Data snapshot

USING SEX-DISAGGREGATED DATA TO BETTER UNDERSTAND GENDER GAPS IN AGRICULTURE
The majority of the world's farms are small family farms with less than 1 hectare.\textsuperscript{1,2}

- **71.9%**
  - Family farms with < 1 ha

- **11.4%**
  - Family farms with 1–2 ha

- **4.4%**
  - Family farms with 2–5 ha

- **12.3%**
  - All other farms
Agricultural production decision-making processes for small family farms are often complex

In agricultural surveys, data is often collected as if one person in the household – the ‘holder’ – exercises full management control and is responsible for decision-making over all agricultural production on the household farm.

Yet, for many small family farms in low-income countries, decision-making over agricultural production is not just made by one person, it is more complex. Multiple household members may manage various agricultural production activities, either exclusively or jointly with others.
Different household structures

Household structures can vary significantly between countries and regions: from couple households, where there is one primary male and one primary female in the household, to diverse forms of extended family households.

Couple households
make up 68 percent of households in Northern Africa and Western Asia, but only 40 percent of households in Sub-Saharan Africa.

Extended family households,
which include households with in-laws, aunts, uncles or grandparents, as well as polygamous households where co-wives live in the same household, make up between 17 to 32 percent of households depending on the region.
Sex-disaggregated data provides a richer understanding of men and women’s engagement in agricultural production

While large gender data gaps persist, some surveys such as the Living Standards Measurement Study - Integrated Surveys on Agriculture (LSMS-ISA) include questions on who makes decisions on specific agricultural activities on the family farm. Data on plot management derived from LSMS-ISA surveys provide an opportunity to understand how plots are managed across countries.

**DISTRIBUTION OF DECISION-MAKING ACROSS CULTIVATED PLOTS ON FAMILY FARMS**

In Ethiopia, Malawi and United Republic of Tanzania, men and women jointly manage agricultural production for the majority of plots on family farms.\(^6\)\(^7\)

- **Ethiopia**
  - 24% of cultivated plots are solely managed by men.
  - 22% of cultivated plots are jointly managed by men and women.
  - 63% of cultivated plots are solely managed by women.
  - 8% are not identified.

- **Malawi**
  - 63% of cultivated plots are solely managed by men.
  - 22% of cultivated plots are jointly managed by men and women.
  - 56% of cultivated plots are solely managed by women.
  - 5% are not identified.

- **Nigeria**
  - 67% of cultivated plots are solely managed by men.
  - 16% of cultivated plots are jointly managed by men and women.
  - 16% of cultivated plots are solely managed by women.
  - 5% are not identified.

**United Republic of Tanzania**

- 22% of cultivated plots are solely managed by men.
- 26% of cultivated plots are jointly managed by men and women.
- 52% of cultivated plots are solely managed by women.
- 5% are not identified.

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Data snapshot USING SEX-DISAGGREGATED DATA TO BETTER UNDERSTAND GENDER GAPS IN AGRICULTURE
Closing the gap in land ownership is essential for empowering women.

Regardless of the type of indicator used, evidence shows that women are significantly disadvantaged relative to men with regard to their rights to land. This is true for all dimensions of land rights associated with agricultural land: ownership, management, transfer and economic rights.

Data snapshot: Using sex-disaggregated data to better understand gender gaps in agriculture.
Empowering women means closing the gender gap in land ownership

Target 5.a, for which the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) is the custodian agency, aims to “undertake reforms to give women equal rights to economic resources, as well as access to ownership and control over land and other forms of property, financial services, inheritance and natural resources, in accordance with national laws.”

Under this target, indicator 5.a.1 monitors the progress countries make on women’s land ownership and secure tenure rights. While the countries reporting on this indicator is still quite low, the data offers an opportunity to understand the key statistics that can be collected in order to highlight gender gaps in land rights across countries and regions.

SHARE OF WOMEN AND MEN OWNERS OR RIGHTS BEARERS OF AGRICULTURAL LAND BY TENURE

- **Nigeria**
  - Male: 62.2%
  - Female: 26.4%
  - Share of women: 43.3%

- **Uganda**
  - Male: 49%
  - Female: 31%
  - Share of women: 40%

- **Malawi**
  - Male: 44.7%
  - Female: 51.2%
  - Share of women: 48.3%

Data snapshot USING SEX-DISAGGREGATED DATA TO BETTER UNDERSTAND GENDER GAPS IN AGRICULTURE
**Protection of women’s land rights in national legal frameworks**

SDG-Indicator 5.a.2 is an indicator that monitors the extent to which women’s land rights are protected in national legal frameworks. It looks at the legal provisions, such as land registration, management of spousal property, inheritance, customary law and women’s representation in institutions of land governance.

