement of rural infrastructures and services also offers great potential:**

- Several initiatives to develop gender-sensitive labour-saving technologies and practices have proven effective in decreasing women's work



BOX 21: FAMILY FARM STATUS AND GENDER

Just as efforts have been taken to make the **land legal framework more gender sensitive**, greater attention could be paid to **recognize the place of women within the family farm. Further, they should have joint ownership over the farm, and enjoy management and economic rights** (see section 4.2.2).

Mali, for instance, has developed a detailed legal status for the family farm, recognizing that the head of the farm can be male or female, and has provided a status for the spouse and the contributing family workers. However, only one head is recognized and spouses are disallowed to jointly operate the farm (*LOI N° 2011-040/ du 15 juillet 2011 portant statut des exploitations et des exploitants agricoles*. Journal officiel du Mali 1375. Excerpt available at <http://extwprlegs1.fao.org/docs/pdf/mli152243.pdf>).

Banana Link, a not-for-profit cooperative, which works for fair and sustainable banana and pineapple trade in Latin America, Caribbeans and Africa has a gender strategy which emphasises on actions to improve the legal environment and reinforce workers' capacity to enforce it. They include support for advocacy to improve labour legislation, particularly to protect women against sexual harassment and discrimination, and health and safety risks; reinforce workers' union capacity to integrate gender into the collective bargaining and framework agreements with banana companies; and build the skills of women activists to play a greater role within their unions and in social dialogue. For instance, educational workshops in Cameroon have been very effective in increasing workers' awareness of their labour rights: in 2013, only one in four workers knew their rights, but by the end of the project, two-thirds of the workers could name at least one of their rights at work. Wage increases have been secured through agricultural negotiations, resulting in the National Minimum Wage and National Collective Agreement. Hundreds of union representatives have participated in education training sessions, resulting in improved social dialogue and securing improved conditions, including a 48 percent reduction in pro-rata deductions from wages.²¹

²¹ <http://www.bananalink.org.uk/gender-equity-banana-trade>

burden (for instance, improved cooking stoves, women adapted tools, and practices combining several activities together) (FAO, 2015a). Reducing such time constraints is also identified among priority interventions in gender-sensitive emergency and resilience initiative (example of South Sudan case study in Box 28).

- Improved **rural infrastructure (water, energy, and road), rural services (child and elderly care services) and technologies** (supporting farming and processing, and household chores) also help decrease the work burden of women. For instance, Morocco's gender profile highlighted that increased access to drinking water (from 14 percent in 1994 to 95 percent recently) has reduced women's water chores by 50 to 90 percent.

5.4 Inclusive value chains, public–private partnership and gender

Inclusive and dynamic value chains have a key role to play to enhance employment and income opportunities for women and youth. Recent data shows that agricultural production contributes to 24 percent of the GDP in SSA, while agribusiness input supply, processing, marketing and retailing contributes with another 20 percent of the GDP, and 10 percent to the region's exports (World Bank, 2013). The sector hosts a largely untapped reservoir of employment

opportunities as the demand for food is increasing due to growing population, urbanization and rising household income. It is estimated that 56 percent of the Africa's population will be urban by 2050. This rapidly growing demand creates opportunities for suppliers. In addition, beyond farm jobs, there is a significant potential for job creation in rural non-farm economic activities around food value chains linked to sustainable agriculture, agribusiness development and related support services. Opportunities could be promoted in the enterprises that provide inputs and services to farmers, and in the downstream marketing and agroprocessing segments of agrifood chains (World Bank, 2013). However, while rapidly modernizing food systems raise opportunities, women and youth are confronted by new challenges and may be excluded from such transformation if insufficient attention is paid to inclusiveness of such transformations.

AU is therefore committed to **enhance inclusive partnership along the value chains, so that women and youth can benefit from agribusiness and agroprocessing opportunities** (Box 22). However, CAADP indicators and targets remain gender-neutral; further, the CAADP gender indicator does not relate to women's participation in value chains. Yet, women tend to dominate specific commodities and specific segments of the value chain, and little attention is paid to the potential that upgrading the value chain offers for women and youth.





BOX 22: AU COMMITMENTS TO VALUE CHAIN AND GENDER

- **AU Agenda 2063 includes a call to action** to effectively leverage the emergence and flourishing of a vibrant sector of small, medium and large-scale joint venture agroprocessing and agribusiness units, which attract young and skilled African women and men entrepreneurs in those value chains.
- **Malabo Declaration** calls for the establishment and/or strengthening of inclusive public-private partnerships for at least five priority agricultural commodity value chains with strong linkage to smallholder agriculture. It also wants to create job opportunities for at least 30 percent of the youth in agricultural value chains; and offers preferential entry to and participation of women and youth in gainful and attractive agribusinesses.
- **The CAADP Result Framework includes a target to establish and/or strengthen inclusive public-private partnerships (PPP) for at least five priority agricultural commodity value chains, with strong linkages to smallholder agriculture by 2025. It is possible to observe the linkage to smallholders** through measures, such as the high number of smallholders supplying produce through target groups to target buyers, or through the volume of trade (in terms of value) between smallholders and target buyers. *PPP can be defined as “a long-term contract between a private party and a government entity, for providing a public asset or service, in which the private party bears significant risk and management responsibility, and remuneration is linked to performance.”*

AU and NEPAD developed a **continental Agribusiness Strategy (NAS)** to “enable the creation of a conducive environment for increased private sector investment in Africa’s agriculture” so as to have a “dynamic agribusiness sector that generates jobs and added value and contributes to growth and reduction of food dependency in Africa.” The strategy acknowledges that the skewed participation of women and youth limits the overall potential of African agribusiness. To address such gender gaps, the strategy focuses on women and youth in terms of: (1) improving financial inclusion for women and youth; (2) increasing access of women and young people to key agricultural markets; and (3) training, mentoring, incubating and coaching the next generation of businesspeople and agribusinesses. In addition, AUC and NEPAD published an orientation note to promote actions to effectively engage women in the agro-industry (AUC, NEPAD, 2018b).

5.4.1 Women’s participation in AU commodities value chains and PPPs: roles and constraints

Across the African regions, **men and women tend to participate differently in various commodity value chains and have gender differentiated roles** within those value chains. On one hand, women will participate in most value chains as contributing family workers and unskilled labourers, with a gender-specific share of tasks. On the other hand, most women have their own specific economic activities based on their own land, animals or processing skills.

Gender specialization in value chains is an important dimension, as women tend to dominate

most subsistence commodities while men will most often dominate commercial and industrialized production. Regarding animal production, women tend to participate more in small ruminant value chains, poultry and dairy, while men dominate larger animal production such as cattle production. In addition, women tend to **dominate processing and marketing activities** within each value chain. For instance, if they are little involved in cattle, they tend to dominate small-scale diary processing. Further, they play **key roles in strengthening rural-urban linkages** through their food processing and marketing activities. However, we can see variations across the value chain, and women tend to dominate small-scale and informal processing and marketing activities.

Such gender division of labour and gender **specialization in specific crops may change from country to country** according to the orientation in production (see Table 9). For instance, women may dominate rice production in countries where rice is a subsistence crop, but men would dominate rice value chains when it is considered a cash crop. In addition, such gender specialization may change, as men will often shift to subsistence value chain when it becomes more commercialized and industrialized.

Although some countries show different patterns of gender specialization in value chains, Table 9 lists the trends of specialization that are likely to be observed in most African countries.

Participation of women in the value chains

Traditional value chain analysis tends to scope at the aggregated levels from input supply to processing and retail, and overlooks the individual and HH levels that influence the role of actors and the conditions

Table 9: Trends of participation in the commodity value chain

| | Women dominant roles | Men dominant roles |
|---|---|--|
| Crop production and horticulture | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Women usually grow small plots near the house or in the lowlands and low-quality land. • Women often engage in subsistence farming, growing roots and tubers, vegetables and condiments for household needs. • Women support labour-intensive tasks (planting, weeding, harvesting, processing, local and bulk marketing). • Women most often dominate the processing of agricultural products and small marketing. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Men usually have easier access to highlands and irrigation. They also have more secured land tenure that allows them to invest and borrow funds more easily. • Men are generally more involved in commercial and perennial crops. • In production, men clean, develop and prepare land, manage farms, and market larger volumes. |
| Forestry and plantations | <p>In particular, women dominate: (i) the exploitation of non-timber forest products (NTFPs), their processing and marketing; (ii) collection of fuelwood and leaves for household purposes; (iii) the preparation and sale of meals to forest workers; (iv) the farming of subsistence crops in forest systems; (v) retail marketing of wood. Women participation in plantations and agroforestry is notably constrained by their lower ownership of land. Indeed, in most countries, tree plantation is forbidden based on the short-term land arrangements that prevail for women.</p> | <p>Men dominate the exploitation of commercial plantations (coffee, cocoa, and so on), the commercial exploitation of timber, and the exploitation of certain non-timber forest products as well as hunting.</p> |
| Fishery | <p>Mainland artisanal fishery is mainly practised by women using nets, canoes and other rudimentary materials. Women are mostly fishmongers, traders and processors, and dominate processing and marketing activities. Studies of women in aquaculture indicate that their contribution is often greater than that of men. Therefore, aquaculture is often seen as a good income-generating opportunity for African women.</p> | <p>Men who use more modern, efficient and expensive equipment usually dominate continental, maritime and industrial fisheries.</p> |
| Animal production | <p>Women are involved in small livestock (poultry, sheep and goats). They participate in the maintenance, care and feeding of the entire animal herd, and are generally responsible for processing activities (milk, dairy products, dry meat, and so forth), and for locally trading these processed products.</p> | <p>Men generally control camels and sheep, and manage marketing, slaughter and export activities. A few countries with sex-disaggregated data show that FHHs are usually much less endowed with cattle than MHHs, and that women own less cattle than men.</p> |

in which women and men participate. The lack of gender perceptions or gender analysis in value chain analysis and the lack of sex-disaggregated data prevents us from having a clear understanding of women's and men's participation and share.

In fact, **most studies on agricultural value chains lack gender considerations.** In addition, gender stereotypes tend to **limit the recognition and value-addition of women's work. The few available studies show that women are less integrated** into the value chain and occupy positions of **lower levels of responsibility as compared to men.**

They are often restricted to **small activities when it comes to value addition** (see Box 23).

Value chain improvements and the subsequent economic shifts deeply affect gender relations.

Therefore, such modernization programmes must pay attention to gender considerations:

- For example, depending on the nature of the intervention and the specific value chain, expanding women's productive participation may lead to an **increase or a decrease in their access to and control over income.** Similarly, changes in men's



BOX 23: EXAMPLES OF GENDER-SENSITIVE VALUE CHAIN STUDIES SHOWING THE CONSTRAINTS WOMEN FACE IN MAJOR AU COMMODITIES

In Côte d'Ivoire cocoa supports the livelihoods of about 3.6 million people and is one of the country's major foreign-currency earners. Women own 25 percent of the cocoa plantations and make up about 68 percent of the labour force. However, the majority of women are excluded from cooperatives and their associated benefits, as membership in cooperatives usually requires land ownership. Further, there is the broad exclusion of women in aggregation, trade and transport activities, and their under-representation as intermediaries, all of which prevent women from moving further downstream into sales.

Ethiopia is Africa's largest coffee producer, where coffee provides livelihoods for 4.5–5.0 million people. Women constitute 75 percent of the coffee-industry workforce, but control only 43 percent of the revenue. This is because they receive only about 20 percent of the revenue from smallholder plots, and usually occupy lower-paid positions. Women working in coffee in Ethiopia face major constraints that reduce their income: Much of the wet milling (which fetches a 25-percent higher price than dried coffee) is done through cooperatives. They miss out on opportunities to boost the value of their production because relatively few women coffee farmers are members of cooperatives.

Nigeria is the world's largest cassava producer (20 percent of overall production), but cassava exports from Nigeria account for less than 1 percent of world exports. Women labourers produce 25 percent of the produce but earn just 17 percent of the income generated by cassava at national level, mainly because of their lower productivity. Men own most of the commercial production and processing, while women are predominant in smallholder processing. Women cassava producers and processors face a number of constraints:

- Women smallholders tend to be 25–30 percent less productive than men. They apply less fertilizer per hectare than men, have less training in agronomic practices and are responsible for household chores, which reduces the time they can devote to the farm;
- Ninety percent of them are small-scale processors and lack access to reliable sources of electricity as well as to capital to buy efficient and modern processing equipment; and
- Women commercial processors may produce less because they have limited working capital to run their operations.

productive roles and earning capacity may also lead to shifts in the **balance of decision-making power at the household and community levels** (FAO, 2016a).

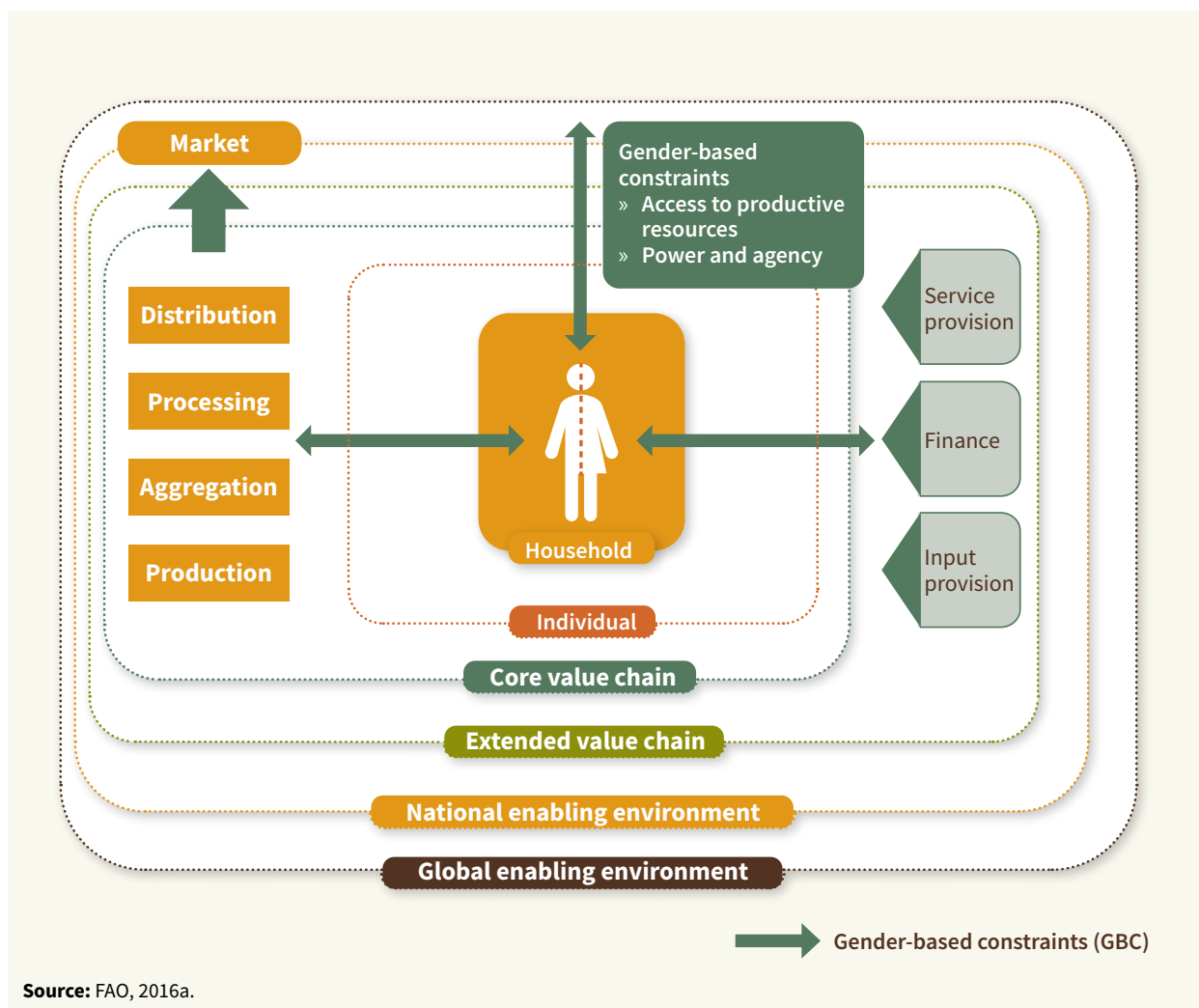
- Several country reports noted that the **professionalization and increasing profitability of the sectors tend to make women lose market share**. For instance, Congo's gender profile noted that, when "women's activities" become profitable and commercial, they tend to attract men, resulting in women losing their work. A similar trend was noted in the Gambian report: "It has been noted that when the economic value of women-dominant agricultural commodities increases, men tend to increase its (sic) production and eventually compete or even dominate women in producing such commodities. This trend is noticeable in the cultivation of rice and horticultural products as men are gradually expanding into their production." Indeed, in the

absence of proper gender considerations in these value chain programmes, women may become deprived of the relative control they held until then on specific produce, with no alternatives available on new products. Gender constraints disadvantage women's access to a whole range of services and benefits and limits their capacity to improve production.

5.4.2 Addressing gender constraints through inclusive PPPs and value chain programmes

To address such gender gaps, gender-sensitive value chain analysis needs to be carried out to identify the specific roles of men and women and the constraints that they face along the various segments of the value chain. The analysis also needs to examine the constraints spanning from individual capacities, intra-household dynamics, up to the national enabling environment (see Figure 40).

Figure 40: FAO's gender-sensitive value chain framework



5.4.2.1 Key constraints to women participation in value chain

The **various constraints and issues need strong political action (FAO, 2016a):**

On one hand, gender disparities are seen at the core and at the extended value chain levels as well as at the household level. These disparities, which affect women's capacities and agency to access the required services and opportunities in value chains, are listed below:

- Women have unequal access to and control over **land and productive capacities, including credit and financial services, which are key to acquiring the required inputs, equipment and technologies to upscale business.**
- **Differences in gender roles and social norms** that deter women from entering specific activities. For instance, several national gender profiles quoted social norms and customs against animal ownership by women or constraints to their mobility to access pastures. In some countries, women are often disallowed from accessing the slaughter market. Further, they often receive only 90–95 percent of the animal price because they rely on intermediaries for selling animals.
- Finally, women have more **time constraints** than men do due to the time they devote to taking care of their children, the elderly, the sick, and other family members, and collecting water and

fuelwood. They often have to first complete their work on the family farms before engaging in their own activities and therefore have to choose productive activities that are compatible with their work schedules.

- Women are often **less educated, and have lower technical and business skills and agency.**
- **They have insufficient voice and agency in collective organizations**
 - **Women are also insufficiently organized,** and their organizations often do not have the capacity and agency to negotiate correct prices, implement quality standards, achieve economies of scale through collective action and acquire equipment and technologies.
 - Women also **tend to participate less in mixed-sex producer's organizations** and have fewer opportunities to occupy executive positions, affecting their capacity to benefit from value chain programmes targeting producers' organizations and to benefit from the various services offered by such organizations (see section 5.3.4).

On the other hand, **national policies and services may not be sufficiently inclusive for women.**

- **Value chain policies and advisory services are gender neutral and government officers** may have limited skills and capacities to target

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and work with women as actual clients. They may tend to focus on men-dominated value chains, meanwhile ignoring women-dominated value chains. Further, value chain support and advisory services may not appropriately consider specific gender constraints and roles (see also section 4.2.5). For instance, several national gender profiles showed that, in the animal sector, advisory and health services are often targeted at large cattle, while small ruminants and poultry, usually managed by women, are not given the same attention. The same trend could be observed in crop production, whereby advisory services tend to focus on commercial crops, as well as the forestry sector, where support often focuses on the commercial plantations to the detriment of non-timber forest products. Finally, such services rarely address the agency of women and their business skills that are key to enhance their participation in the value chain.

- Financial services are not sufficiently inclusive of women. Insufficient **access to credit at the various links** in the chain does not allow them to invest in their activities or increase their level of production. In addition, woman also find it difficult to access credit from commercial banks due to the lack of land titles, which they can offer as a collateral.
- **Insufficient infrastructure** and technology development to support the growth of rural value chains (roads, storage warehouses,

slaughterhouses, cold chains, and so on) and the isolation of many production areas hamper the professionalization of the sectors and contribute to losses. Overly long marketing chains involve too many actors who take up most of the agricultural value added and hinder reinvestment.

- **Women do not participate in the decision-making structures in the value chain and they do not have a voice in the existing dialogue platform.**
- Small and informal businesses **find it difficult to adhere to the public procurement procedures and standards.**
- **There is insufficient investment in and support** (in terms of promoting adequate technology and innovation) **extended to post-harvest activities**, which are dominated by women. In fact, only 5 percent of the investment in agriculture goes to postproduction.

5.4.2.2 Promising practices to address such constraints

Policy and investment framework have a key role to play in **facilitating women's participation in the value chain and providing incentives for inclusive PPP**. The list of bullets below examines some of the **positive examples of inclusive programmes in CGAs and literature** (see Box 24). It also **reviews existing frameworks and guidelines to promote a gender-sensitive value chain** (FAO, 2016a):

- Encourage the generation of **sex-disaggregated data and promote gender-sensitive value chain studies** [FAO has developed a Guiding Framework for Developing Gender-Sensitive Value Chains (FAO, 2016a) and Practical Guidelines (FAO, 2018)].
- Draw up policies **to establish gender criteria and gender-responsive objectives** that PPP can incorporate to include women even in value chains dominated by men.
- **Select and support women-dominated value chains and ensure that male-dominated value chains respond to gender criteria and objectives.**
- Enhance the **share of investments and support going to post-harvest management**, which is dominated by women.