**LEVELS OF PROTECTION FOR WOMEN’S LEGAL RIGHTS TO OWN AND/OR CONTROL LAND**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of Protection</th>
<th>Number of Countries</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No evidence of guarantees</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very low level of guarantees</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low level of guarantees</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium level of guarantees</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High level of guarantees</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5/6</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very high level of guarantees</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of the 52 countries that have reported, **46 percent** do not have legal frameworks that provide adequate protection on women’s rights to land, while **25 percent** offer medium protection.
Countries addressing constraints women face to secure their rights to land

PERCENTAGE OF COUNTRIES IN WHICH WOMEN’S LAND RIGHTS ARE PROTECTED IN SIX KEY AREAS
Based on 52 reporting countries, percentage of countries offering protection on specific areas.

At the country level, the legal assessment provides key information on the gaps and achievements made in specific areas. The results suggest that despite the progress reached in countries to protect women’s ownership and/or control of land, additional efforts are needed to foster more gender responsive policy and legal frameworks.

GLOBAL RESULTS PER PROXIES (N=52)

- PROXY A: Joint Registration
  - Yes: 38.5%
  - No: 61.5%

- PROXY B: Spousal Consent
  - Yes: 55.8%
  - No: 44.2%

- PROXY C: Inheritance
  - Yes: 63.5%
  - No: 36.5%

- PROXY D: Financial Resources
  - Yes: 19.2%
  - No: 80.8%

- PROXY E: Supremacy of Non-Discrimination in Customary System
  - Yes: 32.7%
  - No: 32.7%

- PROXY F: Quotas for Women’s Participation
  - Yes: 36.5%
  - No: 63.5%

Employment is defined with reference to activities that generate goods or provide services in exchange for cash, other goods or services, for profit or gain. It includes formal and informal wage employment, self-employment activities including agricultural production for profit, piece rate work, paid domestic work, paid caregiving and subsistence agriculture, as well as unpaid work contributing to family labour in a household or family business, or to a family member’s wage work. While it varies by country, in many low and middle-income countries, agriculture is the main employment activity for the majority of rural women and men.
Despite significant differences across regions, women comprise over 37 percent of the world’s rural agricultural employment, a figure which rises to 48 percent for low-income countries.\(^\text{11}\)
In many low-income countries, when men move out of agriculture, women tend to remain on the farm or move out much more slowly. While the feminization of agriculture is not a global phenomenon, in various countries women's role in agriculture has expanded significantly in recent years because of male out-migration.

This is seen in rural areas of Nepal, where male out-migration is associated with significant changes in women's roles in agriculture. Women shift from being contributing family workers to being self-employed on the farm. These changes are stronger when migration is accompanied by remittances.

The impact of male out-migration on women's employment in agriculture is not the same across countries, however, in rural areas of Senegal, by contrast, a recent study found that remittances seemed to strengthen the traditional role of the male breadwinner. Women in households with an international migrant are less likely to be in employment activities, including agricultural activities.
The majority of child labour worldwide occurs in the agricultural sector. This consists primarily of work in family and subsistence farming, including crop production, livestock, forestry, fishing and aquaculture.

In 2020, prior to the outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic, about 160 million children aged 5-17 years were engaged in child labour worldwide. The agricultural sector accounted for the largest share of this.
Boys face a greater risk of child labour than girls across all measured sectors (agriculture, industry, services). Among child labourers, boys tend to help their fathers and girls their mothers, which reproduces gender inequalities from one generation to the next.

60.7% (97 million) of all child labourers worldwide are boys. Girls are more likely to engage in less visible forms of labour. In fact, when household chores are considered, the gender gap in prevalence among boys and girls aged 5 to 14 is reduced by almost half.
Empowering women requires the recognition that time spent on own-use production work, such as caregiving, subsistence agriculture, processing and preparation of food for home consumption and cleaning, is essential for sustaining the household. When addressing the needs of female and male farmers on family farms, women’s and men’s differing time constraints and responsibilities relating to own-use production work need to be taken into account.

Poverty and lack of infrastructure in rural areas mean that poorer households may need to spend longer hours on own-use production of goods and services owing to, for instance, the time it takes to collect clean water and to gather natural materials for household fuel, as well as additional caregiving for children or sick family members.

Studies with time-use data found that while both men and women invest substantial time in own-use production activities, in many contexts women spent significantly more time on these activities than men.

**AVERAGE TIME MEN AND WOMEN SPENT WORKING IN RURAL AND AGRICULTURAL COMMUNITIES IN 24 HOURS (h) IN SELECTED COUNTRIES**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Women's Work Hours Per Day on Average</th>
<th>Men's Work Hours Per Day on Average</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>10.9h</td>
<td>8.2h</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ghana</td>
<td>9.7h</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cambodia</td>
<td>8.9h</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>9.4h</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mozambique</td>
<td>7.6h</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data snapshot: USING SEX-DISAGGREGATED DATA TO BETTER UNDERSTAND GENDER GAPS IN AGRICULTURE
Improving rural women’s access to financial services is an important strategy for contributing to their social and economic empowerment. Yet they are often less able to benefit from the existing financial services intended for rural communities. While rural women’s access to financial services varies across countries, the gender gap in financial inclusion has remained unchanged since 2011, at 7 percentage points globally and an average of 9 percentage points in low-income countries’ economies.