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- **Reinforce women's agency and capacities to ensure their participation at different levels of the value chain so that they can influence policy and investments programmes.**
- **Reinforce women entrepreneurship and business skills** and enhance their empowerment at the household and community levels through the development of gender-sensitive business advisory services (see Box 16 for examples of gender-sensitive extension systems in Kenya).
- **Specific support to women groups**, including in terms of management and negotiation within the sector. They should also be enabled to make value-additions to their products.
- Develop an **inclusive platform** to facilitate gender-sensitive dialogue and negotiations within the value chain.
- Reinforce **gender mechanisms and gender capacities** in each sector for government officials, the private sector and agribusiness bodies to better address such gender concerns in value chains:
- **Reinforcing gender institutions** (for example, Morocco)
- **Providing guidance and tools on gender-inclusive value chains and PPPs**
- **Specific targeting mechanisms in value chain programmes** (for example, Ghana has a 30 percent target for women's participation in crop programmes).
- **Generate incentive mechanisms and targets** to facilitate PPPs with women organizations. For instance, the RAIP of ECOWAS proposes a competitive fund to support **partnership** between women groups and women enterprises within value chains.

Finally, increasing women's participation in the value chain requires the strengthening of market and trade prospects, which will be analysed in section 6.



BOX 24: EXAMPLES OF INITIATIVES PROMOTING WOMEN'S EMPOWERMENT IN THE VALUE CHAIN

Gender-sensitive studies and data: In **Benin**, the GIZ (German Cooperation) conducted a project promoting inclusive value chains. Its gender-sensitive value chain analysis shows that women are mostly involved in product transformation (70 percent cassava, more in rice production). There is also a significant involvement in trade, notably at the domestic and cross-border levels.

Example of programmes targeting women-dominated value chains

- The AU 11 priority commodities list has not been prepared based on a strong gender analysis. It contains both men-dominated commodities such as cotton, oil palm, beef and fisheries, and staple products such as sorghum, cassava and millet, which are more dominated by women. Non-timber forest products (such as shea butter) are ignored although they provide a very interesting income opportunity for women and have a strong commercial potential.
- The Gambia national investment plans target women-dominated value chains such as rice and horticulture.
- Cameroon also has a National Programme for the Development of Roots and Tubers aimed particularly at vulnerable groups and women. Women constitute 95 percent of the beneficiaries of support activities, 67 percent of the members of producers' organizations and 60 percent of the management teams.

Box 24 cont'd

- In Gabon, the GRAINE programme targets food crops (tomato, pepper, banana, cassava) dominated by women, which provides an entry point for greater gender equality and the economic empowerment of rural women.
- In Burkina Faso, women's fund at the United Nations (UNIFEM) and the *Centre Canadien d'Étude et de Coopération Internationale* worked with 400 000 rural women to improve the processing and marketing of shea nuts. UNIFEM linked these women to a French cosmetics company, L'Occitane, which started buying shea butter directly from a network of more than 100 women's groups, increasing the share of revenue that went to women producers (at the expense of middlemen). L'Occitane also started providing training in quality control and making advance payments for the shea butter (FAO, 2013d).

Specific programmes for processing: In The Gambia, the Food Technology Services Unit is the technical arm of the Department of Agriculture and is engaged in skilling both rural and urban processors – mainly women – with the required skills in food processing and preservation with a view to enhancing their capabilities in value addition. In Morocco, the government supports the development of gender units to valorize fishery products as well as specific storage and processing units. In addition, specific support is given to women to meet the hygiene and quality standards to export such products.

Support to women groups: In Chad, in the Sudanian zone, the shea industry is at the heart of the emergence of women's associations, which are strengthening their power and reducing inequalities in terms of access and control over other sectors, namely arabic gum. **In Togo**, the programme "ProDRA" supporting cash crops (cocoa, pineapple and cashew) is reinforcing women's capacities along the value chain by encouraging their participation as decision-makers and improving their access to land. In Tanzania, the Ministry of Livestock is trying to encourage women to form milk cooperatives in order to enjoy the economies of scale associated with selling milk as cooperative groups. In Morocco, specific support has been given to develop women's cooperatives in the fishery sector (including literacy, technical and management training).

Support to **networks and platforms: In Gabon**, the processors are networked under a platform named *Réseau national des transformateurs agricoles du Gabon* (RENATAG). In Morocco, there is a Moroccan women's network, which is a part of the *Réseau Africain des Femmes de la Pêche* (RAFEP), which serves as a platform for women to share their experiences in the sector. The **African Women Agribusiness Network–East Africa** (AWAN–EA) is a regional business support organization that promotes women in agricultural value chains in small and medium enterprises, through facilitation or direct provision of need-based services and through advocacy aimed at creating a better business environment for women within Eastern Africa. The **World Banana Forum**²² gathers all stakeholders of the banana value chains and seeks to promote more sustainable and socially responsible practices. A gender task force has also been created which actively promotes increased understanding of gender issues, amplifies women's voices across the platform, and puts forth a series of recommendations for stakeholders to better address gender.

Reinforcing gender institutions and capacities: Morocco has created a specific unit dedicated to gender and development in its fishery department. It also encourages the participation of women in various fishery schools to enhance their participation in support services. **In Ghana**, the Livestock Production Directorate of the Ministry of Agriculture ensures that all its activities are carried out in a gender-sensitive manner. **An affirmative action of reserving 30 percent of the activities for women** is being implemented based on livestock activity and gender roles.

²² <http://www.bananalink.org.uk/world-banana-forum-gender-equity>

6 GOAL 5

Boosting intra-African trade
in commodities and services



6.1 Context and importance of trade for African development



Boosting intra-African trade and international trade of commodities and services benefits the youth and women by increasing demand and creating much needed employment opportunities. Indeed, the demand for food in the region is increasing due to growing population, urbanization and rising household income.

However, for more than a decade, imports from the global markets have exceeded exports from the African region; in other words, demand is not sufficiently met by domestic and regional production. Further, most commodities are exported raw from the African region, with little domestic value addition. For instance, among the top African producers, 66–100 percent of cocoa, coffee, and cotton exports are unprocessed depending on the country (AfDB, 2015). Yet, this rapidly growing demand in the region could create opportunities for suppliers to both compete and replace imports from outside and to export within the region. Enhancing such marketing and trade opportunities in the region would have an impact on the overall value chain, as it requires developing production, agri-business services, inputs and processing as well.

Therefore, it is important **to enhance marketing and trade opportunities** so that the value chain can grow and create the employment opportunities much needed to achieve goal 5.

Existing commitments and targets

AU is strongly committed to reduce imports and triple intra-African trade while harmonizing and coordinating regional trade policies (Box 25). Priority areas of work include the development of trade infrastructure and an enhanced enabling environment. In addition, the Declaration of 2015 on women empowerment specifically mentions the need to ensure that continental free trade promotes women empowerment in agribusiness and value chains.



BOX 25: COMMITMENTS, TARGETS AND STATUS ON TRADE

- **AU Agenda 2063** aims to reduce the imports of food and raise intra-African trade in agriculture and food to 50 percent of the total formal food and agricultural trade. This will require promotion of policies that will ensure better functioning of agriculture and food markets, including lower costs of market participation and increasing access to regional/continental and global markets.
- **The Declaration “2015 Year of women’s empowerment and development towards Africa’s Agenda 2063”** adopted by the AU Summit in June 2015 invites the Member States to ensure that the Continental Free Trade Area promotes **the empowerment of women** in agribusiness and agricultural value chains.

Box 25 cont'd

- **The Malabo Declaration and the related CAADP Results Framework** aim at: (i) tripling intra-African trade in agricultural commodities and services while reducing importation of those commodities from outside Africa by 2025; (ii) creating and enhancing regional and continental policies and institutional conditions and support systems to simplify and formalize the current trade practices to permit the achievement of intra-African trade targets; and (iii) promoting the African common position on agriculture-related international trade negotiations and partnership agreements.

The 2018 Malabo Evaluation Report states that the continent is on track on the trade facilitation index as trade blocks [ECOWAS, COMESA, Eastern African Community (EAC), SADC and the Arab Maghreb Union (AMU)] have developed institutional mechanisms that have facilitated and promoted trade of agricultural commodities in the continent (harmonization of policies and regulations, promotion of free movement of goods and people, and so on). The volume of intra-African agricultural trade increased by 14.9 percent between 2015 and 2016 compared to the 2017 milestone of 20 percent. However, it points uneven progress across countries, with strong progress in Western Africa thanks notably to Senegal, but decrease in Southern and Eastern Africa due in part to climate variability and political unrest.

The evaluation points out several constraints and priority actions but without any gender considerations:

- Infrastructure: high transport costs resulting from poor infrastructure and inadequate transport policies; and important post-harvest losses due to poor storage infrastructure and processing facilities;
- Regional and national institutional framework and policy for trade: unclear/unpredictable trade policies and regimes; ineffective implementation of regional trade agreements; lack of harmonized standards, rules and regulations; restrictive customs/cross-border procedures; poor stakeholder information on markets, policies and regulations; and limited access to efficient and affordable value-chain and trade finance.

Section 6.2 seeks to provide a gender analysis of such constraints and actions and raise specific gender issues that need to be considered when it comes to implementation.

6.2 African trade potential: roles and specific gender issues

Women **tend to dominate local marketing and retail sales of agricultural products, while men tend to be more involved in wholesaling, and large-scale and international marketing activities**, with differences across countries, products and types of marketing. For example, in Chad, the sale of cattle

depends on men, while the sale of dairy products depends on women. In Rwanda, male heads of households are usually responsible for selling products in small and large quantities. In Gabon, wholesalers, who are mostly women, collect the products. They go directly to the producers and take charge of the transport to the point of sale (north and south circuit). In Cameroon, women make a significant contribution to trade by circulating surplus food products between production areas and consumption centres. Everyone recognizes the role played by *bayam sallam* in local marketing (*bayam sallam* is a pidgin term derived from “buy and sell” and it is used to refer to the women buying and selling various products on the streets and markets in Cameroon).

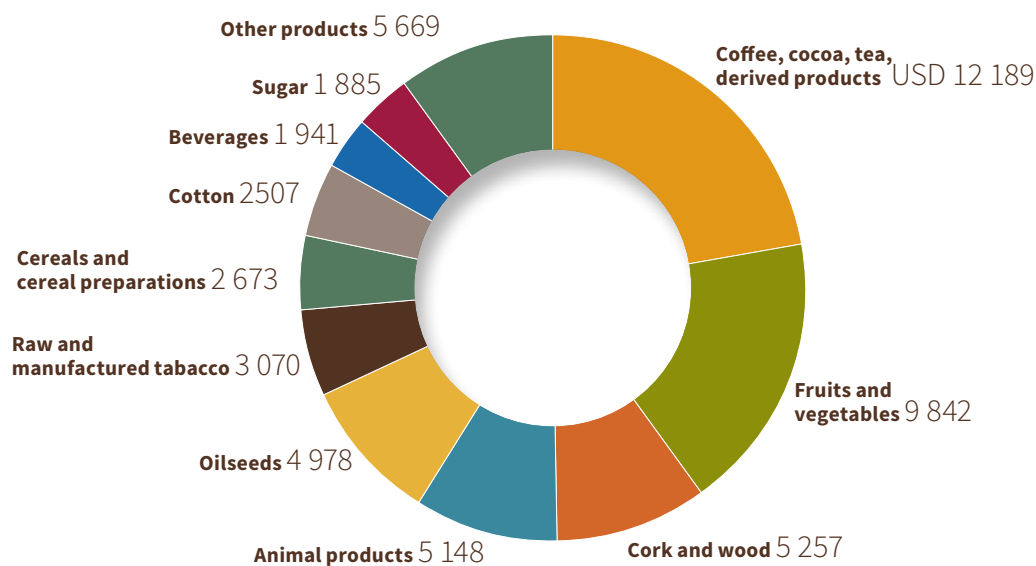
Informal cross-border trade (ICBT) is dominated by women and constitutes a major form of informal activity in most African countries. In SADC, for example, it makes up an estimated 30 percent to 40 percent of the total intra-SADC trade, with an estimated value of USD 17.6 billion. Typically, women represent up to 70 percent of ICBT in the continent, trading a variety of commodities either in a raw or semi-processed state, including basic to luxury goods produced in other countries. In Western and Central Africa, women represent nearly 60 percent of the informal traders. In these regions, there is a high degree of avoiding the formal border processes. The unemployed, small and medium enterprises and some large firms, and even formal workers desiring to supplement their salaries engage in these practices (FAO, 2017b). In Rwanda, official data indicate that informal cross-border exports with the Democratic Republic of Congo, Burundi, Tanzania and Uganda are much higher than formal exports. The revenue generated is mostly spent on the household to meet basic needs such as food and schooling.

Generally, women tend to **specialize in subsistence crops while men specialize in commercial crops**. However, a review of the major agricultural

products exported (see Figure 41) show some **strong potential for women-dominated value chains**, which are often operated at the local subsistence scale but could be upscaled. For instance, women tend to be strongly involved in growing fruits and vegetables, dairy production, poultry production and animal fattening. In addition, **several traditionally processed products that can have a strong niche trade potential** are currently emerging such as shea butter, processed fish, processed cereals, roots and tuber (gari, yam flakes and flour), local beverages, pastries and so on.

Women face difficulties participating in high-value markets since they find it challenging to comply with the standards or are not part of the required cooperatives. For instance, in Ethiopia, the Ethiopia Commodity Exchange (ECX) does not allow for commodities without traceability to original producers, so coffee grown by women cannot achieve the higher price that specialty markets are willing to pay unless it is marketed through a cooperative union and sold directly to an international buyer (AfDB, 2015).

Figure 41: Share of products in total agricultural exports in Africa in 2014, in millions of USD



Source: NEPAD Atlas, from Comtrade datasets.

The national gender profiles reveal several gender constraints and issues, which should inform interventions to enhance women's participation in regional and international marketing activities:

- **Insufficient technical, economic and managerial capacities** of women entrepreneurs and their organizations
 - Women **tend to be less educated and over-represented in small-scale informal businesses** with limited formal business skills.
 - **They are often insufficiently aware of and trained in trade standards.** They need support to implement the standards, which are required to access opportunities in value chains (including exports, better pricing of products, whether they be local or regional).
 - In addition, the **difference in quality** between regional products and imported products in certain segments of the regional markets significantly reduces the competitiveness of the local produce (for instance, rice). Therefore, significant efforts are required to develop the technical capacities of women processors.
 - Since women do not always join farmers' organizations, they have low price negotiation capacity, insufficient access to information systems, and there is power imbalance across the value chains.
- **Gender-differentiated access to social and financial capital to upscale their business and draw meaningful partnership:** Women's networks are often restricted to their family and community whereas men connect with larger and more formal networks, including cooperatives. Further, women usually have **limited access to land, inputs, and credits to bring to scale their business.** In fact, they will often rely on men's merchandise loans to carry out their trading activities, with an impact on risks, profit margins and possible volumes.
- **Barriers to formalization of businesses and adoptions of standards and registration mechanisms**
 - **The high level of informality which surrounds women's businesses prevents them from participating in regional trade** activities. Registration mechanisms are sometimes too complicated and not adapted to small-scale businesses and illiterate business owners. Other barriers include difficulty in getting access to travelling documents or trading licenses, excessively long waiting times at borders, overcharging by customs officials, and inadequate knowledge of official procedures. At the border, women are often the first victims of abuses of power and administrative difficulties, including through gender-based violence and harassment (FAO, 2017a).



- The **heterogeneity of national standards for metrology and standardization** of products creates uncertainty for regional trade actors, who often have to act in the informal sector to avoid the controls of national standardization bodies. In addition, it **facilitates power imbalance** across the value chains as weighing and measurement systems are not in place, and small-scale producers and operators may easily be cheated.
- **Some standards are also not suitable for small-scale artisanal activities and, therefore, for the majority of sectors.**
- **Women face many mobility constraints with specific gender components:** In addition to the poor conditions of rural roads, women often have **less access to means of transport**. They do not own transport or may not be allowed to drive a bicycle, motorbike or car. In fact, they often have to walk and carry heavy burdens on their heads. **Gender-based violence and insecurity** make it difficult for them to use public transportation, especially at night. Further, **road infrastructure** may not be gender-sensitive and include sanitation and services for women. Despite these specific gender issues, road infrastructure projects rarely have women in their planning committees in many countries.
- **Social norms and decision-making mechanisms of households:** The decision to sell produce and the use of income remains mostly the responsibility of the head of household. In addition, in some

countries, women need to obtain permission from the head of the family to travel and may not go to certain places or meet male colleagues easily.

- **Insufficient attention to gender and women-dominated activities such as processing in value chain programmes:** Due to such lack of gender considerations, several country reports noted that the professionalization and increasing profitability of the sectors tends to make women lose market share.

6.3 Policy considerations to enhance women's intra-African trade potential: gender-sensitive infrastructure and institutional frameworks

As highlighted in the preceding section, regional agricultural investment plans rarely include gender analysis and gender-sensitive measures in trade frameworks and investments. However, we can point out several positive examples of policies, investments and programmes at the country and regional levels (see Box 26).

- **The following are some gender-sensitive infrastructure investments:** Generate gender-sensitive road and transport development and policy (ECCAS, Gabon, Ghana)
 - Build gender-sensitive marketing infrastructures (Congo, Chad). Support women's businesses and their organizations to access regional markets and organize transport (Congo).
 - Support the development of national and regional networks of women producers and processor organizations that can participate and influence marketing policies, investments and promote women's products (Burkina Faso).
 - Support women to register their businesses and access credit to modernize and upscale them, which will enable them to access international and more remunerative markets. This can include credit to enhance the volume of activities as well as to invest in processing and storage equipment compatible with food safety and export standards (NEPAD).

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- Develop programmes to facilitate women's access to international and niche markets. As highlighted, traditional value chains that include women have strong regional and global trade potential but require support to meet the standards so that the produce adheres to the quality required to compete in regional markets. In addition to bulk commodities, specific support would be useful to develop high-value niche markets (Morocco).

When it comes to informal trade, the following gender-sensitive institutional frameworks for trade need to be put into place:

- **Rules and regulations** to improve the conditions for informal transborder trade and movement of women traders. Specific attention needs to be paid to gender-based violence and abuse of power at the border. In addition, free trade negotiations must include **gender-sensitive value chain assessments and ensure participation of women's organizations and informal organizations** to understand their needs and specific constraints (ECCAS).
- **Customs procedures and requirements should be simplified, transparent and made publicly available** in a format accessible to small-scale women's organizations (COMESA).
- **Administrative barriers to formalization, including unnecessary costs, must be kept to a minimal.** This could be done through the creation of one-stop-shops for business registration and rationalizing business registration and licensing regimes by deploying user-friendly IT-based systems (FAO, 2017a).
- Women should be offered **incentives to enter into the formal sector**, which could include simplified tax administration. Retroactive regulations, especially in the area of taxation, have to be avoided (FAO, 2017a).



BOX 26: CASE STUDIES OF INITIATIVES PROMOTING WOMEN'S ACCESS TO MARKET AND TRADE

Gender-sensitive infrastructure investments

In **ECCAS**, several departments collaborate for the protection of women traders in risky environments. Gender-sensitive analysis and consultations are included in the specifications of infrastructure and road programmes. In **Gabon**, a programme to rehabilitate rural infrastructure targets women traders, who have to constitute 50 percent of the beneficiaries. Sixty percent of the positions of responsibility within the community organizations and management committees to be set up under the project will be reserved for women. In **Congo**, some road and market programmes support the creation of transport management committees and the inclusion of women. In **Ghana**, the national programme has identified the mobility challenges of women and they have proposed an intermediate transport system for them.

A project in **Congo** seeks to build collective organizations to organize transport. Training is conducted on simplified management, writing business plans and marketing. They subsidize the costs of food transport initially, until the system is fully effective. Now, the producers are self-reliant and can sell their goods at competitive prices; and the urban populations benefit from a diversified diet. In **Chad**, Oxfam promotes the organization of market infrastructure around women processing centres to limit mobility constraints.

Box 26 cont'd

Support women's businesses and their organization to access regional markets

In **Burkina Faso**, the *Fédération Nationale des Industries de l'Agro-alimentaire et de transformation du Burkina Faso (FIAB)* supports the agribusiness sectors development. SODEPAL, one of its members, has been actively involved in the development and marketing of local products that can compete with imports such as nutritious flour and pastries (Cultivons, 2016).

The NEPAD Conference for Women in Agribusiness sought to build women's capacity around value chains, access to finance and to markets, and introduce policies that unlock women-oriented businesses. In 2017, training sessions were conducted for women entrepreneurs revolving around meeting market standards, ICTs for market access, and working capital financing for trade along value chains.

Morocco adopted a very **proactive strategy to promote local products manufactured by small-scale producers, including women's cooperatives**. Thirty-eight products have been labelled until 2016. They include 30 Geographical Indications, 5 Appellations of Origin, and 2 Agricultural Labels. They have supported 130 cooperatives to have their products labelled. The programmes support international marketing and promotion through national and international fairs, temporary and permanent exhibitions and showrooms. The government has provided support to develop local standards to enhance sustainability and social inclusion in the argan and saffron value chains. Such standards have been developed in close consultation with women associations. Further, sufficient technical and managerial training is being provided to support women associations.

Gender-sensitive institutional frameworks for trade, and specific support to informal trade

Some countries like **Ghana, Liberia, Rwanda and Uganda** cater expressly to the needs of small-scale traders within the countries and at their borders, by providing them with the necessary market information, promoting direct engagement with informal cross-border trade representatives, linking them directly with the international markets and ensuring their needs are considered when policies and legislation are developed (FAO, 2017b).

In **COMESA**, specific attention has been given to the establishment of simplified trade regimes (STR), which simplify the rules and procedures for small traders and provide tax incentives for trading within the formal sector.

7



GOAL 6

Resilience to shocks
and climate variability



7.1 Context, scope and commitments

Context and concepts of shocks and resilience in agriculture

Agricultural activities are associated with specific risks and vulnerabilities related in particular to:

- Climate and natural disasters, including drought and flood, affecting agricultural yields and animal feed, earthquake, landslide, and so on); food chain crisis, including outbreaks of transboundary animal and plant pests and diseases (fall army worm, Ebola, Avian influenza, *peste des petits ruminants*, locust infestations, aquatic and forest pests and diseases), as well as food safety problems and radiation events.
- Man-made crises, including:
 - Economic shocks, for instance related to prices volatility and price uncertainty, economic crisis leading to higher unemployment, reduced credit access, and so forth.
 - Conflicts, social strife, and protracted crisis. Africa is the continent most affected by conflicts in the world. Since 1996, 22 countries have had conflicts that lasted at least five years and caused over 500 deaths. In fact, 14 of them have been declared fragile countries. Africa alone includes 48 percent of the countries affected by such crisis and 70 percent of the fragile countries affected by such conflicts (SOFI, 2017; FAO *et al.*, 2017).

These shocks are partially interrelated. For instance, agricultural activity is heavily impacted by conflicts that are experienced in several African countries. Climate-related events, particularly droughts, tend to jeopardize food security in terms of availability and access, which increases the risk of conflict and competition over resources. Conversely, food insecurity crisis (that can come from natural disasters, food chain crisis and economic shocks) is in itself a factor that increases or can trigger violence and instability, particularly in contexts characterized by diffuse inequities and fragile institutions. For example, soaring food prices exacerbate the risk of political turmoil and conflict, as evidenced by the

food riots that erupted in more than 40 countries in 2007 and 2008. (FAO *et al.*, 2017). A vicious circle can develop if conflict provokes deterioration of food security and nutrition, which further escalates conflict, resulting in a protracted food security crisis.

Fourteen African countries are in a state of **protracted crisis**, marked by conflicts and/or prolonged natural disaster, deterioration of people's livelihoods and institutional incapacity to react and manage crises (74 percent of all countries affected by such situation in the world are in Africa). Protracted crises are becoming the new norm, with 40 percent more ongoing food crises considered to be protracted than in 1990. As these crises persist, countries and communities need more effective and sustainable strategies to build their capacity against shocks and stressors. Ten are affected by both conflicts and protracted crisis and they represent 77 percent of all the countries in the world so affected (Burundi, CAR, Chad, DRC, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Liberia, Somalia, South Sudan and Sudan) (FAO *et al.*, 2017).

In particular, climate change tends to increase volatility and magnify the scale of events, and contribute further to exacerbate shocks to the agriculture sector (FAO *et al.*, 2018). Exposure to these various risks is closely connected to both food insecurity and poverty of rural populations (see subsections 4.1 and 5.1).

Populations vulnerable to these risks are identified as lacking the most basic resources to protect their livelihoods. They are mostly poor and marginalized farm households, agropastoralists, artisanal fishers, and urban and rural poor households in the agricultural sector.

Policy commitments to improve resilience

Resilience is defined as “the ability of vulnerable households, families, communities and systems to cope with uncertainty and risk of shocks, to withstand and respond effectively to shocks, and to recover and adapt in a sustainable way in order to prevent crisis to turn into disasters.” (Global Alliance for Resilience, AGIR, initiative that gathers 17 countries in Western Africa and the Sahel²³)

²³ See <http://www.food-security.net/en/topic/global-alliance-for-resilience-agir/>

Indeed, SDGs, the Malabo Declaration and the associated CAADP Results Framework includes various sub-objectives and targets to enhance resilience and protection of vulnerable households through: (i) building the resilience of farm, pastoral and fishery-based households; (ii) investing in disaster risk management; and (iii) introducing resilient and sustainable agricultural practices on 30 percent of the land surface (see Box 26). In addition, they include several commitments specific to climate change. (This will be detailed in subsection 7.1, which focusses on climate change.)

Although mitigating risks and increasing resilience are a high priority on the political agenda, most current policy commitments and targets are not gender-sensitive. There is growing evidence that women have specific vulnerabilities to risk and that they have specific roles to play to enhance the resilience of households and communities, with different assets and coping strategies (Le Masson, Norton and Wilkinson, 2015).



BOX 27: SELECTED AU COMMITMENTS TO RESILIENCE AT THE CONTINENTAL AND INTERNATIONAL LEVELS

At the continental level:

- AU Agenda 2063 framework (AU, 2015b) refers to resilience in its Aspiration 1, “**A prosperous Africa, based on inclusive growth and sustainable development**”, along with the goal on transformed economies (including diversified and resilient economies), and a final goal on environmentally sustainable and climate-resilient economies and communities, including actions on natural disasters preparedness and prevention. The AU Agenda 2063 Framework also identifies the various risks that Africa faces (including conflicts, disasters and so on). It stresses on the importance of risk mitigation based on “the resilience found in African societies and communities; economic diversification, climate resilience and disaster preparedness and prevention; and the priority that Agenda 2063 accords to well-educated citizens underpinned by skills revolution, science, technology and innovation.”
- **Malabo Goal 6** aims at enhancing resilience of livelihoods and production systems to climate variability and other shocks. It targets to ensure that, by 2025, at least 30 percent of farm, pastoral and fishery-based households have improved their resilience to climate and weather-related risks. To achieve this goal investments will have to be made in disaster risk management that enhance planning and recovery from climate risks while building resilience, including disaster preparedness plans; functioning early warning and responses systems; and a weather-based index insurance. Attention will also have to be paid to the coverage of these initiatives. Further, farmers must adopt sustainable land management practices on 30 percent of the agricultural land. The Malabo Evaluation Report highlighted that only one out of the 34 reporting countries is on track due to notably challenges with meeting a too ambitious target of 100 percent of households covered by index insurances.

At the international level, AU is committed to SDGs that include references to resilience in several places:

- SDG 2: Zero Hunger
 - By 2030, ensure that sustainable food production systems are in place and implement resilient agricultural practices that increase productivity. There is also a need to maintain ecosystems that strengthen the capacity for adaptation to climate change, extreme weather, drought, flooding and other disasters and that progressively improve land and soil quality.
 - Adopt measures to ensure the proper functioning of food commodity markets and their derivatives and facilitate timely access to market information, including on food reserves, to limit extreme food price volatility.

Box 27 cont'd

- SDG 1: poverty reduction
 - Implement nationally appropriate social protection systems and measures for all, including the poor, and, by 2030, achieve substantial coverage of the poor and the vulnerable.
 - By 2030, build the resilience of the poor and those in vulnerable situations and reduce their exposure and vulnerability to climate-related extreme events and other economic, social and environmental shocks and disasters.

The following subsections analyse resilience issues and measures, based on gender, with specific separate portions on social protection and resilience-building, and sustainable food practices.

7.1.1 Weather-related risks, conflicts, disasters and gender implications

The impact of weather-related risks, conflict and disasters and coping measures differs according to gender and levels of gender equality.

- **Disasters and conflict situations tend to increase the number of women with household responsibilities, either because they are left behind alone or are forced to flee:** In conflict situations, men and boys are more likely to be engaged in combat and to be socially oriented towards violent masculinity. During climatic and economic crises, men are often the first to migrate to generate income. Women are usually left behind with household responsibilities and carry the load of sustaining the family following the departure of the men. It increases their burden to provide energy, water, healthcare and other services to the household members. It reinforces low literacy, especially among young girls, who are drawn into adult roles while facing greater risks of GBV. On the other hand, recent World Bank information on refugees also states that women and children are more likely to face forced displacement than men and boys. In fact, they are often the first to be displaced.
- **Disasters and conflict tend to destroy rural infrastructure; meanwhile climate-related disaster also tends to threaten access to water and energy.** The workload of women, who are

in charge of collecting water, fuelwood and small-scale marketing of produce, increases when such infrastructure is destroyed. Further, if they have to travel, they are exposed to greater risks of violence and crime.

- **Disasters and conflicts tend to increase GBV.** Conflict situations are often characterized by an increase in sexual violence, of which women and children (both boys and girls) are the first victims. Unemployment or loss of productive livelihoods could also have a negative effect on males and male identities (breadwinner role) and result in sexually aggressive behaviour or GBV. We need to bear in mind that women and girls can and do become involved in the fighting. Often, because they attract less attention they have been used as human shields and bombs. Men and boys can also become victims of sexual violence. However, such incidences are less typical, though they may face stigma and discrimination in accessing help and support.

Women are at the **forefront of providing for the households** in case of disasters and their very limited assets make them more vulnerable:

- **FHHs are generally more vulnerable to risks.** They usually have few assets, endowments and manpower to cope with such risks (CGA of Mali, Niger). The specific analysis of livestock data reveals that these households have less livestock, which plays a key role in resilience.
- **Rural women often find it harder to access resources and income,** making them more vulnerable and more likely to **take risks in their coping strategies.** With regards to the capacity to generate emergency funds, the gender gaps range from 20 percent to 30 percent.

Women and men benefit equally, but little from government transfers (see Table 10). The gender gaps that are seen are similar to gaps seen for differences in levels of education, poverty as well as between rural and urban areas.

- **The high level of informality of women's activities** tends to exclude them from formal social protection and insurance mechanisms,²⁴ and constrain their access to financial services. They often have informal and precarious activities and, therefore, are not beneficiaries of the few social protection programmes associated with formal work, such as unemployment insurance and pension systems. When insurance mechanisms exist, conditions often exclude women because of the size of the enterprise and the low level of literacy. Additionally, lack of access to credit and financial inclusion can inhibit consumption smoothing in times of crisis.
- Women's limited capacity to cope with risks also results in their **nutrition and assets being more affected than that of males in case of a food crisis. Several gender profiles reported that women tend to sacrifice their own food portions** in case of a food shortage. In addition, their personal livestock is often sold first, while the responsibility to find additional resources may also fall on them. For instance, in South Sudan, **women and the elderly are particularly**

vulnerable, as children and working men are fed first. Women bear the burden of foraging for increasingly scarce wild foods in arduous terrain and dangerous conditions. Pregnant and lactating women are often affected by the psychological stress of providing food for the family, to the extent that it affects the breastfeeding of infants and their nutritional status.

On the other hand, women can make a very positive contribution towards resilience-building:

- **They have specific coping mechanisms** that are not considered when planning adaptation and resilience programmes. Women have devised specific ways of coping during lean seasons such as vegetable farming on riverbeds and wage work on commercial farms. For example, **in Sierra Leone**, a first crisis management programme provided seeds only to heads of households, effectively excluding support for women's activities and reducing the impact in terms of resilience. A second phase distributed seeds to individuals and allowed men and women to resume their activities, strengthening their resilience. **In Burkina Faso**, gender analysis of coping mechanisms showed that women had specific strategies in terms of agroforestry, mixed farming, soil conservation, food storage, migration and using crop residues.

Table 10: Capacities to come up with emergency funds and benefits of government transfers

| | AU region | % male | % female | % population | % of people having less than primary education | % from 40% poorest | % rural |
|------------|---|--------|----------|--------------|--|--------------------|---------|
| NA | % who cannot come up with emergency fund | 39% | 51% | 45% | 54% | 59% | 49% |
| NA | % received government transfers | 5% | 5% | 5% | 5% | 5% | 6% |
| SSA | % coming up with emergency fund: not possible | 49% | 58% | 53% | 59% | 65% | 56% |
| SSA | % received government transfers | 6% | 6% | 6% | 6% | 6% | 6% |

Source: Global Findex Database, 2017 dataset includes data from four countries in Northern Africa and 30 in SSA and author's calculations.

²⁴ But not from cash and work employment programmes that increasingly target women

- Women often have **the primary role to feed the family and their subsistence production** and income-generating activities play a key role in ensuring food security throughout the year. However, such small-scale subsistence production is often undervalued.
- **Women are more likely to use their income for greater household welfare.** Studies suggest that women are more likely to use resources for the well-being of the entire household, especially their children, in comparison to their male counterparts.
- Women tend to **dominate small-scale and informal marketing channels and informal border trade.** They have a key role to play to move products quickly from surplus to deficit zones. To achieve that, it is important to reduce specific gender constraints in terms of access to market information and mobility.
- Women in pastoralist communities play an important role in **dairy production, which is a crucial element of the diet, nutritional status and as a source of income for pastoralist communities.** In some communities, such as **in Somalia**, women do most of the work of slaughtering animals in butcheries, which needs to be taken into account when designing animal destocking activities. In most pastoralist communities, women are the ones dealing with processing and drying of meat for consumption and/or to sell on the market.

7.1.2 Resilience-building and disaster risk reduction policy interventions and gender considerations

Considering the challenges faced by women and their potential roles to enhance resilience, it appears key to mainstream gender properly along the different resilience mechanisms that cover reinforcement. This includes: (i) creating an enabling environment (govern risks and crisis along legal, policy and institutional systems and regulatory frameworks); (ii) building monitoring and alert mechanisms to measure vulnerability, resilience, risks and provide early warnings; (iii) implementing risk and vulnerability reduction measures at the household and community levels; and (iv) setting up early warning and response mechanisms to prepare for and manage responses when crises occur.

(i) Enabling environment that will cover risks and crisis along legal, policy and institutional systems and regulatory frameworks

If resilience-building and disaster risk reduction policies, strategies, plans, and institutional frameworks incorporate and mainstream gender, their effectiveness will increase manifold. The **Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction, adopted in 2015**, recognizes the special role that women can play in resilience and disaster management: “Women and their participation are critical to effectively managing disaster risk and designing, resourcing and implementing gender-sensitive disaster risk reduction policies, plans and programmes. Further, adequate capacity-building measures need to be taken to empower women for preparedness as well as to build their capacity to secure alternate means of livelihood in post-disaster situations.” In addition, such plans shall address women-specific concerns and roles in preparing and coping with such risks.

Equally, within a humanitarian context post-disaster/crisis interventions, there is need to take on board **differentiated needs of different genders and age groups.** For instance, the **NAIP of Malawi** takes into consideration such needs and includes specific activities to support the development of gender-responsive guidelines for sensitive disaster preparation and response strategy.

(ii) Monitoring and alert mechanisms to measure vulnerability, resilience, risks and provide early warnings

The monitoring and alert mechanisms include several dimensions, and all of them must mainstream gender to facilitate the design of interventions based on actual gender analysis:

- **Information and early warning systems** on food and nutrition security and threats need to collect sex and age-disaggregated data, including data on intra-household elements to help design targeted action. In addition, the communication strategy should ensure that both men and women receive the required information. This makes it necessary to identify and address specific communication barriers that women or men face, including ones related to language, literacy, access to radio programmes, social networks, and so on).

- The monitoring and anticipation of food production **shall take into account subsistence production for women and gender differences in expected yields.**
- **The monitoring of household food security, vulnerability assessment and household**

surveys shall include both specific analysis on FHHs and intra-households data to capture gender household dynamics and better identify specific issues related to women, and the capacities to be leveraged to mitigate the food crisis.



BOX 28: EXAMPLE OF GENDER INTEGRATION IN RESILIENCE-MONITORING AND ALERT MECHANISMS

RIMA (Resilience Index Measurement and Analysis). RIMA is an innovative quantitative approach that measures household resilience to food insecurity. It aims to explain why and how some households cope with shocks and stressors better than others do. Such a tool provides qualitative in-depth understanding of **household dynamics** and their capacity to deal with shocks, including gender differences. Resilience analysis can reveal in different contexts that women may have weaker resilience because they have fewer assets and less access to coping mechanisms (FAO, 2016b). AUC is considering using RIMA as an indicator in measuring the progress that countries have made in building resilience against Commitment No.6 of the Malabo Declaration within the monitoring and reporting framework of the Biennium Review Report 2020.

In Sudan, following the El Niño events, a gender-sensitive evaluation and needs assessment was undertaken, which revealed that the livelihoods from FHHs were the most affected. As the women themselves identified the need to replace livestock lost due to El Niño, the intervention supported the most vulnerable households with breeding dairy goats that secured the family's access to milk and micronutrients, while also providing an income from the sale of milk. The assessment also identified the need to provide fuel-efficient stoves to women. In a crisis situation, displaced populations tend to compete for fuel resources that have become scarce, leading to both conflict and longer and riskier time spent by women in gathering fuel wood (FAO, 2016e).

At the global level, efforts have been made for enhanced gender mainstreaming in resilience information systems

- **The Integrated Food Security Phase Classification (IPC)** has been implemented in over 40 countries, including 32 countries in SSA. It helps to classify regions according to comparable and agreed level of food security risks, from *minimal* to *famine*. It also serves to identify **priority response objectives specific for each phase, from building resilience to protecting livelihoods to saving lives through averting famine.** Such frameworks build on different analysis, including household surveys that help identify levels of poverty and vulnerability to various risks. Gender analysis is supposed to cut across the entire IPC Analytical Framework. In some respects, gender can be considered, along with age, wealth group, ethnicity, and others, as already included in the IPC vulnerability framework. Given the pronounced and nearly universal effect that gender can have on household food security analysis, the Analytical Framework should include a gender-based analysis. However, the summary bulletin and indicators rarely address gender.
- The Inter-Agency Standing Committee (IASC) is the primary mechanism for inter-agency coordination of humanitarian assistance. It is a unique forum involving the key UN and non-UN humanitarian partners. It has set up a gender standby capacity project to reinforce gender-mainstreaming capacities across emergency responses, including one officer in charge of strengthening capacities for sex- and age-disaggregated data analysis on food needs.



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(iii) Risk and vulnerability reduction measures at the household and community levels

Resilience-building measures include the reduction of vulnerability and **risks at the household and community levels**. It entails the promotion of **sustainable and climate-resilient agriculture** that is sensitive to women-specific roles and constraints and works towards strengthening their livelihoods along the **value chain**.

In addition, **some programmes aim more particularly to improve women's productivity**, especially since they are responsible for family meal preparation and ensuring that the food is nutritious (see Box 29, Rwanda, Burkina and Cameroon). Building on a gender-sensitive situation assessment, interventions may also support women in executing their roles to collect fuel wood and cook (for instance by introducing an improved stove). Often, due to environmental damages and on-going **conflict**, women have to venture far from their homes to collect fuelwood, exposing themselves to the risk of physical and sexual violence. The amount of time women dedicate to fuelwood collection and water collection adds up and reduces time for more important and essential activities like childcare (see Box 29, South Sudan).

Several **types of initiatives aim at securing food supply throughout the year and partly smoothing prices through the building of food reserves**. These reserves can also be linked to credit, facilitating the

management of cash as well as increasing product availability during the lean season. For instance, warrantage, whereby the stored foodgrain can become a credit collateral. Again, producers can get early cash flow by storing their produce, and selling the produce later during the lean season. The regional food reserves strategy includes explicitly a strategy for local food reserves, which requires enhanced coordination and can benefit from the inclusion of women (see Box 29, Mali).

Another promising approach developed by FAO is the **Caisse de resilience (CdR)**. It is an integrated community resilience building approach that aims to reduce risks and vulnerability through three mutually reinforcing pillars covering (i) the technical dimension (for example a farmer field school to build technical capacities); (ii) the financial dimension (development of inclusive financial services and required partnership); and (iii) the social dimension (support households' social capital and collective action capacity, for instance through the formation and capacity-building of groups). The integrated and participatory communitarian approach of the CdR enables to consolidate communities' resilience capacities and strengthen social cohesion to shocks and crisis. This approach supports gender equality and women's empowerment by capitalizing on women's strengths and providing them meaningful opportunities to participate in resilience building (see Box 29, Central Africa).



BOX 29: COUNTRY EXAMPLES OF GENDER-SENSITIVE VULNERABILITY REDUCTION STRATEGIES

There are several examples of gender-sensitive programmes for the development of resilience/survival vegetable gardens and small livestock breeding around huts. Examples of these include **Rwanda's** one cow programme, gardens with nutritious plants like moringa and baobab in **Burkina Faso** (FAO, 2016b), school canteen supply programmes (**Rwanda**), and nutritious product development (local fortified porridge industry, for example in **Cameroon**). There are also initiatives to strengthen women's education on nutrition.

In Sudan, as a result of the combination of environmental damages and on-going **conflict**, women have to travel up to 13 kilometres three times a week to harvest the necessary fuelwood for cooking in Darfur. In addition, such travel exposes them to various risks, including gender-based violence. **Fuel-efficient stoves** reduces fuel consumption per meal and cuts smoke emissions from traditional fires used inside poorly ventilated dwellings. Local production and sales of fuel-efficient stoves also becomes an income-generating activity for women. Evaluation of fuel-efficient stoves in **Darfur**, confirmed that improved mud stoves have a beneficial impact in terms of enhancing livelihoods, nutrition and health, forest conservation and environmental protection, fighting climate change by reducing carbon emission, and reducing sexual and gender-based violence. Using fuel-efficient stoves increases the resilience of the livelihoods of groups at risk, especially for the most vulnerable women and internally displaced populations living in camps. <http://www.fao.org/emergencies/fao-in-action/stories/stories-detail/en/c/396956/>

In Mali, the federation of women's associations of Kayes brought together 40 associations of 9 500 women. Thanks to external support, the federation obtained a warehouse with a storage capacity of 600 tons and working capital that allowed it to store, buy from producers' organizations, and sell at lower prices during the lean season and supply raw materials to the members of the federation engaged in agrifood processing. The federation managed to make a profit of about USD 21 000 over nine rotations.

In Central Africa, CdR is helping women's groups to strengthen their agricultural activities. For instance, it helped the formation of women's groups to develop poultry activities. Women received training, initial stock of chicken and feed, veterinary products and inputs for agricultural activities. After successful collective production, they were able to generate benefits and help members start their own poultry activities. In addition, they put in place a saving and credit association that enabled members to save and obtain credit to expand their activities.

(iv) Gender, preparedness and response mechanisms to prepare for and manage responses when a crisis occurs

Once disasters strike, many productive assets, such as seeds, livestock and fishing gear, are lost. **Emergency and rehabilitation measures** help families protect their remaining assets and restart activities to avoid loss of livelihoods that would lead to destitution and famine. Preparedness requires contingency planning, ensuring that vital supplies – such as livestock vaccines, fodder reserves

and seed stocks – are available in disaster-prone areas, backed by local extension workers ready to support communities. Once a crisis hits, it is crucial to assess the impact and identify the needs of the vulnerable families.

Such **measures need to take into account the different roles that women and men play**, their livelihood activities and specific vulnerabilities. It requires gender-sensitive diagnosis. Further, women's participation is an important part of the solution as seen in the case of South Sudan

(see Box 29). For instance, FAO's cash plus support programme provides unconditional cash transfers plus livelihoods inputs and training to address the needs of the most vulnerable families, often targeting more FHHs. The **CGA of Sierra Leone** includes an example of how an agricultural rehabilitation programme was ineffective because gender roles were not addressed and seeds were distributed to HHs without fully analysing who is in charge. The seeds were distributed to male household heads and women were excluded. The programme did not factor in that often, women grow different crops and require different sets of tools and seeds. The first phase of the programme failed. Later, Care International distributed seeds to all adults rather than only household heads. Women received seeds of the crops that they were growing, and this contributed to their income generation and empowerment alongside men.

7.1.3 Social protection, safety nets and gender

Social protection encompasses initiatives that provide cash or in-kind transfers to the poor, protect the vulnerable against risks and enhance the social status and rights of the marginalized – all with the overall goal of reducing poverty and economic and social vulnerability. Social protection includes three broad components: social assistance, social insurance and labour market protection. Social assistance programmes include conditional or unconditional cash or in-kind transfers or public works programmes. Social insurance programmes are contributory programmes that provide cover

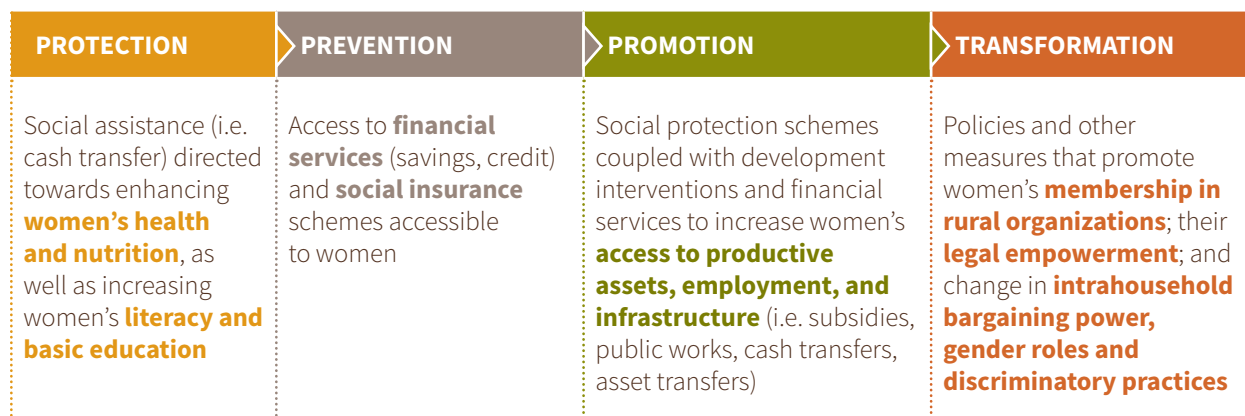
for designated contingencies affecting household welfare or income. Labour market programmes provide unemployment benefits, build skills and enhance workers' productivity and employability (FAO, 2015b).

Permanent and temporary social protection schemes play a key role in building the resilience of a population as they can help families meet minimal consumption needs during periods of crisis without selling their assets and resorting to risky coping mechanisms.

7.1.3.1 Multiple positive outcomes of gender-sensitive social protection

Social protection schemes that favour women have a greater and more beneficial net impact on food security and nutrition. Programmes that are gender-sensitive reduce women's time constraints and strengthen their control over income, thereby enhancing maternal and child welfare. This is especially important because maternal and child malnutrition perpetuate poverty (FAO, 2015b). In many of the cases studied, strong positive results were observed in children's health and nutritional condition as well as school attendance; outcomes that are particularly desirable for child development since they help break the intergenerational transmission of poverty (O Campos, 2015). In Lesotho, the Child Grant Programme increased the odds for girls to go to secondary school more so than for boys (FAO, 2016d). Further, **all social protection measures can play a role in women's empowerment** (O Campos, 2015; see Figure 42).

Figure 42: Linkages between social protection interventions and women's empowerment



Source: O Campos, 2015.

A cross-case qualitative study of six cash transfer programmes in six African countries confirmed such specific positive outcomes, but highlighted differences across countries according to socio-economic and cultural constraints (Fisher *et al.*, 2017).

- Generally, **positive gender differentiated impact was noted**, in part because poor women are heavily dependent on casual labour and cash transfers help them to hire such casual labour and in part because the greater number of beneficiaries are women.
- **The impact on productive activities on and off the farm** greatly depends on existing gender roles, decision-making in households and access and control over productive assets, with differentiations across context. For instance, in Tigray Region (Ethiopia), FHHs could not farm due to cultural norms against women ploughing. However, in Daerete Kushet (Ethiopia), women could farm independently by employing male labour.
- Cash transfers could help improve women's capability and decision-making power but it does not reduce their work burden, as they reallocate the time saved on casual labour on reproductive and productive tasks. It also did not transform existing patriarchal norms, as it is rarely an objective of these programmes to bring about change in mindsets. However, where transfer mechanisms targeted FHHs and when women controlled income and profits, they could make decisions on their own.
- **Cash transfer could also help reinforce women's social capital** as it enables them to participate in collective programmes. For instance, in many African communities, labour-intensive cropping activities may be done collectively, with neighbours coming together on one field. However, to benefit from such collective labour, one needs to be able to supply food and drinks to feed the people coming for work. Earlier, poor women were unable to provide such food and drinks and therefore could not participate in such exchange of labour.

7.1.3.2 Integrating gender in social protection programmes: modalities and examples

A gender perspective in social protection means understanding the different types of risks and vulnerabilities to which women and men are exposed as well as the limitations imposed on them because of the social roles they have to play. A gender-sensitive risk and vulnerability assessment will reveal the biases. For example, if women do not have access to a private mobile phone, payments made to them may be diverted. Also, gender analysis needs to acknowledge that women are not only caretakers of children but also key contributors to income and food security and tend to use a larger share of their income to cater for household food and education needs.

Schemes can address both women's vulnerabilities as well as the existing gender gaps when it comes to access to resources and opportunities **by adding special features and linkages with services** and other rural development interventions:

- For example, **cash delivery in cash transfer programmes** should take into account women's mobility constraints. Cash transfers can be delivered automatically through mobile phones or bank accounts; alternatively, they can be done during community gatherings or market days to avoid increasing women's time constraints.
- **Cash-based programmes** linked to productive support can help households build and develop their productive activities by helping beneficiaries invest in agricultural assets, acquire inputs and farm outputs, and spend more time on the family farms (instead of looking for waged work to meet immediate cash needs). These programmes can also prevent risk-coping strategies that deplete household productive assets, for example selling assets (FAO, 2013b). When well targeted and paired with community sensitization and women empowerment approaches, they can directly contribute to women's economic empowerment.
- **Public work programmes** can provide benefits in three ways: wage transfers, assets created, and the work experience, skills and training transferred.

Such programmes can thereby contribute to bridge gaps in areas like cash incomes, levels of assets and skills. If insufficient attention is paid to gender, wage may be, in part, controlled by the male head of the household. Further, employment may, in fact, contribute to overloading women with work or reducing their income-generating capacities since they will have to manage domestic, care and productive work (evidence from **Rwanda Vision 2020 Umurenge Programme (VUP) work programme**, FAO, 2016d).

7.1.3.3 Gender and social protection across NAIPs and countries

The gender review of 38 NAIPs showed that, most often, **women are considered more vulnerable and are often seen as priority targets, especially pregnant and lactating mothers**. However, regional and national investment programmes rarely adopt an integrated approach beyond such targeting. In addition, social protection measures are not widely available. However, we can quote several positive examples that mainstream gender (see Box 30).



BOX 30: EXAMPLE OF GENDER INTEGRATION IN SOCIAL PROTECTION PROGRAMMES IN AU

Ghana's Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty (LEAP) programme is an example of social protection in agriculture with predominantly women farmers being the beneficiaries. It is a social cash transfer programme that provides cash and health insurance to the extremely poor households across the country. Its main aim is to alleviate short-term poverty and encourage long-term human capital development. It was launched in 2008 as Ghana's flagship programme of the National Social Protection Strategy and was implemented by the Ministry of Gender, Women and Social Protection. As of 4 April 2018, it covered all the 254 districts nationwide, with 213 044 beneficiary households, which translates into about 937 904 individuals, including 56 percent women. The Protection to Production Programme of FAO (PtoP) implemented an evaluation study of LEAP and showed that it led to an increase in on-farm activities (<http://leap.gov.gh/>).

In Mali, FAO provides seeds coupled with cash transfers. The programme **targets women who need to generate income during the lean season**, as men are working in the fields and no cash is available for household expenditure. As part of the programme, beneficiaries are also enrolled in Agro-Pastoral Field Schools (APFS) to learn good agricultural and pastoral practices to tackle the impact of climate change. They are also enrolled in a Village Savings and Loans Association (VSLA) to strengthen their management and financial capacities (FAO, 2016).

In Rwanda, several programmes aim to reduce malnutrition and enhance resilience through social protection mechanisms that pay specific attention to women and FHHs. These include: (i) support for growing nutritious home gardens; (ii) fortified food production; (iii) programmes like one cow per family and one cup of milk per child, which has provided nearly 300 000 cows to poor families, including 38 percent of FHHs, and helped them raise their incomes and consume a more nutritious diet. In addition, the country has developed programmes to supply school canteens with milk, helping 87 000 beneficiaries. A gender-sensitive assessment of Rwanda's VUP work programmes enabled an analysis of the impact of the programme on women's economic empowerment and agency at the household and community levels. The findings were used to inform a redesign of the programme to benefit more women (FAO, 2016d).

Box 30 cont'd

▶ **In Ethiopia**, the government has various support mechanisms that benefit women. These include a social insurance scheme, a food security programme, a national nutrition programme, support to vulnerable children, health insurance, community-based support and Disaster Risk Management (DRM). The Productive Safety Net Programme (PSNP) provides 8.3 million chronically food-insecure households, in 319 woredas, with predictable cash and/or food transfers during the lean months to smooth consumption in these households. It helps them protect and grow their assets, thus improving their resilience to shocks and resulting in their graduation from the programme.

The Protection to Production Programme of FAO, implemented in partnership with the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), national research institutions and the national governments of seven countries – **Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Lesotho, Malawi, Zambia and Zimbabwe** – has generated evidence related to the economic and productive impact of national cash transfer programmes in the region. It has provided a solid base to show how cash transfers can help the poor and marginalized families build assets, empower themselves and become economically productive. Programme evaluation has revealed the linkages between social protection programmes, productivity, women empowerment and gender equality. <http://www.fao.org/economic/ptop/home/en/>

7.2 Resilience to climate change variability and enhancement of climate change adaptation and agricultural sustainability

Agricultural production is strongly dependent on climatic conditions and the status of natural resources, especially in Africa, where most livelihoods depend on the exploitation of natural resources (agriculture, forestry, fishery, and so on). Recent climate change trends include general warming and changes in rainfall patterns, with more violent/unpredictable events and increased water stress, especially in semi-arid areas. Agriculture being the mainstay of the economy and the countries' low adaptation capacity makes them all the more vulnerable to the impact of climate change. Yet, due to the high forest cover, several tropical African countries also have a considerable role to play in the fight against global warming. They will have to balance out exploitation of forest resources to meet the needs of local populations with preservation and ensure sustainable and inclusive development.

Beyond climate change, Africa faces **several environmental challenges**, notably land degradation and desertification, deforestation, pollution, and biodiversity loss.

As highlighted in the 2018 *State of Food and Agriculture*, “**climate variability and extremes are a key driver behind the recent rises in global hunger and one of the leading causes of severe food crises**. The changing nature of climate variability and extremes is negatively affecting all dimensions of food security (food availability, access, utilization and stability), as well as reinforcing other underlying causes of malnutrition related to child care and feeding, health services and environmental situation. The risk of food insecurity and malnutrition is greater nowadays because livelihoods and livelihood assets – especially of the poor – are more exposed and vulnerable to changing climate variability and extremes” (FAO et al., 2018).

Adaptation and mitigation of climate change are high on the policy agenda in several international and regional frameworks but at the continental level they do not always address gender prominently (see Box 31).



BOX 31: POLITICAL AND FINANCIAL COMMITMENTS TO GENDER AND CLIMATE CHANGE

At the continental level

- Agenda 2063 considers that Africa shall address the global challenge of climate change by prioritizing adaptation while participating in global efforts for climate change mitigation that support and broaden the policy space for sustainable development on the continent.
- Africa Climate-Smart Agriculture (CSA) Alliance aims to scale up the adoption of CSA practices to empower 6 million smallholder farmers by 2021. So far, gender is not yet a central issue.
- The Malabo Declaration includes Objective 6, which commits to strengthen resilience in livelihoods and production systems to climate variability and other related shocks. It targets to make 30 percent of the households resilient to climate and weather-related shocks and bring 30 percent of the agricultural land under sustainable practices. Again, gender is not a prominent parameter.

At the global level

- The United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) oversees efforts regarding climate change adaptation and mitigation. Since 2012, ‘gender and climate change’ has been a stand-alone agenda item; a gender focal point has been established and there is an Africa Working Group on Gender and Climate Change. The Paris Agreement, adopted during the Convention of the Parties 21 (COP21), calls on parties to implement gender-responsive adaptation and capacity-building actions. The G8 adopted an action plan for gender equality in Bonn in 2017 to ensure women’s participation in COP conferences, develop gender-sensitive climate policies, implement gender-sensitive adaptation and capacity-building actions, and ensure full and equal participation of women in national delegations, and knowledge and capacity-building activities.
- SDG 13, which states “Take urgent action to combat climate change and its impacts” includes Goal 13b to promote mechanisms for raising capacity, and including gender.
- The Global Alliance for Climate-Smart Agriculture (GACSA), launched at the UN Climate Summit 2014, is a voluntary association of stakeholders to facilitate adoption of CSA. Gender is an important cross-cutting topic.

In addition to such commitments, **climate change financing has strong gender targets and requirements** that provide incentives to integrate gender into most programmes. FAO, IFAD and World Bank have developed a set of normative and capacity development materials to facilitate gender mainstreaming in climate change through raising gender awareness, capacity development, and specific guidance to integrate gender into Nationally Intended Determined Contributions and National Adaptation Plans and within monitoring and evaluation frameworks (FAO and World Bank, 2017).



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7.2.1 Gender and climate change in Africa

In Africa, more women depend on agriculture and food production as a source of livelihood than men, but they have less access to irrigated land and other resources. Therefore, their livelihoods are more affected by climate change than men's are.

- Almost all country gender assessments state that **women are specifically vulnerable to climate change and environmental degradation.**

Climate change can be expected to lead to **greater frequency of flood conditions, and deteriorating water availability and quality** – with especially severe effects on women and girls. It will mean greater workloads, more time spent queuing, and walking longer distances to find water, thereby increasing exposure to the possibility of sexual assault. These burdens imply heavy social and economic costs in terms of time that could otherwise have been used for girls' education and women's employment (AfDB, 2013).

- **Deforestation reduces women's incomes in terms of non-wood forest produce.** In addition, it also increases the time spent by women and girls to gather wood. A study in **Malawi** found that deforestation was forcing elderly women to walk more than 10 km a day to collect fuel wood. Women spend, on average, 800 hours a year in **Zambia**, and 300 hours a year in **Tanzania** on collecting wood. In East Africa, fuel wood scarcity has led to a reduction in the number of meals cooked in poor households, and this has serious consequences on family nutrition and health. Women face similar issues in West Africa, where deforestation and drought are widespread.
- **Programmes for forest resource management and protection** tend to increase formalization of common property resources like rangelands and forests, and often do not factor in women as they do not have ownership rights. Therefore, their user rights are often not acknowledged and they may lose income from non-wood produce without being compensated.
- Women are **more affected by increased land scarcity, desertification and soil degradation** as they often cultivate marginal land and their access to land is threatened when land scarcity increases. In addition, they may play a role in such land degradation through continuous cultivation and low use of replenishing agro-chemicals.
- **Climate change also affects the cropping calendar, thereby increasing labour constraints for women.** Case studies show that one of the important effects of environmental stress on farming systems is the intensification of women's workloads and decreases in assets of poor households (GACSA practice in Brief 2).

As seen in the section devoted to resilience, **climate change and disasters related to climate change tend to impact women more specifically**. In addition, women have to face specific adaptive challenges, which may be underestimated by support agencies.

Finally, women face certain **context-specific constraints when it comes to adopting climate-smart and land conservation practices**, which often have specific land and labour requirements:

- **Unsecured land access and absence of long-term user rights** prevent several conservation and climate change adaptation practices such as agroforestry that requires ownership of land. Who benefits from conservation agriculture and in what way is contingent on the gender relations within the specific social context, gender roles in decision-making over technology adoption, form of farming currently practiced (plough or hoe-based), access to and control over productive assets, and women's roles in the production system (World Bank, FAO and IFAD, 2015).
- **Women often have limited access to alternative energy for fuel**. Some practices like improved cooking stoves, biomass for energy and biogas can reduce the workload on women. (GACSA practice in Brief 2; WB, FAO and IFAD, 2015).
- **Women have less opportunity in more technologically advanced systems** and less access to inputs, financial resources, technology and extension advisory systems.
- They have **less access to climate information and climate change knowledge** as well. Further, there are barriers in their access to and use of ICT such as mobile phone applications and radio programmes. The reasons for this disparity include a lack of financial resources to secure the use of ICTs, higher levels of technological and language illiteracy among women and girls, and norms that discourage women and girls from using technology (World Bank, FAO and IFAD, 2015).
- **There is insufficient dissemination of information on climate risks and adaptive practices. Gender-targeted services are also needed**. For instance, an intra-household study in Kenya, Senegal, and Uganda reports that

improvements in women's access to information and credit enhance adoption of CSA practices. However, women were less likely to opt for change than men were. The risks and trade-offs specific to women as they decide whether to invest in new practices imply that more targeted support and services that address women's needs are required (World Bank, FAO and IFAD, 2015).

7.2.2 Level of gender mainstreaming in climate change policies and programmes across Africa

Among 38 NAIPs reviewed across SSA Africa, around **70 percent did not mainstream gender into their environmental outputs and activities**. Several NAIPs do promote inclusive governance of natural resource and the protection of user rights of local population. However, they rarely mention women specifically. Further, there are several NAIPs that have not been updated since new agreements on climate change came to force.

At the country levels, we, however, can see more **positive examples of gender integration in climate change adaptation plans**. Over ten countries mainstreamed gender in their climate change adaptation plans and intended nationally determined contributions. Several countries organized detailed gender-sensitive assessments of the potential impact of climate change. Again, several climate change adaptation programmes include gender-targeted actions. For instance, programmes to regenerate land in the Sahel have notably targeted women. In **Niger**, women are the main executors of performance-based payment initiatives. In particular, they have learned to plant contour lines and build stone barriers while men are hired to build larger structures – terraced walls, stone borders on stronger slopes. Women benefited from access to additional restored degraded land, which they cultivate, thereby obtaining increased income. It also results in improved nutrition and food security through the diversity of the crop produced. For instance, since 2011, a group farming a 1.7 hectare site of degraded land has included 170 women, who produce vegetables (okra, senna, sorrel, cabbage and lettuce) and woody plants (moringa, apple of the Sahel, pigeon pea and henna) (FAO, 2016b).



GOALS 1 AND 7

Process, institutions, accountability
and actions





The AU gender strategy (2018) emphasizes the need to reinforce gender management systems, gender institutions, gender accountability and women leadership, voice and participation across sectors. AU agricultural policies are also committed to mutual accountability, participatory processes and reinforced institutions to deliver the results expected. However, they have not explicitly included the reinforcement of gender capacities and the participation of women (see Box 32).

The following subsections will therefore seek to review (i) gender mainstreaming in national and regional CAADP processes and coordination mechanisms (actual inclusion of women and gender in NAIP and RAIP); (ii) gender capacities at the national and

regional levels (institutions and gender management systems); (iii) gender inclusion in accountability mechanisms and statistics, including the bi-annual review report of the AU on the implementation of the Malabo Declaration.



BOX 32: COMMITMENTS RELATED TO ACCOUNTABILITY, INSTITUTIONS AND GENDER MACHINERIES

In June 2018, the STC-GEWE adopted the AU gender strategy 2017–2027. It includes Outcome 3 on effective laws and institutions that notably aim to strengthen the legal environment and gender management and accountability system. It also includes Output 3.3 on institutional gender governance systems, which states that “institutions and organs of the African Union, Member States, Regional Economic Communities (RECs) and civil society have the requisite capacity to implement existing commitments, proactively forecast and address new challenges and demonstrate accountability.” Key priorities include building of **institutional capacity and strengthening compliance** within Member States, RECs and institutions and organs of the AU and integrating gender into strategic partnership platforms. Development of specialized databases, and financial and political support for women’s participation in high-level dialogues and forums is also a priority.

The Malabo Declaration and CAADP Results Framework include several commitments and objectives to enhance accountability and policy processes and institutions.

- **Goal 1 relates to commitments to the CAADP process**, including the drawing up of national plans using a participatory and inclusive approach; enhanced coordination and partnership through a functional multisectoral and multistakeholder coordination body; and strengthening of existing agricultural policies and institutional settings to implement NAIPs to achieve the Malabo Declaration goals. The focus on participation and inclusion implies that national policy processes and mechanisms include women’s voices, but it is not explicitly stated.
- **Goal 7 deals with improving mutual accountability for actions and results.** African Heads of State are expected to foster alignment, harmonization and coordination among multisectoral efforts and multi-institutional platforms for peer review, mutual learning and mutual accountability. Other indicators include the capacity to generate and use statistics for evidenced-based planning and the submission of biennial reports. However, the subindicators do not have a specific requirement to develop sex-disaggregated indicators and to target and reinforce gender-sensitive institutions and mechanisms.

Box 32 cont'd

◀ The first CAADP implementation guidelines (AUC and NEPAD, 2016) did not provide direction to mainstream gender. However, the 2017 guidelines for Malabo biennial reporting (AUC, 2017) include specific gender indicators, notably one on women empowerment and one on women nutrition. In addition, **the latest AU-NEPAD toolkit for Malabo domestication** (AUC and NEPAD, 2018) integrates gender more prominently into the NAIP process and activities. It provides scope for gender review of previous NAIPs and better integration of gender into new NAIPs. Regarding institutions and accountability, it notably suggests the incorporation of gender analysis; definition of gender-specific target for outputs and resource allocations; gender capacity-building for stakeholders and NAIP implementing agencies; development of a gender-sensitive M&E, communication and accountability mechanism; designation of a gender focal person; and developing partnerships with women and youth-led organizations and networks, as well as other partners to mobilize resources and achieve results.

8.1 Gender mainstreaming in national and regional CAADP process and coordination mechanisms

8.1.1 Gender in CAADP process: need to ensure participation and reinforce women's voice

In line with Malabo Declaration's first and seventh goals, **most regions and countries have adopted a participatory process for the development and review of the regional and national agricultural investment plans**. However, it is **difficult to track actual participation of women** and specific women's organizations within such processes as only few countries and regions have incorporated specific quota and parity principles as advocated by the AU gender strategy. The review of good practices reveals that a few countries and regions have adopted the norms regarding minimal quota of women's organizations participation in the CAADP process and coordination committees (for example ECOWAS regulation on women's participation, The Gambia's participatory process, and so on (See Box 33).

In addition to opening the political space to include women's voices, it is also important **to strengthen these voices and promote women leadership** as advocated by the AU gender strategy outcome 3. Specific support is needed to ensure that women representatives have the **capacity to bring the views and concerns of rural women to the table** and influence policy mechanisms. For such participation, it is necessary to support the development of platforms and networks that can effectively support policy processes and to enter into partnerships that ensure women have a role to play. Though many NAIPs include activities to support farmers' organizations to encourage such roles, only a few specify support for women's organizations or mixed-sex farmers organizations to mainstream gender and incorporate women's voices within their advocacy work. ECOWAS's partnership with the ECOWAP Gender Group, a network of women's organizations, producer groups and CSOs dedicated to advocating for gender mainstreaming in the ECOWAP processes is an example. Efforts of farmers' organizations in Western Africa to mainstream gender in NAIPs and RAIPs, and support women's groups is another example (see Box 33).



BOX 33: EXAMPLES OF INITIATIVES TO REINFORCE WOMEN'S VOICES AND THEIR PARTICIPATION IN CAADP PROGRAMME CYCLES

Example of inclusive consultation mechanisms

The current RAIP of ECOWAS has adopted **a very progressive regulation that requires countries to ensure that women are participating in NAIP** programming cycles. However, there are no targets in terms of the percentage of women among the participants.

In The Gambia, the formulation of the NAIP involved the Women's Bureau, the National Farmers' Platform, the National Women Farmers' Association (NAWFA), and the Gambia Women's Finance Association. It identified the needs of women farmers and focused on sectors with active women participation like rice, fishery, value chains, and nutrition. Out of the 18 projects, 2 used the women empowerment approach, while 16 used gender quotas to target women for participation.

Examples of initiatives to reinforce women's voices

At the continental level, networks of civil society organizations (CSOs) play an important role in monitoring country gender commitments and encouraging active advocacy to advance gender mainstreaming. The M&E of these commitments is, for example, one of the missions of the network of more than 55 organizations gathered within the Gender is My Agenda Campaign (GIMAC).

In ECOWAS, civil society and farmers' organizations have formed an ECOWAP Gender Group to advance gender equality and women's empowerment in the ECOWAP processes. The RAIP contains activities to build the capacities of civil society and farmers' organizations to participate effectively in the policy process, with a specific mention of the ECOWAP Gender Group.

Civil society alliances published a guide to integrate gender in NAIP and RAIP (Cultivons, 2016). *Le Réseau des organisations paysannes et de producteurs de l'Afrique de l'Ouest (ROPPA)* also developed guidelines to support its member organizations to participate and influence national and regional NAIPs. The guidelines include gender among the topics (ROPPA, 2017a). In addition, they have developed an observatory of family farms (ROPPA, 2016; see Box 36 and have issued reports highlighting specific constraints that women face and recommendations to improve gender equality and empower women (ROPPA, 2017b). Building on such strong gender capacities, the second generation of NAIPs have quite strongly mainstreamed gender, including specific results and budgets for gender mainstreaming as well.

There is also an example of a partnership to strengthen gender mainstreaming in RAIPs and NAIPs: FAO has joined forces with ECOWAS and ECCAS to implement Technical Cooperation Projects on "Gender-responsive RAIPs and NAIPs for meeting the Zero Hunger Challenge" in Western and Central Africa. The projects, combined with other similar initiatives, have led to the elaboration of national gender profiles of agriculture and rural livelihoods in 42 countries in Africa; capacity development for gender mainstreaming in NAIPs and RAIPs; and elaboration of draft action plans on gender and agriculture for ECOWAS and ECCAS articulated around the key priority outcomes of the RAIPs.

8.1.2 Gender inclusion in institutionalized coordination mechanisms for NAIP implementation

CAADP also emphasizes the need for permanent multi-stakeholders and multi-sectoral coordination. Its reporting guidelines for the Malabo Declaration contains indicator 1.2 on the existence and quality of multi-sectoral and multi-stakeholders' coordination body (AUC and NEPAD, 2017). Such bodies are supposed to include various agencies of government but the guidelines do not explicitly mention gender institutions (social welfare and protection is mentioned explicitly). However, the participation of women and youth organizations is explicitly mentioned in the definition of the indicator, but is not measured in the construction of the indicator. Therefore, in its present form, the indicator does not report on the inclusion of gender in such coordination mechanisms. All 47 countries that are part of CAADP have reported on it and the average score is 48 percent, with similar scores across subregions. Many countries have good scores, but 11 countries report scores below 6 percent (AUC, 2018a).

Regional economic spaces have mostly put in place **permanent coordination and consultation mechanisms** but they do not always specifically include women's organizations and gender institutions like a Ministry of gender for instance.

At the national level, countries often have **some coordination mechanisms** to implement the agricultural policies. Nevertheless, they rarely explicitly include women's organizations and gender institutions. However, several countries have national mechanisms to coordinate gender activities across sectors, including the Ministry of Agriculture. Some are organized by civil society through grassroots organizations, others through multistakeholder platforms and multisectoral gender committees. There are a few examples of gender groups in parliaments to facilitate the adoption of gender-sensitive legislation and policies (for example the Democratic Republic of Congo and Rwanda). In addition, in line with AU commitments to enhance women's representation in decision-making, **some countries have passed bills to ensure inclusive governance**. In the Gambia, the Local Government Act institutionalizes decentralized and inclusive governance, calling for equal representation of women and men in the Village Development Committees, which is the entry point for all development programmes into the communities. In Sierra Leone, the Gender Equality Bill guarantees 30 percent representation of women at all levels of decision-making.

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8.2 Gender machineries and capacities at the national and regional levels to mainstream gender in agriculture

At the AU level, the Women and Gender Development Directorate was created in 2000. A permanent, specialized technical committee and conferences of ministers are dedicated to gender inclusiveness. Gender focal points were set across other directorates, including in the agricultural and rural development directorate. The African Women's Trust fund was established as well. The AU adopted its first gender policy in 2009 and a new AU Gender Strategy has been adopted to succeed this policy in 2018.

The AU gender strategy emphasizes the need **to reinforce institutional gender governance systems at all levels and to provide certification mechanisms** to ensure that they adopt gender-responsive mechanisms. The new CAADP tool kit suggests the designation and involvement of a gender focal point, incorporation of gender institutional capacity building for stakeholders and NAIP implementing agencies, and development and implementation of a specific Gender Action Plan. As seen in the paragraphs that follow, the current gender institutional capacities at the regional and national levels remain unequal and would, therefore, benefit from such recommendations (AUC and NEPAD, 2018b).

Gender institutional mechanisms and gender capacity development vary across the RECs.

- For instance, **SADC has shown a very high level of commitment** by establishing a gender unit in 1996, developing a gender policy in 2007, and drawing up a protocol on gender and development in 2008, which has been adopted by all countries except for Mauritius and Botswana (SADC, 2008). The protocol prioritizes gender mainstreaming across sectors, gender parity in politics and decision-making, reducing GBV, bringing women into the purview of economic development and encouraging strong gender-reporting mechanisms. It also includes affirmative action principles to enforce gender

mainstreaming. The gender mainstreaming tool kit, adopted in 2009, also facilitates gender mainstreaming across sectors.

- **In ECOWAS**, there is a Commissioner for Social Affairs and Gender, who leads the Department of Gender and Social Affairs. There is also a gender technical committee and a gender development centre, but there is no full time gender focal point in the Department of Agriculture. However, the department works closely with the Directorate of Gender and the ECOWAP Gender Group. The Department of Social Affairs and Gender has developed a gender policy and is developing various sectoral gender action plans, including one for the agricultural sector, working closely with the Department of Agriculture. The RAIPFSN which is the second generation RAIP explicitly includes developing gender capacities for countries and regions as an outcome.
- **In ECCAS**, the Secretariat has a unit dedicated to gender, but it is not a directorate and there is no focal point in the agricultural directorate. The RAIPFSN does not include activities to reinforce gender capacities. However, ECCAS has adopted a regional gender policy. ECCAS is developing a gender action plan in agriculture to reinforce gender mainstreaming in the RAIP and NAIP with technical and financial support from FAO.

The review of the 38 NAIPs shows that few countries include gender explicitly in their capacity development programmes (around 12 percent). Yet, if countries **report general progress in gender machinery, they often have very limited capacities** to consistently mainstream gender in agricultural policies. Here are the highlights of the review:

- A Ministry for Gender is mentioned in the plans of almost all countries but most deal with social affairs, and children and women's issues. What is required is **a Ministry/Secretariat of Gender** that has the capacity to coordinate and monitor gender mainstreaming across sectors, including the agricultural sector.
- Almost **all countries have adopted a gender policy** to facilitate and guide gender mainstreaming across sectors (among limited exceptions, Chad has developed a gender policy but has not yet managed to adopt it). On average, at least

half of the countries refer to the agricultural sector and rural development in such gender strategies. **A few countries have developed a specific strategy or action plan to mainstream gender in the agricultural sector** (for instance, Algeria, Benin, Burkina Faso, Ghana, Morocco, Mozambique, Nigeria and Rwanda).

- **Gender focal points/units are needed in every ministry, with well-trained staff** who can participate in every decision-making process and raise awareness among members of the ministry.
 - Most African countries have **gender focal points** in ministries.
 - Gender focal points are **differently organized from individual focal points to directorates. Often there is limited staff and they have little capacity to influence** other divisions and to receive reports from other divisions. However, several countries have stronger structures. For instance, some countries have established directorates or services dedicated to gender mainstreaming (for instance, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Ethiopia, Ghana and South Sudan), while others have specific units or cells (Algeria, Morocco, Mozambique, Niger, Nigeria, Senegal, Sierra Leone, The Gambia and Tunisia). Some

have established commissions or permanent working groups to coordinate gender focal points across agricultural directorates and services (for instance, Algeria, Cameroon, Rwanda and Tunisia).

- Generally, countries report **limited technical and financial capacities**. Several countries mention some training provided on gender mainstreaming, but also state that the technical capacity of such units is low. Overall, most reports deplore **insufficient budgets** to undertake meaningful action. Most NAIPs indeed do not include any budget to enhance gender capacities or mainstream gender in agriculture.
- Gender units often **do not participate in the policy process. Neither is their voice heard nor do they have agency**. Indeed, only few countries explicitly report of such focal points being involved in policy.
- Another challenge is the **representation of women in these institutions**, not only in gender units but also at all levels of responsibility in such ministries. Usually women comprise between 12 and 20 percent of the Ministry of Agriculture staff, often occupying lower positions.

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- **Coordination and partnership with the Ministry of Gender and other sectoral ministries is sometimes weak**, reducing the capacity for accountability (to gender efforts) and hindering adoption of an integrated approach (business and infrastructure). Only five CGAs mentioned an ongoing collaboration with other sectoral ministries.

8.3 Accountability mechanisms at the international and continental levels in the AU

8.3.1 International and continental gender accountability frameworks

African member countries **are part of various international and continental accountability frameworks** related to gender and agriculture, whereby countries are supposed to submit reports regularly (notably CEDAW and Commission on the Status of Women (CSW) along the the periodic reviews of the BPA, SDGs reporting, AU gender

score cards and Malabo reporting; see Box 34). The preparation of such periodic reports often provide the opportunity for joint work with CSOs and external partners and the organization of various policy dialogue and awareness-building events at the national level.

Though each framework is supposed to be aligned, **harmonization is not complete and data is most often weak, which makes such processes difficult**. In addition, in gender accountability frameworks, agricultural indicators remain limited and gender specific indicators and sex-disaggregated indicators also remain relatively limited. However, SDGs encompass most development fields and sectors, and have led to intensive efforts to develop comparable indicators. Progressive large-scale alignment of existing policies and indicator frameworks to such a widely adopted SDG indicator framework could contribute to enhanced harmonization, and facilitate reporting.

Finally, such **accountability mechanisms remain largely voluntary and reports are not regularly submitted**. For instance, regarding CEDAW, 11 African countries have not submitted any report while 6 countries only submitted initial reports in the 1980s. In 2018, 12 African countries have submitted SDG reports. Further, there are no enforcement mechanisms with the exception of CEDAW's optional protocol that includes the first gender-specific international complaints procedure.

General **accountability mechanisms like the above only include a few indicators and targets related to agriculture** and rural women. However, CEDAW has Article 14 on rural women; AU has a gender score card on land and credit; CSW regularly requires reporting on rural women; and SDGs reporting contains several agriculture-related indicators in terms of equal productivity and access to productive resources, including land, and nutrition status of women.

Box 34 reviews such accountability mechanisms in detail, identifying both inclusion of agricultural target in gender mechanisms and gender target in agricultural mechanisms.

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BOX 34: INTERNATIONAL AND CONTINENTAL ACCOUNTABILITY MECHANISMS ON GENDER AND AGRICULTURE

International accountability mechanisms related to gender and agriculture

African countries are committed to various international accountability mechanisms, including targets and reporting mechanisms on rural women and gender in agriculture:

- All African countries have ratified CEDAW except Sudan and Somalia. African countries are therefore **supposed to submit a national report every four years** on the implementation of CEDAW provisions. CEDAW includes Article 14 on rural women (community participation, access credit, living conditions, and so on). The Committee discusses these reports with government representatives and explores areas for further action by the specific country. However, 11 African countries have not submitted any report while 6 countries only submitted initial reports in the 1980s. Most reports are from the 2000s and no country followed up the four-year interval of reporting. However, several countries are more closely following the reporting cycle now, for example, Botswana, Kenya and Rwanda.
- In addition, in 2000, an optional protocol to CEDAW was developed to enhance **enforcement mechanisms** for women's rights, create further public awareness. It makes it mandatory for states to publicize the protocol and procedures and stimulate further change in discriminatory laws and practices. It contains the **first gender-specific international complaints procedure**. Twelve African countries are yet to ratify the optional protocol, notably in Northern Africa (4), Western Africa (4) and Eastern Africa (3).
- **CSW** is the principal global intergovernmental body exclusively dedicated to the promotion of gender equality and the empowerment of women. During the Commission's annual two-week session, representatives of UN Member States, CSOs and UN entities gather at the UN headquarters in New York. They discuss progress, gaps in the implementation of the 1995 Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action, as well as Agenda 2030. The Commission adopts multi-year work programmes and negotiate agreed recommendations. The priority theme in 2018 was on rural women and girls, which is a recurring topic. For instance, in 2012, CSW focused on the **empowerment of rural women and their role in poverty and hunger eradication, development and current challenges**.
- As part of the monitoring and review framework of the SDGs, governments are expected to **put themselves forward for reviews on an annual basis** during the UN High-Level Political Forum (HLPF). Each year, the HLPF focuses on specific goals, promoting accountability, fostering an exchange of best practices and supporting international cooperation. The Forum includes Voluntary National Reviews of the implementation of the SDGs as well as an annual progress report on the SDGs, which is issued by the UN Secretary-General. In 2018, 47 countries, both developed and developing, presented their voluntary reviews, including the following 11 of the 55 AU countries: Benin, Cabo Verde, Egypt, Guinea, Mali, Namibia, Niger, Republic of Congo, Senegal, Sudan and Togo.

AU accountability mechanisms related to gender and agriculture

For accountability, AU **developed a gender scorecard** to facilitate quick and comparable assessment of gender achievements in relation to both its gender strategy and various other gender commitments, including AU 2063. The scorecards focus on economic empowerment

Box 34 cont'd

◀ (employment, business, access to land and access to credit); social empowerment (education and health); and political empowerment (women in parliament and in ministerial positions). These cards, therefore, include one indicator specific to land and another to agriculture (access to credit, education, employment and business). However, they do not measure progress in institutionalizing gender and enhancing national accountability frameworks, which are also part of AU 2009 strategy.

The new AU gender strategy emphasizes the need to “strengthen compliance within Member States, RECs and Institutions and Organs of the AU and integrate gender into strategic partnership platforms”. To enhance accountability and promote good practices, the AU proposes to:

- Implement a **Gender and Institutional Certification Programme** that will cover Gender-Responsive Budgeting, Parity 2025, Gender Responsive Workplace and an M&E platform and database.
- Support civil society funding of CSOs;
- **Publish State of Gender Equality in Africa Report** and an alternative CSO report, and also the African Gender Scorecard;
- Provide **incentive mechanisms like AU Chairperson Gender Achievement Award and AU Gender Brand**.

UNDP has developed **the Gender Equality Seal**, an initiative that certifies companies that have eliminated pay gaps, increased the number of women in decision-making positions, and worked to end sexual harassment on the job. This initiative is already being adopted in some African economic commissions.

8.3.2 CAADP accountability frameworks and gender

The Malabo Declaration and CAADP Result Framework emphasized the need for mutual accountability and peer review mechanisms. The goal was to achieve 100 percent inclusive institutionalized mechanisms and platforms for mutual accountability and peer review. Thirty-two out of 55 countries reported on such indicators, 30 of them having established inclusive institutionalized mechanisms and platforms for mutual accountability and peer review. They also committed to evidence-based policy and the development of capacity to generate and use statistics for evidence-based planning and reporting.

In addition, the leaders committed to **Mutual Accountability to Results and Actions** by conducting a biennial Agricultural Review Process that involves tracking, monitoring and reporting on implementation progress in achieving the provisions of the Malabo Declaration. To implement this objective, the AU Commission and the NEPAD Agency together with the RECs and Member States, in collaboration with partners, have designed, for the first time, a Biennial Reporting Mechanism. They have also established a pool of technical experts, and developed the **“Inaugural Biennial Report on the Implementation of the Malabo Declaration”, which was reviewed by the STC and adopted by the assembly in 2018.**



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The 2018 Malabo evaluation report reviews 43 performance indicators and targets, including **one dedicated to women empowerment (AUC, 2018a)**. **The indicator covers several domains, including access to productive means, decision-making, and so on.** One is dedicated to **women's nutrition** and one mentions **the access of men and women to credit** but only the national averages are reported. The other indicators are not sex-disaggregated. In addition, such indicators are not examined in the executive summary, but only analysed in the annex tables (AUC, 2018a). If country compliance to sub-biennial reporting is high (average score of 92 percent of countries), not all indicators have been equally reported. Gender-related indicators were under-reported, as only 7 countries out of 55 reported on dietary diversity for women and 19 on the women empowerment index (AUC, 2018).

In addition, **the 2018 Malabo Progress Report** (AUC, 2018a) highlights that 47 countries have self-reported on the existence of inclusive institutionalized mechanisms for mutual accountability (indicator 7.2). This indicator measures the existence of an institutionalized mechanism and platform for mutual accountability, supporting evidence-based review and dialogue on the implementation of the NAIP and other agriculture-related commitments.

The average score is 49.5 percent, but very unequal across countries, with several countries reporting zero percent or very low scores, notably in Central Africa, Northern Africa and Western Africa (Angola, Cameroon, Congo, Equatorial Guinea, Gabon, Liberia, Sao Tome and Principe, Sierra Leone, South Sudan, Tunisia and Zimbabwe). As a result, the regional scores are also unequal and Central Africa obtains as low as 4 percent, Northern Africa, 38.2 percent and Western Africa, 56.9 percent. Meanwhile, Southern and Eastern Africa are above 63 percent. However, such an indicator and its construction does not refer explicitly to the inclusion of gender in such inclusive institutionalized mechanisms for mutual accountability.

To conclude, **agricultural accountability mechanisms for CAADP and Malabo contain, at present, too few gender-sensitive indicators and do not explicitly include gender institutions and reviews of specific gender themes.**

The toolkit to domesticate Malabo promotes the adoption of gender-sensitive M&E and accountability systems, but is too recent and does not impact previous reporting guidelines. However, it provides a stepping-stone to encourage rapid progress in the coming years.

8.4 Gender in agricultural M&E systems and statistics

To feed such accountability mechanisms at the continental and international levels (for example, SDG, CEDAW), the existence of gender-sensitive M&E reports and the availability of sex-disaggregated and gender-relevant data is important. Indeed, “sex-disaggregated and gender-relevant data is important for understanding the role gender plays in agriculture production. In addition to providing a way to monitor progress toward greater equality over time, sex-disaggregated and gender-relevant data can broaden our understanding of the roles men and women play in agriculture and reveal differences in the opportunities and constraints men and women face that impact agricultural production. For instance, detailed data on men and women’s time use allows for a deeper investigation into the differences in men and women’s time constraints, and how this impacts men and women’s involvement in agriculture. A better understanding of men and women’s differing roles in agriculture is essential in designing successful policies and programs to increase agricultural productivity, reduce poverty and increase food security” (GSARS, 2017).

The following paragraphs review how gender is currently mainstreamed in agricultural M&E. It also looks at statistics in different countries and then identifies the international and regional dynamics that can contribute to enhanced availability of sex-disaggregated data.

8.4.1 Agricultural M&E systems are not sufficiently gender-sensitive

At the continental level, the Malabo accountability goal includes support for evidenced-based policy, including the generation and use of statistics. Availability and use of statistics is also key to facilitate meaningful accountability mechanisms. Meanwhile comparability of such indicators is key to facilitate peer review and cross sharing of experiences. As **indicated, the Malabo Indicator**

Framework does not explicitly measure the provision of sex-disaggregated indicators nor does it include SDG agricultural indicators that are sex-disaggregated.

If most regional agricultural plans include measures to enhance the provision and use of statistics, such measures **do not always specify the need for sex-disaggregated data, neither do they provide specific targets for sex-disaggregated data.** A good practice would be to include the delineation of activities to reinforce gender statistics, develop information systems and report on gender (see example of ECOWAS in Box 35).

At the national level, most first-generation NAIPs do not have sex-disaggregated indicators and indicators dedicated to gender equality in their monitoring systems. The review of the 38 NAIPs shows that over 65 percent do not consider gender in their M&E systems nor reinforcement of gender statistics. Only around 10 percent have mainstreamed gender relatively consistently (see examples in Box 35).

Only **very few countries mentioned specific participatory processes** to bring on board local rural women’s voice. An interesting example can be seen in Nigeria, whereby M&E is to be conducted at the community level using a participatory approach that will include women and youth as stakeholders. Another very interesting example is **the development of the observatory of family farms by regional farmers’ organizations in ECOWAS** (Box 35). They have already produced two reports that include elements on the rural women’s situation and their needs (ROPPA, 2017b). In addition, beyond agriculture, we have the interesting example of a **gender barometer** in SADC, which reviews achievements on the SADC gender protocol; this was developed by civil society.

Finally, most countries indicated that gender data was little analysed and used to inform policy in a consistent manner. Only three CGAs reported some kind of gender assessment (Burkina Faso, Nigeria and Senegal). Therefore, we can conclude that most first generation NAIPs are not **informed by explicit gender assessment.**



BOX 35: EXAMPLES OF GENDER-SENSITIVE M&E

The RAIPFSN of ECOWAS includes **gender-sensitive monitoring systems and a regional gender observatory** in its result dedicated to gender.

Rwanda has published a very detailed indicator framework to mainstream gender in its monitoring systems. Manuals, guidelines and software have been developed and a group of specific focal resources trained.

In Nigeria, gender audits have been carried out by the gender task team to provide a sector baseline and a prioritized action plan with gender-sensitive indicators.

The Gambia has produced a very detailed M&E system aligned with ECOWAS, with 39 out of its 57 indicators sex-disaggregated.

Togo has a specific strategy to mainstream gender in planning and evaluation of NAIP 2016–2018. The gender focal cell coordinates gender screening, sex-disaggregated reporting and impact assessment to better understand women’s constraints and measure the reduction of gender inequality.

In Tanzania and Zambia, the M&E framework mentions that indicators shall be sex-disaggregated as much as possible.

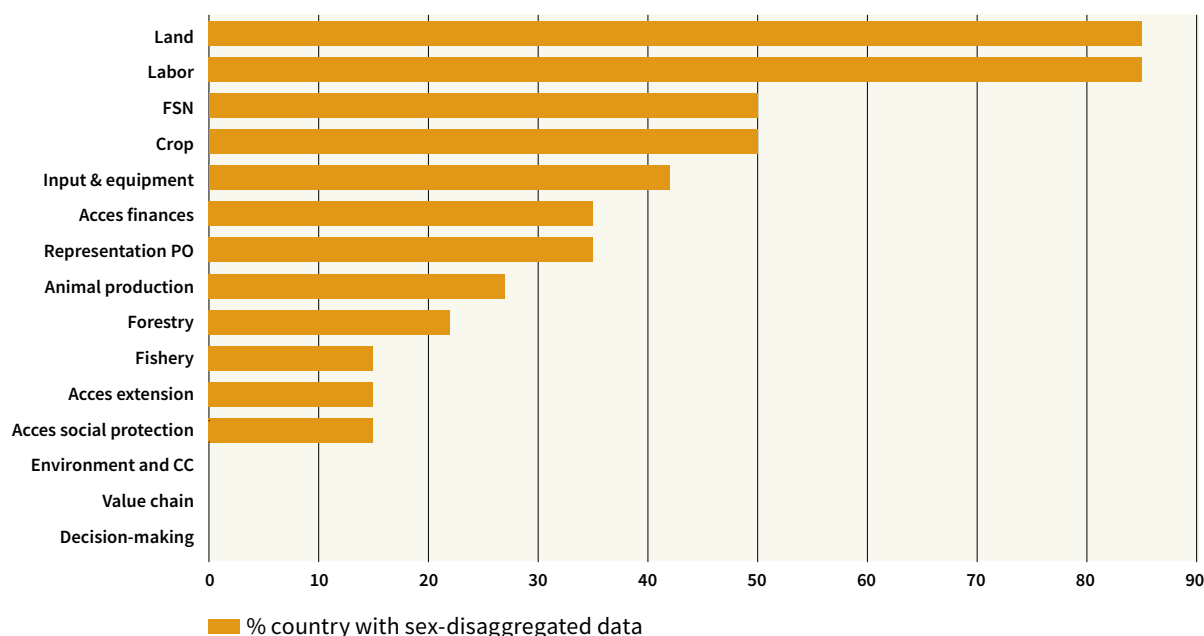
However, in **Ethiopia**, only 9 out of 170 indicators are sex-disaggregated.

The 2018 NAIP of Malawi builds on extensive gender analysis and sex-disaggregated data. Several parts of the monitoring framework are sex-disaggregated and related to gender-sensitive targets.

8.4.2 Sex-disaggregated data remain limited in agriculture and do not cover important policy domains

In ECOWAS, a review of sex-disaggregated indicators available at the country level showed that, mostly, only indicators related to land and general employment are sex-disaggregated (see Figure 43). Around 40 percent of countries studied had sex-disaggregated indicators on food security, crops, access to inputs and cooperative membership. There were no sex-disaggregated data on environment and climate change, value chain and agricultural household decision mechanisms. Similarly, the UN pilot evaluation of data available for SDG showed that only 20 percent of the indicators could be readily monitored in six pilot countries, including three in Africa. However, 23 percent are considered easily feasible, meaning that the data source is, in principle, available (UN, 2018).

Even if we can find some **indicators disaggregated according to the head of the household**, it is insufficient and only captures a small part of women’s work and contribution to agriculture. We need **more intra-household data** to analyse women’s contribution within family farms and uncover intra-households dynamics. The GSARS technical report on mainstreaming gender in statistics highlights that “gender analysis based on the sex of the household head has limited validity. More important, comparing these two types of household(s) does not take into account the inequalities between men and women in the household context. Household-level data are hence insufficient to provide information about gender gaps or to inform gender-sensitive policies. More sex-disaggregated data at the individual level are needed to monitor gender gaps in agriculture with a view to establishing policies for gender equity and facilitating economic growth” (GSARS, 2016). Finally, the data present in the country reports were mostly not comparable and could not be compiled easily.

Figure 43: Example of availability of sex-disaggregated data across agricultural sectors in ECOWAS

Analysis of data available in ECOWAS countries shows that over 80 percent of the countries have some data on gender in employment and land ownership. Over 40 percent of countries have sex-disaggregated data on food security, crops access to inputs. There is no data on women and the environment, the value chain and household decision mechanisms.

Source: Review of data in 15 CGAs of ECOWAS.

8.4.3 International and continental efforts to enhance collection of comparable sex-disaggregated data

On 6 July 2017, the UN General Assembly adopted a **global indicator framework to monitor the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development as a voluntary and country-led endeavour. The Member States developed 232 global indicators, which were complemented by indicators at the regional and national levels.** The indicators were compiled from data in the national statistical and data systems.

Fortunately, the international community took the effort seriously, and there were **positive international and regional initiatives** that contributed to better **availability and comparability** of sex-disaggregated data in the region.

- Since the adoption of the 2030 Agenda in September 2015, developing countries have begun a **process to mainstream the SDGs into their national development plans and M&E**

frameworks. Countries have also developed indicator frameworks to review progress towards the goals. In many national statistical systems, the data requirements for the SDG indicators are being added to existing work programmes and to national strategies for the development of statistics. Efforts are also being made to align all statistical efforts to such SDGs.

- FAO leads the **world programme of agricultural census** and issues guidelines to facilitate a comparable census. The latest guidelines for 2020 (2015–2025, released in 2015) integrate gender extensively and have enabled strong progress in the delivery of sex-disaggregated data and gender-sensitive indicators. The compilation of a specific gender report is also encouraged. The outcome is that all recent agricultural census reports address gender issues better.
- GSARS has also been working to develop updated and harmonized methodologies to improve gender statistics as well as develop capacities of countries. Technical reports on gender gaps in

agricultural statistics and guidelines to collect sex-disaggregated data in national surveys are available (for example GSARS, 2016 and GSARS, 2017). The GSARS guidelines offer clear methodologies to collect intra-household sex-disaggregated data on access to various assets, inputs, services as well as encourage the collection of time-use data to estimate gender differences in time allocation. Each section is also articulated with sex-disaggregated SDGs (GSARS, 2018). The strategy is particularly active in Africa and implemented by AfDB and UNECA.

- Within the context of the GSARS, **the Agricultural Integrated Survey (AGRIS) initiative provides guidelines and technical support to enhance the quality and regularity of agricultural surveys.** AGRIS collects sex-disaggregated data on key topics through both the Core and the Rotating Modules. This entails a more refined identification of MHHs and FHHs, and will help to assess women's contribution to agriculture through labour and their access to and control of productive assets, resources and services (GSARS, 2018).

Potential roles of producers' organizations, civil society and advisory services in providing alternative data and space for rural women's voice

To participate effectively in the policy process and adequately represent their members' views, producers' organizations and civil society also require better evidence and data from their grass-roots members. Beyond statistical data, we can identify several other initiatives seeking to bring more visibility to rural farmers, including rural women, incorporate gender into their advocacy work and better target women in their activities. We can identify several initiatives where research and advisory services collect farm and household level data. The data-collection process is in itself a way of reinforcing the capacities of extension agents to understand the beneficiaries' constraints and opportunities (GSARS, 2016c). Other initiatives collect more sex-disaggregated data on women participation as members or executives of the organizations (Examples of ROPPA's work is provided in Box 36).



BOX 36: EXPERIENCE OF THE ROPPA OBSERVATORY FARM IN COLLECTING EVIDENCE ON RURAL WOMEN

In Western Africa, ROPPA has been developing a family farm observatory in partnership with several national initiatives of producers' organizations. For instance, in Senegal, the CNCR has been implementing household surveys with both men and women, helping the different members to better understand the family farm functions and the different allocations of resources and investment to enable them identify pathways to improve their family farm. Data is collected from over 1 000 households to ensure that the diversity of their members is represented. In 2016, ROPPA published its first regional report from the various country studies, analysing both the dynamics of the family farms and actions implemented by producers' organizations, and reviewing policies (ROPPA, 2016). The report stresses that "the role of women is observed through its active participation at all levels of agrosylvopastoral and fish production in the family farm. Despite difficulties, almost all governments have adopted policies to give men and women the same opportunities to access resources. However, the implementation of such policies is experiencing difficulties. The report underlines several indicators of development: the access of young people and women to the family assets (access to the land, the herd, the equipment) and access to remunerative markets; the existence of appropriate technical and financial support; access to qualifying training; recognition of the status of the farmer; and improvement of the rural environment. The report also highlights several subsectors relevant to young people and women in rural areas: off-season market gardening, poultry farming or sheep fattening and processing of livestock, which in most countries constitutes a niche for self-employment for rural women. When setting its priorities for action, ROPPA should propose an analysis of the evolution of the situation of women in the family farms. It must also propose something new related to the status of the family farms to bring recognition to these farms and their different contributing members, including women.



Conclusion and Recommendations



9.1 Summary of gender gaps and constraints faced by women



Women represent over 40 percent of the labour force in agriculture (see Figure 1) and contribute, in addition, in a big way to food processing, marketing, food businesses and household nutrition. The current outlook report shows that women tend to dominate subsistence agriculture, non-timber forest products chains, poultry and small ruminants, and fish processing, in addition to their contribution to the family farms. They also dominate post-harvest activities such as the transformation, conservation and small marketing of agrifood products, mostly in the informal sector. Women also play a crucial but insufficiently recognized role in the management of forest areas and the protection of natural areas. Finally, they are primarily involved in household food and nutrition security through the education and care of children, the preparation of meals and the diversification of household food intake through their home garden and incomes.

A World Bank study of 24 African countries, covering 80 percent of the African population, showed that the proportion of **FHHs increased across the continent**, and now represents 26 percent of all households but with differences across countries and within FHHs. Sixty-two percent of FHHs do not have any residing adult male, (69 percent of female heads being unmarried). When there is a residing male, it is mostly the son or grandson of the female head, more rarely the spouse (only 19 percent). **Those without a residing adult male or a supporting spouse are usually the poorest** (World Bank, 2015).

The regional outlook on gender and agrifood systems **reveals gender gaps in the major indicators that evaluate the achievements of the commitments in the Malabo Declaration.**

The key gender gaps are prevalent in food insecurity and nutrition (see section 4.1):

(i) 25.2 percent of female compared with 23.7 percent of male are food insecure in SSA (FAO *et al.*, 2017)

(ii) Obesity has increased sharply, reaching 17 percent for females against 6 percent for males at the AU level.

(iii) Women and FHHs tend to be more vulnerable to food insecurity and crisis, with less assets and coping capacities; yet they are generally the first to sacrifice their meals and assets to cope with food crisis.

(iv) Women's status and condition is strongly linked to the nutritional status of children. For instance, children of highly educated mothers suffer less from malnutrition compared to children of uneducated mothers.

(v) Thirty-nine percent of adult females suffer from anaemia in Africa. We must bear in mind that adequate nutritional status of mothers (pre-and post-delivery) guarantees the nutritional well-being of their infants, in particular during the first critical 1 000 days of life (from conception to two years of age).

(vi) Food taboos that are detrimental to women's nutritional status are still prevalent in many communities.

In addition, there are marked gaps in productivity, food security and nutrition, and poverty and employment, which undermine the resilience of rural communities to climate change and risks:

- Women's deficits **in agricultural productivity** range between 20 and 30 percent in the SSA (literature review in Mukasa, and Salami, 2016 and section 4.2.1). Closing such gender gaps could increase production and consumption by 1.5 to 10 percent and reduce poverty by 1.2 to 13 percent.
- **Per capita food losses before consumption** are 120 kg to 170 kg/year in SSA, over 180 kg in Northern Africa (see section 4.3). Over 40 percent of food losses occur at the post-harvest and processing stages, which are mostly dominated by women (WB, NRI and FAO, 2011). Gender gaps are key contributors to post-harvest losses, as women have less access to adequate technology and equipment (CGAs of Botswana, Eswatini and Zambia) and they face severe time constraints in meeting post-harvest schedules (Aidoo, Danfoku and Osei-Mensah, 2014).
- Women and FHHs in SSA are at **greater risk of living in poverty** (see 5.1.1). Income earned by women (excluding non-market income) represents between 30 percent (Northern Africa) to 65 percent of male income (UNDP, 2015). On the positive side, though FHHs are generally over-represented in the poorest categories, they have a **faster poverty reduction rate** and have contributed strongly to the recent poverty reduction trends (World Bank, 2015).
- Women and FHHs tend to be **more vulnerable and less resilient** to risk, climate change and environmental degradation. This is because they depend more on natural resources for their income, are responsible for water and fuel wood collection, and have fewer assets and less access to financial services (see 7.1.1). For instance, women have a 20–30 percent gap in capacity to

come up with emergency funds in case of disasters (Global Findex Database, 2017) such as those caused by the Ebola epidemics, the fall armyworm crisis and the drought caused by El Niño. Women also tend to sacrifice their meals and assets when there is a need.

This study systematically reviewed the root causes of existing gender gaps, analysing the **constraints that women face and identifying enabling factors to achieve greater gender equality in agrifood systems**. The transversal analysis shows that gender gaps and constraints in access to productive resources, services, skills, markets and decent jobs lead to serious gaps at the impact level in reaching the Malabo goals. Further analysis shows that such constraints also come from insufficient gender institutional capacities and a weak enabling environment. Constraints and enabling factors have been regrouped by categories corresponding to the CAADP Results Framework and its women empowerment indicator, the AU Gender Strategy and Gender Equality and Women Empowerment Framework and similar frameworks developed in literature (for example, the framework developed in BMGF, 2018).



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Figure 44 summarizes the results of this study's analysis. It also identifies three main categories of factors that will be further analysed in the subsequent subsections:

- The inner white circle represents the **gender gaps in CAADP level 1 impact indicators** related to food security and nutrition, wealth and poverty, productivity, resilience and sustainability.
- The first category (green circle) includes the **direct drivers** of such gender gaps, which include lower access of women to key productive assets, inputs, productive time, finances, knowledge, market, work opportunities as well as unequal distribution of value generated.
- The second category (golden circle) includes the **institutional factors** that contribute to such gaps (part of CAADP level 3 indicator on institutional capacities and inclusive processes, 3.1. and 3.2): weaker capacity of rural institutions to deliver services that benefit women; weaker capacity and agency of women to access such services; insufficient inclusion of women in the governance of agrifood systems; and weaker empowerment of women at the household level, which limits their economic opportunities.
- Finally, the third category (brown circle) includes constraints related to **the enabling environment** that is not sufficiently conducive for gender equality and women empowerment, both in the agricultural sector (policy, investment, legal framework and accountability systems – partly CAADP level 3 indicator 3.3. to 3.6) and outside (rural infrastructure and services, and social context).

Gender icons serve to identify important gender issues that are not specifically addressed in the CAADP Framework but that are major constraints included in the AU gender strategy and most other gender equality and women empowerment frameworks:

Women are less productive than men for a variety of reasons, which include **unequal access to productive resources, services and opportunities for jobs and markets, and unequal distribution of wealth.**

To list out the reasons:

- Insufficient and fragile **access to assets, including livestock and land** (see section 4.2.1). Women often have only short-term land user rights, lent to

them by their husbands or traditional authorities. These fragile land rights can be withdrawn at any time, preventing them from planting trees, developing irrigation and practising long-term conservation practices.

- Women face stronger constraints in their **access to cash income and rural financial services**, which limits their use of productive resources (inputs, technology) and services (mechanization, processing, financial, marketing). In 2017, 51 percent of men as against 32 percent of women owned a bank account in Northern Africa, and 45 percent as against 35 percent in SSA. **Mobile accounts ownership** have doubled in SSA since 2014, with 27 percent of the men and 20 percent of the women having accounts, thereby contributing to women's financial inclusion (see section 2.3.2).
- Women also benefit less from **agricultural services and training**, have constrained access to rural finance and other productive resources (inputs, technology) as well as processing equipment (see sections 4.2.3 and 4.2.5).
- Women face several barriers to participate in **formal and more remunerative value chains** (see sections 5.3.5). They often have small-scale informal businesses, insufficient technical and managerial capacities to adopt required standards, and are concentrated at lower nodes of the value chain, with insufficient access to remunerative public-private partnership.
- **Women are also less educated and literate** (see section 5.2.2), which may limit their management skills, their access to written training programmes and administrative processes (credit access, registration of activities). Literacy rate is higher for youth, in which category the gender gap is lower (70 percent women as against 78 percent men, with parity achieved in Southern Africa; but higher gender gaps are observed in Central Africa and Western Africa) but the situation is likely to be worse in the rural areas.
- Women usually have less access to **diversified and remunerated employment** (see sections 5.2.2). Forty-two percent of women as against 50 percent of men are economically active; 68 percent of women have vulnerable employment as against 56 percent of men; and 11 percent of women are unemployed as against 8 percent of men. They are more likely to be employed in

Figure 44: Key direct and indirect drivers of Gender Gaps (GG) in CAADP impact indicators



Source: Author's elaboration.

agriculture (55 percent as against 52 percent) and have 25 percent less access to waged and salaried work. In six countries, women receive wages 14 to 60 percent lower than what men do in rural areas. Gender gaps also remain for female youth with 15 percent less participation in labour markets (60 percent less in Northern Africa) and 16 percent higher unemployment rates (19 percent of young women are unemployed as against 16 percent of young men).

- Social protection schemes and resilience mechanisms** that favour women have a greater and more beneficial net impact on food security, nutrition and poverty reduction. Further, these measures can empower women. Though most social protection measures tend to include single mothers and lactating mothers among key targets, insufficient attention to gender issues and leadership roles for women in alleviating poverty may limit their effectiveness (see section 7.1.3).

The truth is that most gender gaps relate to **the weak agency of women at the household level and their lack of organizational skills** (see section 5.3):

- Women are **not sufficiently organized** and do not have sufficient **collective capacities to access services**. They also have insufficient leadership and voice to influence policies, programmes and investments. In addition, they participate less in mixed producer organizations and often have lower decision-making power compared to their male counterparts. This lowers their access to inputs, services and markets. Several sectoral analyses also reveal their insufficient technical capacity to produce quality products that meet standards and can enable them access higher value markets, both regionally and internationally. This insufficiency cuts across all major sectors and requires capacity development spanning technical, financial, management and leadership skills.
- **Women's weak empowerment and decision-making within the household and in the community** limit their effective participation in the agricultural sector. In particular, there is low participation of women in household decisions (including household purchase, use of income, decisions on farm sales, and so on); social norms that justify violence against women in the household continue to exist; and there are norms limiting women's access to property, finance, education and limiting their autonomy and mobility. Household patriarchal management imposes greater constraints on their working time. Indeed, women spend 3 to 7 hours more time than men do

on unpaid domestic and reproductive tasks and on the family farm without sufficient recognition. Usually, they can focus on their own activities only after completing the household tasks.

The present study points out that such unequal access to resources and opportunities comes, in part, from the insufficient **gender mainstreaming capacities of rural institutions and services** to adapt their services to women and men's specific needs and priorities (more specifically highlighted in section 8). They often lack female staff and they do not always adopt a gender approach in the design of their interventions. Lack of sex-disaggregated data also constrain the availability of baselines to track progress, and build **gender-responsive targeting and accountability mechanisms**. As a result, services usually target male-dominated sectors (for instance, in general, less than 5 percent of investments go to food processing where women are predominant) or are organized in a way that is not compatible with women's schedules or sensitive to their constraints (for instance, lower literacy and lower mobility).

Further, **gender accountability mechanisms** are weak and cannot implement various gender commitments across institutions. There is also the problem of **insufficient finances and means** for gender mainstreaming (see section 3.2.1). Indeed, despite such strong gender gaps and issues in all the areas covered by the CAADP Result Framework, RAIPs and NAIPs **insufficiently address gender issues**. They rarely integrate a thorough gender analysis based on sex-disaggregated data. The effective participa-

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tion and influencing of women's organizations and gender institutions in the elaboration process of such plans, too, often remains implicit. Only a few NAIPs have specific gender outputs and activities, while most neglect gender issues, with few affirmative actions and inadequate budgets dedicated to their effective implementation. There are not enough incentives for organizations to work and target women. Most countries do not include any measure to strengthen the institutional and technical capacities for gender mainstreaming. Most NAIPs do not address core transversal constraints to women's empowerment in terms of social norms, unequal intra-household dynamics, unpaid care and domestic activities and access to relevant rural infrastructure and services, and decent employment. In addition, activities to reinforce statistics do not include gender. It can be concluded that **accountability to gender equality in the agrifood sector remains weak.**

The report also discusses **transversal constraints that go beyond the agricultural sector but are important to create an overall enabling environment.**

- There is no strong legal environment to enhance enforcement of women's rights (including ownership rights) and reduce discrimination in the agricultural sector.
- **The rural infrastructure is weak.** There is low access to water and energy, which adds to women's workload. Poor road infrastructure and mobility services constrain their mobility and economic activities, while conflicts and associated violence particularly affect women.
- **Social norms and prejudices** have strong implications on women's empowerment and agency at the household and societal levels (see section 4.4.2).

9.2 RECOMMENDATIONS

Persisting gender inequalities in the agrifood sector are not only detrimental for women, but they also constitute a key capability constraint that undermines the full growth potential of the sector. Bridging such gender gaps can help meet the Malabo goals and contribute to greater inclusive growth, poverty reduction, increased employment and enhanced food security and nutrition. Notably, there is evidence that increasing women's

incomes yields important dividends in enhancing the family's nutrition and health, and children's school performance.

Investing in gender equality and women's empowerment in the agrifood sector is a low hanging fruit for achieving Zero Hunger and harvesting sustainable development. If empowered to the same level as men, women can be powerful drivers of change and can lift themselves and others out of poverty, hunger and malnutrition. Gender equality and women's empowerment are, therefore, a critical success factor to achieve Agenda 2063 and the Malabo goals.

To achieve results, significant efforts are required to address the structural causes of gender inequality within and outside agriculture and ensure that agricultural investments equally benefit men and women.

The following recommendations are made to the AU, its member countries and their technical and financial partners:

1. Bring gender to the centre stage in the implementation of the Malabo Declaration to achieve Zero Hunger

Women play key roles in food security and nutrition through their home gardens, their activities in food processing, cooking and feeding the family, and the investment of their income in purchasing food for the family. Studies show that investing in women's education, health and economic empowerment have a stronger impact on food security and nutrition of children than similar investments in men as women tend to spend a larger portion of their income on the welfare of their children. Therefore, gender equality and women's empowerment must be at the heart of food security, resilience and social protection programmes. To achieve a zero hunger generation in Africa, the following initiatives are key:

- **Incorporating gender diagnosis and women's participation** in food security, nutrition and resilience programmes, considering women not only as vulnerable targets but also as key agents for change to achieve zero hunger.
- **Reinforcing knowledge and generating evidence on the relationship between gender and nutrition**, and highlighting **dietary diversity and other good feeding practices.**

- **Implementing gender-sensitive nutrition education programmes** that take into account men and women's role within the household and seek to transform negative social norms that impact women's nutrition, including detrimental food taboos that affect their nutrition.
- **Supporting women to develop and diversify their household garden**, which will contribute directly to household food security and nutritive diversification.
- **Supporting women's cooperatives to develop nutrition-sensitive value chains and domestic nutrition products** (for instance, enriched flour and cakes), and position women as entrepreneurs to supply to the school feeding programmes.
- **Developing specific gender-targeted social protection and resilience programmes.**

2. Scale up women's entrepreneurship and economic empowerment in agribusiness

African leaders should unlock the income-generating power of women by enabling them to operate successful agribusinesses, so that they can supply high-value and differentiated primary and processed agricultural products to the growing urban market. This can be done by:

- **Providing a level playing field** for doing business in the agrifood sector through a more equal distribution of productive resources (including land, inputs, finance and technologies), and access to skills, services, decent jobs and markets.
- **Addressing structural issues** that hamper women's productivity, including the hardships of agricultural production with low and unsustainable levels of mechanization and modernization and lack of rural infrastructure.
- **Establishing agroprocessing facilities** at the local level to reduce food losses, promote decent employment for women and youth and stop distress migration.
- **Promoting large-scale women-owned agribusiness enterprises as well as agribusiness start-ups for young women.**

- **Supporting women's cooperatives and agribusinesses to formally register their business, access market information and create branded products** that are certified and compliant with sanitary and phytosanitary standards.
- **Facilitating market linkages** through encouraging the agrifood private sector to embrace gender-inclusive business models; strengthening local supply capacities; and sourcing products equitably from women- and men-owned cooperatives and agribusinesses (supply diversity initiatives).
- **Prioritizing support to value chains where women have a comparative advantage** for their economic empowerment in **RAIPs and NAIPs.**
- Applying **preferential public procurement** to ensure minimum gender quota for sourcing agricultural products, works and services (for example, for provision of inputs and services to farmers).

3. Make PPP more responsive to AU gender equality priorities

PPPs are promoted in the implementation of the Malabo Declaration as an important pathway to stimulate broad-based investment in the subsectors for both food and industrial crops. They can provide important opportunities for inclusion of women in agricultural value chains through:

- **Establishing gender criteria for the development of agribusiness PPP** and defining socio-economic and gender-responsive objectives that these partnerships should address.
- Conducting a **gender analysis on the design, governance and implementation of agribusiness PPP** to inform future ones.
- Encouraging Member States to **strengthen the voice and participation of women and smallholder farmers** in PPP.
- Securing purchasing contracts for women's cooperatives and **empowering women smallholder farmers and their cooperatives to become more equitable partners with the private sector players.**

- Delivering critical **business development services** (BDS) such as input supply, finance, business incubation and marketing.
- Within the framework of the AU continental agribusiness strategy, **strengthening the gender analytical capacity of national agribusiness apex bodies**.

4. Ensure equitable financial inclusion of women and men in the agrifood sector

Financial inclusion for agribusiness development is a key dimension of inclusive and sustainable economic and agricultural growth in Africa. Improving agricultural productivity, post-harvest activities, downstream marketing and agroprocessing segments of agrifood chains require important investments. The AU and its member countries and technical and financial partners should proactively negotiate with financial and banking institutions for:

- Provision of **subsidized loans, credit guarantee schemes, revolving funds, savings and agricultural insurance schemes** to support the activities of women in the agrifood sector.
- Opening of **special windows for lending to women**, including young women, who lack access to traditional sources of collateral such as land titles.
- Supporting **innovative lending practices, including those that integrate credit with capacity development in business skills and business development services** targeting women, including young women.
- Popularizing **credit and savings methodologies that are effective in reaching women in rural areas, and poor and illiterate women** who want to engage in agribusiness. This involves de-risking financing for agribusiness development for women, simplifying banking procedures and reducing transaction costs (for example, reducing the minimum deposit and other requirements for opening bank accounts).
- **Scaling-up of institutions dedicated to promoting women's entrepreneurship in agribusiness**, including, as appropriate, non-traditional and mutual credit schemes, as well as innovative linkages with financial institutions.



- **Revolutionizing credit referencing** by advocating with credit reference bureaus to also source credit history from microcredit institutions that are the biggest lenders to women micro businesses. This would facilitate upgrading of women agribusinesses through better access to transformative credit from commercial banks.

5. Realize women's land rights

Unequal access, ownership and control over land is a key constraint to women's agricultural activities and financial inclusion. Remediating this constraint is also a high-level political priority, and initiatives for inclusion are included in SDGs, VGGT, Malabo reporting guidelines (within women empowerment indicator), AU Agenda 2063 and specific AU target (30 percent of new documented land shall be allocated to women).

The SDG 5 on Gender equality and women's empowerment include both indicators on women's land ownership and rights and on legal frameworks, including customary laws that guarantee women's equal rights to land ownership and/or control over land.

The Land Policy Initiative (LPI) advocates for "enactment of legislation that allows women to enforce documented claims to land within and outside marriage, equal rights for women to inherit and bequeath land, co-ownership of registered land by spouses and the promotion of women's participation in land administration structures." In addition, there is need to work on other user rights and security of temporary land lease. Considerations of such issues remain insufficient in most agricultural investment plans, although there are many good practices and efforts across countries. Building on such experiences as well as existing frameworks of VGGT and LPI, the following recommendations seek to address structural causes to women's weak access to and control over land:

- **Making effective the AU goal of 30 percent of documented land rights attributed to women in all countries** by enhancing policy implementation, accountability and compliance framework
- **Promoting decentralized and inclusive land governance** systems that include women's voice

- **Reviewing legal frameworks on individual, household and community land rights to better address the following:** equal inheritance law and protection of women's land ownership within marriage; relationship between customary systems and formal legal system; gender-sensitive monitoring and evaluation capacities
- **Supporting AU member countries in reaching the SDG targets on women's land ownership and rights, and on legal frameworks** including customary law that guarantee women's equal rights to land ownership and/or control
- **Developing simple legal procedures accessible to rural people**, including women with limited literacy and mobility (advocated in the VGGT) and providing legal sensitization through the radio and other media
- **Reinforcing women's agency and capacity** to advocate for their land rights and help enforce them
- **Reinforcing gender capacities of land institutions** so that they can adapt their services to women's needs and priorities. For instance, develop simple legal procedures and training for women
- **Fostering social transformations and community engagement to transform customary systems:** Engage in dialogue with traditional authorities and customary and religious leaders, opinion leaders, and broaden awareness to advocate for women's land rights
- **Enhance data collection on land tenure rights beyond land ownership** to also capture management and economic rights as well as the different levels of tenure security experienced by men and women (GSARS, 2016b)

6. Elevate the gender benchmarks in the planning, monitoring and accountability mechanisms of CAADP and the Malabo Declaration

The new AU gender strategy emphasizes the need to develop a strong gender management system relying on sufficient gender capacities, gender-sensitive processes and strong gender accountability. In

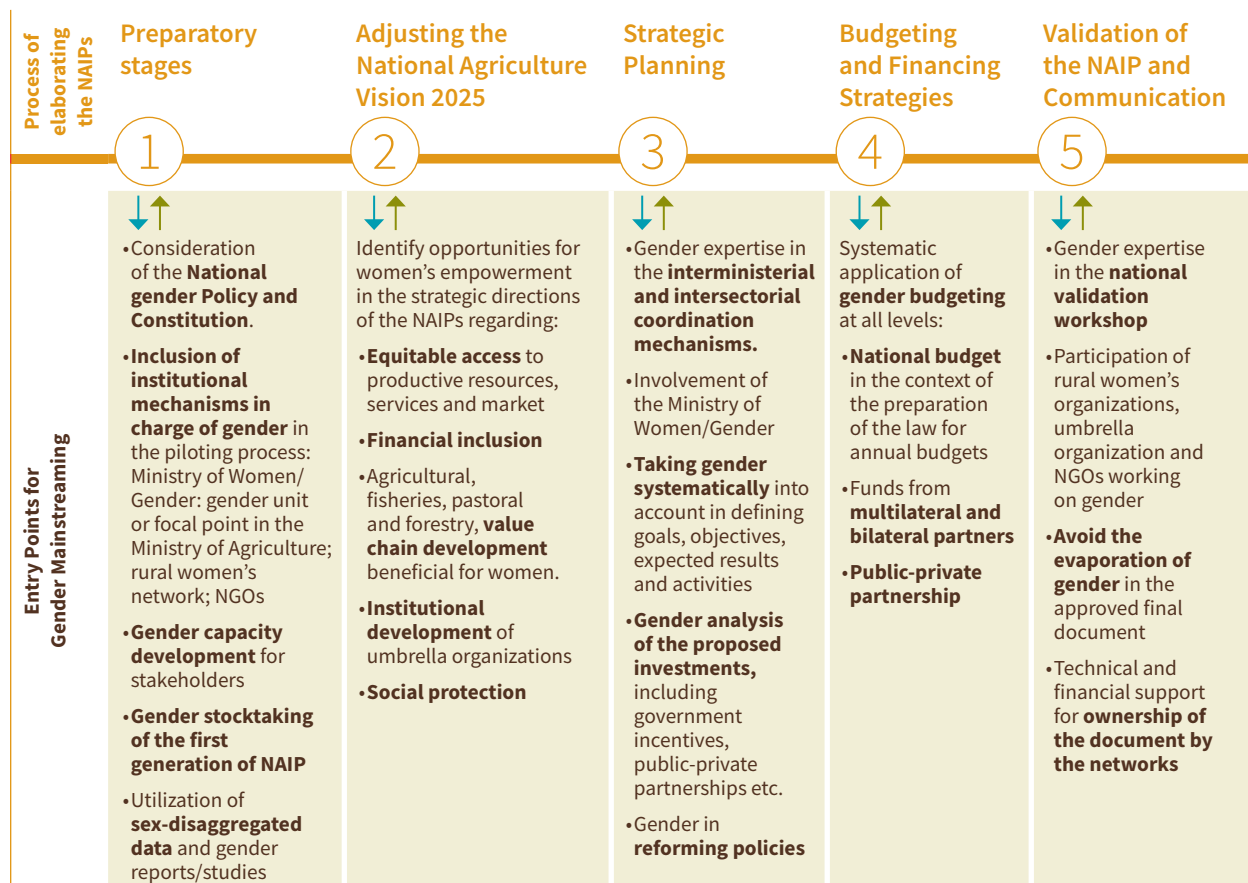
addition, it focuses on women's leadership, voice and visibility as it is key to engender a gender-sensitive environment and make governments accountable for it. As advocated in the AU-NEPAD new tool kit to domesticate Malabo, similar efforts are required in the agricultural sector, with the need **to better incorporate gender in the NAIP process, reinforce gender capacities** in agricultural institutions and **enhance women's agency and voice**. The following recommendations are made:

- **Incorporating gender more strongly in NAIP and RAIP regulation, process and programmes through** (see Figure 45):
 - **Inclusion of gender analysis and gender review** in the CAADP programme cycle
 - **Institutionalized participation of women's**

organizations and gender institutions in coordination and peer review mechanisms

- **Programmes shall include gender mainstreaming and targeting** mechanisms such as gender-sensitive targets, affirmative action and incentive mechanisms, gender-sensitive M&E, partnership
- **Gender-responsive budgeting, with a minimal quota for financing for gender and women-specific** activities
- **Malabo reporting guidelines must** have more sex-disaggregated indicators and incorporate AU gender commitments for land, technology, credit, parity and decision-making, and value chains.

Figure 45: Entry points for gender mainstreaming in the NAIP programme cycle



- **Developing gender capacities** at all levels, from local rural institutions implementing programmes up to ministries. Economies of scale can be achieved in developing joint **capacity development material**, training, as well as in sharing good practices across countries. In addition, efforts need to be directed towards enhancing **gender institutions** in the Ministry of Agriculture, with sufficient dedicated staff and clear terms of reference and capacity to initiate and sustain change for gender equality in the sector.
- **Reinforcing women's agency, leadership and participation in CAADP as prioritized in Pillar 4 of the AU gender strategy which specifies the following:**
 - It is essential to develop comprehensive programmes to **build the capacity of women and their organizations** to effectively seize economic opportunities offered in agricultural programmes as well as to participate effectively at all levels of governance.
 - Rural women's platforms and networks should be supported at the continental and national levels.
 - Specific support should be given to continental and regional farmers' organizations to mainstream gender into their work and enhance women's voices within their organizations.

7. Initiate a "Gender data revolution" in the agrifood sector and natural resources management

Gender diagnosis is key to prepare gender-sensitive programmes but requires improved gender data. Such data is also key to evaluate the impact of a programme on women and men and monitor progress in achieving gender equality and women's empowerment. Yet, sex-disaggregated statistics remain insufficient, intra-household data is even rarer, and participatory processes that enable hearing women express their views are extremely infrequent. The "gender data revolution" referred to by the AU gender report (AU, 2015) requires coordination and harmonization efforts across regions so as to facilitate comparability, joint accountability and to leverage existing global and regional efforts like SDGs, GSARS, Afristat.

- Efforts are required to align similar indicator frameworks to ease country reporting burden.
- Specific funding could be allocated to finance the development of regular gender reports in partnership with civil society and technical partners.
- In addition, a specific observatory could be built to valorize gender data and ensure transparency with regard to gender commitments. Such an observatory could also share all gender resources, for instance gender profiles developed by FAO, and good practices.

8. Leverage partnerships and coordinate for an agricultural transformation that leaves no one behind

Finally, such efforts cannot be achieved alone. To sustain momentum in AU priority areas, AUC and the NEPAD Agency, together with other partners, including FAO, should facilitate the **mobilization of partners around flagship programmes** on key AU priorities and address gender constraints. The following topics have the most potential to leverage partnership and funding, and would benefit from continental sharing of practices and expertise.

- **Gender-targeted programmes are needed on the key AU gender priorities:**
 - 30 percent of documented land ownership for women
 - Agricultural mechanization for women, in line with the AU Campaign to banish the hand-held hoe to the museum. Such mechanization should cover value-chain activities
 - Engaging financial institutions to reserve 50 percent of their finances for women to grow their businesses from micro to macro ones
 - Promote the empowerment of women in agribusiness and agricultural value chains within the framework of the Continental Free Trade Area
 - Develop specific programmes on continental/regional women value chains, while addressing the challenges related to post-harvest activities, including certification and branding

- **Multisectoral programmes must be developed in collaboration with other institutions to tackle gender issues beyond agriculture** such as access to rural infrastructure, education, and discarding of social norms constraining women empowerment. The Malabo Reporting Guidelines now include a specific indicator and target for women empowerment at the household and community levels but no specific outputs or activities have been identified to meet such targets. The following activities and partnerships could be initiated:
- **Develop transformative regional radio and TV programmes that valorize positive rural women models and promote community dialogue to empower women**
- **Develop gender-sensitive literacy and educational programmes** on agricultural and business skills
- Develop gender-sensitive rural infrastructure programmes (road, infrastructure and so forth)
- Mainstream women's empowerment programmes in agricultural support projects like the rural radio, gender farmer field schools, and so on.



Leaving no one
BEHIND



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APPENDICES



Appendix 1: Regions of the African Union



Appendix 2: CAADP country scorecard for Malabo evaluation 2018

| Malabo Commitments Areas (T) | | | | | Commitments Categories (C) | | | | |
|--|---|-------------------|------------------|--------------|--|--|-------------------|------------------|--------------|
| No. | Item | T-score out of 10 | Minimum for 2017 | T-progress | No. | Item | C-score out of 10 | Minimum for 2017 | C-Progress |
| 1 | Re-committing to CAADP Process | 8.18 | 3.33 | On track | PC 1.1 | Completing National CAADP Process | 8.57 | 3.33 | On track |
| | | | | | PC 1.2 | Establishing CAADP-based Cooperation, Partnership & Alliance | 7.88 | 3.33 | On track |
| | | | | | PC 1.3 | Establishing CAADP-based Policy & Institutional Review/ Setting/ Support | 8.08 | 3.33 | On track |
| 2 | Enhancing Investment Finance in Agriculture | 2.96 | 6.67 | Not on track | PC 2.1 | Public Expenditures in Agriculture | 5.24 | 10.00 | Not on track |
| | | | | | PC 2.2 | Domestic Private Sector Investment in Agriculture, Agribusiness, Agro-Ind. | - | - | 0.0 |
| | | | | | PC 2.3 | Foreign Private Sector Investment in Agriculture, Agribusiness, Agro-Ind. | - | - | 0.0 |
| | | | | | PC 2.4 | Enhancing access to finance | 0.68 | 3.33 | Not on track |
| 3 | Ending Hunger by 2025 | 3.09 | 3.71 | Not on track | PC 3.1 | Access to Agriculture inputs and technologies | 2.79 | 5.53 | Not on track |
| | | | | | PC 3.2 | Doubling agricultural Productivity | 2.16 | 1.00 | On track |
| | | | | | PC 3.3 | Reduction of Post-Harvest Loss | 0.00 | 1.00 | Not on track |
| | | | | | PC 3.4 | Strengthening Social Protection | 8.81 | 10.00 | Not on track |
| | | | | | PC 3.5 | Improving Food security and Nutrition | 1.67 | 1.00 | On track |
| 4 | Halving Poverty through Agriculture by 2025 | 1.19 | 2.06 | Not on track | PC 4.1 | Sustaining Agricultural GDP for Poverty Reduction | 3.12 | 3.25 | Not on track |
| | | | | | PC 4.2 | Establishing Inclusive PPPs for commodity value chains | 0.00 | 1.00 | Not on track |
| | | | | | PC 4.3 | Creating job for Youth in agricultural value chains | 0.00 | 1.00 | Not on track |
| | | | | | PC 4.4 | Women participation in Agribusiness | 1.64 | 3.00 | Not on track |
| 5 | Boosting Intra-African Trade in Agriculture Commodities | 3.51 | 1.00 | On track | PC 5.1 | Tripling Intra-African Trade for agriculture commodities and services | 0.15 | 1.00 | Not on track |
| | | | | | PC 5.2 | Establishing Intra-African Trade Policies and institutional conditions | 6.88 | 1.00 | On track |
| 6 | Enhancing Resilience to Climate Variability | 3.35 | 6.00 | Not on track | PC 6.1 | Ensuring Resilience to climate related risks | 0.03 | 2.00 | Not on track |
| | | | | | PC 6.2 | Investment in resilience-building | 6.67 | 10.00 | Not on track |
| 7 | Mutual Accountability for Actions and Results | 7.98 | 4.78 | On track | PC 7.1 | Increasing country capacity for evidence-based planning, impl. and M&E | 6.18 | 1.00 | On track |
| | | | | | PC 7.2 | Fostering Peer Review and Mutual Accountability | 8.33 | 3.33 | On track |
| | | | | | PC 7.3 | Conducting a Biennial Agriculture Review Process | 9.43 | 10.00 | Not on track |
| Overall Country Score 4.32 | | | | | Overall Progress On track | | | | |
| The 2017 Benchmark is 3.94 | | | | | which is the minimum overall SCORE for a country to be on track in 2017. | | | | |

Appendix 3: NAIP Toolkit 2018: gender extract

Gender: initial analysis

Key questions to be addressed include:

1. How has gender been articulated at the policy level? (Some countries may already have addressed this in their NAIPs.) Are there specific targets? Are objectives reflected in gender-sensitive budgeting? Have any lessons been learned from first-generation NAIPs?
2. What is the status of women's empowerment in agriculture/agribusiness? What is the status of youth?
3. What are the important drivers of empowerment for women and youth (for example, production, resources, income, leadership and time), and how do these link to agribusiness?
4. How strong is the link between gender empowerment and productivity, poverty or nutrition outcomes? What are the potential costs and benefits of not doing anything?
5. Which priority value chains are particularly relevant? These may not necessarily be the five priority value chains identified under the value chain development thematic area described above; the choice would depend on the specific country.

Based on the analysis above, it is important to highlight areas that require attention for ensuring gender-sensitive interventions and approaches to promote inclusive growth, poverty and hunger reduction:

1. Empowerment: Analysts should consider how agricultural production decisions are taken, describe who can own assets, check who controls the use of income, measure leadership of men and women, and think about time poverty.

2. Policy: Analysts should examine access to gainful employment (agribusiness) opportunities for women and youth. Countries need to define what constitutes "gainful and attractive" employment. For example, countries in West Africa may need to examine options for labour-intensive production, like horticulture.
3. Regulations: Analysts should think about land ownership as well as land rental markets.
4. Institutions: Analysts should consider the role of producer organizations and rotating savings.

NAIP gender audit review

A key question in the status assessment and country profiling is how gender is mainstreamed in NAIPs. The assessment should include a review of the gender strategy designed and implemented by countries to mainstream gender in NAIPs, and examine whether they have adopted the gender institutionalization approach needed for gender integration into programmes, projects, and the governance system for NAIP implementation. The gender strategy for appraisal and development of NAIPs shall include the following major activities and milestones:

Gender integration in the National Agricultural Policy, and development and implementation of a Gender Action Plan with specific and clear gender activities, specific gender indicators, means and source of verification, outputs, timeframe, risks and assumptions, and the estimated cost for each activity.

- Development and/or use of relevant gender screening, analysis, and assessment tools, based on existing tools that are used for gender analysis and assessment of NAIP projects and interventions. This includes project gender screening, which helps to identify the gaps and corrective actions required for gender integration into project objectives, activities, methodology, results frameworks, and impacts.
- Definition of a clear target for vulnerable groups such as women and youth in access to the needed agricultural productive resources to enable their socio-economic empowerment in agriculture, particularly access to land, which is a major agricultural asset.
- Gender institutional capacity-building for stakeholders and NAIP implementing agencies involves specific training (to provide them with knowledge, skills and tools to mainstream gender in NAIP activities).
- Building a M&E system that is linked to gender inclusion in the Results Framework, with collection of gender and/or sex-disaggregated indicators, and a monitoring mechanism to track progress and impact of gender inclusion in NAIPs.
- Building a gender-responsive communication system not only involves advocacy and awareness of gender concerns in NAIPs, but also requires developing gender-responsive means of communication such as rural TV and radio broadcasts, translation of some NAIP documentation into local languages and so on. Such efforts would enable socially marginalized groups to access and adopt innovations and technologies. NAIP gender activities should be advertised and disseminated on TV, radio, and through the written press, as well as through policy briefs and flyers. Further, public imaging and branding of the NAIP implementing institutions should be gender-responsive.
- Building partnerships and collaborations with Regional Economic Communities and national decision-makers, international, regional and national agricultural research and development institutions, civil society, particularly women and youth-led organizations and networks, and private sector stakeholders at the regional and country levels is needed to pool synergies for achieving NAIP gender strategy objectives.
- Development of an accountability framework involves the designation of a gender focal person with clear criteria including the scope of his/her expertise and knowledge on gender and the scope of his/her involvement in project design, implementation, and M&E. It also involves the commitment of decision-makers towards the development, implementation and assessment of the NAIP gender strategy, and to ensure that appropriate mechanisms are developed to foster a gender-friendly private sector and civil society and to minimize gender inequalities in agriculture.
- Setting and meeting financial targets for resource allocation to the NAIP gender strategy: the NAIPs should allocate financial resources from the operational work budget at AUC headquarters and at the country level to interventions targeted to women and youth (for example, agripreneurship), with priority given to supporting organizations and activities that advance the access of women and youth to appropriate agricultural productive resources.

Appendix 4: Gender glossary from AU gender strategy 2017–2027 and UN Women glossary

GENDER

Gender refers to the roles, behaviours, activities, and attributes that a given society at a given time considers appropriate for men and women. In addition to the social attributes and opportunities associated with being male and female and the relationships between women and men and girls and boys, gender also refers to the relations between women themselves and those between men. These attributes, opportunities and relationships are socially constructed and are learned through socialization processes. They are context/time-specific and changeable. Gender determines what is expected, allowed and valued in a woman or a man in a given context. In most societies, there are differences and inequalities between women and men in responsibilities assigned, activities undertaken, access to and control over resources, as well as decision-making opportunities. Gender is part of the broader socio-cultural context, as are other important criteria for socio-cultural analysis, including class, race, poverty level, ethnic group, sexual orientation, age, and so forth.²⁶

Gender analysis

Gender analysis is a critical examination of how differences in gender roles, activities, needs, opportunities and rights/entitlements affect men, women, girls and boys in certain situations or contexts. Such analysis examines the relationships between females and males and their access to and control of resources and the constraints they face relative to each other. A gender analysis should be integrated into all sector assessments or situational analyses to ensure that gender-based injustices and inequalities are not exacerbated by interventions, and that, where possible, greater equality and justice in gender relations are promoted.²⁷

Gender and sex

These are usually confused and understanding the difference is useful and indeed fundamental to understanding gender inequality. In simplified terms:

- **Sex** refers to the biological and anatomical features that men and women are born with.
- **Gender** refers to the socially constructed roles and expectations assigned to men and women in society. This is the aspect of gender that we are addressing in the pursuit of social inclusivity, gender equality and poverty reduction.

²⁶ UN Women, *OSAGI Gender mainstreaming – Concepts and definitions*. 2001.

²⁷ UNICEF, UNFPA, UNDP and UN Women, *Gender Equality, UN Coherence and You*. 2001.

Gender-based Violence (GBV)

GBV is an umbrella term for any harmful act that is perpetrated against a person's will and that is based on socially ascribed (gender) differences between females and males. The nature and extent of specific types of GBV vary across cultures, countries and regions. Examples comprise sexual violence, including sexual exploitation/abuse and forced prostitution; domestic violence; trafficking; forced/early marriage; harmful traditional practices such as female genital mutilation; honour killings; and widow inheritance. There are different kinds of violence, including (but not limited to) physical, verbal, sexual, psychological, and socio-economic violence.

Gender blindness

This term refers to the failure to recognize that the roles and responsibilities of men/boys and women/girls are assigned to them in specific social, cultural, economic, and political contexts and backgrounds. Projects, programmes, policies and attitudes which are gender-blind do not take into account these different roles and diverse needs. They maintain the status quo and will not help transform the unequal structure of gender relations.²⁸

Gender (or sexual) division of labour

This is an important concept in basic gender analysis that helps deepen understanding about social relations as an entry point to sustainable change through development. The division of labour refers to the way each society divides work among men and women, boys and girls, according to socially established gender roles or what is considered suitable and valuable for each sex. Anyone planning a community intervention needs to know and understand the division of labour and allocation of assets on a sex- and age-disaggregated basis for every community affected by development interventions.

Gender discrimination

Gender discrimination is defined as: "Any distinction, exclusion or restriction made on the basis of sex, which has the effect or purpose of impairing or nullifying the recognition, enjoyment or exercise by women, irrespective of their marital status, on the basis of equality of men and women, of human rights and fundamental freedoms in the political, economic, social, cultural, civil or any other field."²⁹

Gender equality

Gender equality refers to the equal rights, responsibilities and opportunities of women and men and girls and boys. Equality does not mean that women and men will become the same but that women's and men's rights, responsibilities and opportunities will not depend on whether they are born male or female. Gender equality implies that the interests, needs and priorities of both women and men are taken into consideration, recognizing the diversity of different groups of women and men. Gender equality is not a women's issue but should concern and fully engage men as well as women. Equality between women and men is seen both as a human rights issue and as a precondition for, and indicator of, sustainable people-centred development.³⁰

Gender equity

The preferred terminology within the United Nations is gender equality, rather than gender equity. Gender equity denotes an element of interpretation of social justice, usually based on tradition, custom, religion or culture, which is most often to the detriment of women. Such use of equity in relation to the advancement of women has been determined to be unacceptable. During the Beijing Conference in 1995, it was agreed that the term equality would be used.

²⁸ UNICEF, UNFPA, UNDP and UN Women. *Gender Equality, UN Coherence and You*. 2001.

²⁹ United Nations. 1979. 'Convention on the Elimination of All forms of Discrimination against Women'. Article 1.

³⁰ UN Women, *OSAGI Gender mainstreaming – Concepts and definitions*.

The CEDAW committee later confirmed this usage in its General Recommendation 28: “State parties are called upon to use exclusively the concepts of equality of women and men or gender equality and not to use the concept of gender equity in implementing their obligations under the Convention. The latter concept is used in some jurisdictions to refer to fair treatment of women and men, according to their respective needs. This may include equal treatment or treatment that is different but considered equivalent in terms of rights, benefits, obligations and opportunities”.³¹

Gender mainstreaming

Gender mainstreaming is the chosen approach of the United Nations and the international community towards realizing progress related to women’s and girl’s rights, as a subset of human rights to which the United Nations dedicates itself. It is not a goal or objective on its own. It is a strategy for implementing greater equality for women and girls in relation to men and boys. Mainstreaming a gender perspective is the process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies or programmes, in all areas and at all levels. It is a way to make the concerns and experiences of both women and men an integral part of the design, implementation of M&Eof policies and programmes in all political, economic and societal spheres so that women and men benefit equally and inequality is not perpetuated. The ultimate goal is to achieve gender equality.³²

Gender norms

Gender norms are ideas about how men and women should be and act. These “rules” are internalized and learnt early in life. This sets up a life cycle of gender socialization and stereotyping. Put another way, gender norms are the standards and expectations to which gender identity generally conforms, within a range that defines a particular society, culture and community at that point in time.³³

Gender planning

Gender planning is an active approach to **planning** that takes **gender** as a key variable and seeks to integrate an explicit **gender** dimension into policies.³⁴

Gender-responsive budgeting

Gender-responsive budgeting refers to the process of conceiving, planning, approving, executing, monitoring, analysing and auditing budgets in a gender-sensitive way. It involves analysis of actual expenditure and revenue (usually of governments) on women and girls as compared to expenditure on men and boys.³⁵

Gender roles

Gender roles refer to social and behavioural norms that, within a specific culture, are widely considered to be socially appropriate for individuals of a specific sex. These often determine the traditional responsibilities and tasks assigned to men, women, boys and girls (see gender division of labour). Gender-specific roles are often conditioned by household structure, access to resources, specific impact of the global economy, occurrence of conflict or disaster, and other locally relevant factors such as ecological conditions. Like gender itself, gender roles can evolve over time, in particular through the empowerment of women and transformation of perception of masculinity.³⁶

Gender statistics

Gender statistics reflect differences and inequalities in the situation of women and men in all areas of life: their specific needs, opportunities and contributions to society. In every society, there are differences between what is expected, allowed and valued in a woman and what is expected, allowed and valued in a man. These differences have a specific impact on women’s and men’s lives throughout all life stages and determine, for example, differences in health,

³¹ UN Women. *OSAGI Gender mainstreaming – Concepts and definitions*. Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (2010), General recommendation No. 28 on the core obligations of States parties under Article 2 of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women

³² UNICEF, UNFPA, UNDP and UN Women. *Gender Equality, UN Coherence and You*. ECOSOC agreed conclusions 1997/2.

³³ UNICEF, UNFPA, UNDP and UN Women. *Gender Equality, UN Coherence and You*.

³⁴ <http://eige.europa.eu/gender-mainstreaming/methods-tools/gender-planning>

³⁵ <http://www.wikigender.org/wiki/gender-budgeting/>

³⁶ UNICEF, UNFPA, UNDP and UN Women, *Gender Equality, UN Coherence and You*.

education, work, family life or general well-being. Producing gender statistics entails disaggregating data by sex and other characteristics to reveal those differences or inequalities, and collecting data on specific issues that affect one sex more than the other or relate to gender relations between women and men. Gender statistics should also reflect differences and inequalities in the situation of women and men. In other words, concepts and definitions used in data collection must be developed in such a way as to ensure that the diversity of various groups of women and men and their specific activities and challenges are captured. In addition, data collection methods that induce gender bias in data collection, such as underreporting of women's economic activity, underreporting of violence against women and undercounting of girls, their births and their deaths, should be avoided.³⁷

Gender stereotypes

Gender stereotypes refer to a generalised view or preconception about attributes or characteristics that are or ought to be possessed by, or the roles that are or should be performed by, women and men. A gender stereotype is harmful when it limits women's and men's capacity to develop their personal abilities, pursue their professional careers and make choices about their lives and life plans. Harmful stereotypes can be both hostile/negative (for example, women are irrational) or seemingly benign (for example, women are nurturing). Such stereotyping, for example, that women are more nurturing, often results in childrearing responsibilities falling exclusively on them. Gender stereotyping refers to the practice of ascribing to an individual woman or man specific attributes, characteristics, or roles by reason only of her or his membership in the social group of women or men. It is wrong when it results in a violation of human rights and fundamental freedoms. The failure to criminalise marital rape based on societal perception of women as the sexual property of men is an example. Compounded gender stereotypes can have a disproportionate negative impact on certain groups of women, such as women

in custody and conflict with the law, women from minority or indigenous groups, women with disabilities, women from lower caste groups or with lower economic status, and migrant women.³⁸

Marginalisation

Marginalisation is the powerlessness and exclusion experienced by a group, resulting from an inequality of control of 'resources and power structures' within society.³⁹

Masculinity

Masculinity is a gender perspective, or way of analysing the impact of gender on people's opportunities, social roles and interactions, and allows us to see that there is pressure on men and boys to perform and conform to specific roles. Thus, the term refers to the social meaning of manhood, which is constructed and defined socially, historically and politically, rather than being biologically driven. There are many socially constructed definitions for being a man and these can change over time and from place to place. The term relates to perceived notions and ideals about how men should or are expected to behave in a given setting. Masculinities are not just about men; women perform and produce the meaning and practices of the masculine as well.⁴⁰

Patriarchy

Patriarchy refers to a traditional form of organizing society that often lies at the root of gender inequality. In such a social system, men (or what is considered masculine) are accorded more importance than women (or what is considered feminine). Traditionally, societies have been organized in such a way that property, residence, and descent, as well as decision-making regarding most areas of life, have been the domain of men. This is often based on appeals to biological reasoning (women are more naturally suited to be caregivers, for example) and continues to underlie many kinds of gender discrimination.

³⁷ Input by the UN Environment Programme into the Gender Strategy; E-mail of 26 October 2017

³⁸ <http://www.ohchr.org/EN/Issues/Women/WRGS/Pages/GenderStereotypes.aspx> accessed 2 January 2017

³⁹ <https://www.megaessays.com/viewpaper/23571.html>

⁴⁰ UNICEF, UNFPA, UNDP and UN Women, *Gender Equality, UN Coherence and You*.

Sex-disaggregated data

Sex-disaggregated data is data that is cross-classified by sex, presenting information separately for men and women, boys and girls. Sex-disaggregated data reflect roles, real situations, general conditions of women and men, girls and boys in every aspect of society. This includes the literacy rate, education levels, business ownership, employment, wage differences, dependants, house and land ownership, loans and credit and debts. When data is not disaggregated by sex, it is more difficult to identify real and potential inequalities. Sex-disaggregated data is necessary for effective gender analysis.⁴¹

Sexual and reproductive health and reproductive rights

Sexual and reproductive health and reproductive rights can be understood as the right for all, whether young or old, women, men or transgender, straight, gay, lesbian or bisexual, HIV-positive or negative, to make choices regarding their own sexuality and reproduction, provided they respect the rights of others to bodily integrity. This definition also includes the right to access information and services needed to support these choices and optimize health.⁴²

Women empowerment (UN women glossary)

Women empowerment concerns women gaining power and control over their own lives. It involves awareness-raising, building self-confidence, expansion of choices, increased access to and control over resources, and actions to transform the structures and institutions that reinforce and perpetuate gender discrimination and inequality. This implies that, to be empowered, they must not only have equal capabilities (such as education and health) and equal access to resources and opportunities (such as land and employment), but they must also have the agency to use these rights, capabilities, resources and opportunities to make strategic choices and decisions (such as is provided through leadership opportunities and participation in political institutions). In addition, UNESCO explains: “No one can empower another: only the individual can empower herself or himself to make choices or to speak out. However, institutions including international cooperation agencies can support processes that can nurture self-empowerment of individuals or groups.”

⁴¹ UNICEF, UNFPA, UNDP and UN Women, *Gender Equality, UN Coherence and You. UNESCO. 2003. Gender Mainstreaming Implementation Framework*

⁴² UNICEF, UNFPA, UNDP and UN Women, *Gender Equality, UN Coherence and You.*

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