In many low-income countries with a large rural population reliant on small farm agriculture, there are barriers to financial inclusion for both men and women, but these can often be more severe for women. This is the case across many low and middle-income countries in Sub-Saharan Africa.
Improving women's digital access

Information and communication technologies (ICTs), including mobile phones, computers, internet-based services and applications, can be powerful tools for empowering women economically, politically and socially, when they are designed appropriately and when they are accessible and usable to women.

Internet access through mobile phones, for example, can provide access to real-time information about prices in different markets and allow more informed choices about where and when to buy and sell.

ICTs can provide farmers with information on methods of adapting to climate change and weather-related shocks.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>LOW- AND MIDDLE-INCOME COUNTRIES</th>
<th>MOBILE PHONE OWNERSHIP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>MOBILE INTERNET USAGE</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EAST ASIA AND PACIFIC</td>
<td>73%♀ 70%♂</td>
<td>96%♀ 95%♂</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EUROPE AND CENTRAL ASIA</td>
<td>69%♀ 64%♂</td>
<td>91%♀ 92%♂</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN</td>
<td>70%♀ 69%♂</td>
<td>87%♀ 86%♂</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA</td>
<td>68%♀ 47%♂</td>
<td>91%♀ 82%♂</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOUTH ASIA</td>
<td>85%♀ 34%♂</td>
<td>88%♀ 65%♂</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA</td>
<td>72%♀ 35%♂</td>
<td>87%♀ 74%♂</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The largest gaps are in South Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa. Country studies with data disaggregated by rural and urban areas suggest that the gender divide is even greater in rural areas.²⁴

<p>| |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>IN LOW AND MIDDLE-INCOME COUNTRIES</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>THERE ARE 8% FEWER WOMEN MOBILE PHONE OWNERS THAN MEN²³</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WOMEN ARE 20% LESS LIKELY TO USE THE MOBILE INTERNET</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data snapshot USING SEX-DISAGGREGATED DATA TO BETTER UNDERSTAND GENDER GAPS IN AGRICULTURE
Empowering women requires a greater understanding of potential gender differences in well-being and resilience. Measuring poverty, vulnerability, food insecurity and resilience at the household level can fail to spot intrahousehold differences.

On every continent, the prevalence of food insecurity is slightly higher for women than for men. The gender gap in food insecurity persists even after controlling for other socio-economic factors, such as education or income. This suggests the need to confront the underlying gender discrimination in tackling food insecurity.

The gender gap in the prevalence of moderate or severe food insecurity grew even larger during the year the COVID-19 pandemic.

The prevalence of moderate or severe food insecurity was 10% higher among women than men in 2020 compared to 6% in 2019.
Empowering women requires a greater understanding of potential gender differences in well-being and resilience. Measuring poverty, vulnerability, food insecurity and resilience at the household level can fail to spot intrahousehold differences.

The Food Insecurity Experience Scale (FIES), an experience-based metric of the severity of food insecurity, provides valid and reliable population estimates of food insecurity at the individual level which are comparable across countries.

In every region, the prevalence of food insecurity is slightly higher for women than for men. During the Covid-19 pandemic the increase in the gender gap in Latin America and the Caribbean was 30 percent in 2020 versus 24 percent in 2019 and Asia it was 10 percent in 2020 versus 4 percent in 2019.
The lack of sex-disaggregated and gender-relevant data and statistics in rural and agricultural contexts means we only have a partial picture of:

- rural women’s engagement in agricultural production;
- the extent of women’s contributions to their households’ well-being and food security;
- the gaps in women’s asset ownership and access to important resources, services and markets;
- the full extent to which women and children face food insecurity and malnutrition; and
- the differences in the ways that men and women may mitigate and adapt to agriculture and livelihood shocks, including weather shocks due to climate change.

The lack of data makes it difficult to monitor the progress on gender equality and rural women’s empowerment in agriculture, food security and nutrition. It also means that agricultural policies and interventions based on aggregate data may miss out on what works best for both rural women and men.

The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) will help to fill some of these gender data gaps. However, without prioritizing sex-disaggregated data collection in national statistical systems, large gender data gaps will persist.
Acknowledgements

This data snapshot was prepared by (in alphabetical order by last name)
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Notes


6 Extrapolated from the distribution of management by sex of owned and accessed cultivated plots using the distribution of the population of plots and the shares from Slavchevska, V., De La O Campos, A. P., Brunelli, C. & Doss, C. Beyond Ownership: Women’s and Men’s Land Rights in Sub-Saharan Africa. Rome, FAO. (also available at http://pubdocs.worldbank.org/en/1701314956546494842/A2-ABCASlavchevska-et-al-2016-Beyond-ownership-working-paper.pdf). The study includes data for Niger and Uganda as well; however, the questions in the surveys focused who worked on the plot and not who made the decisions on agricultural production on the plot.

7 The surveys ask different questions to inquire about who manages the plot. In Ethiopia, the survey asks: “Who in the household makes primary decisions concerning crops to be planted, input use, and the timing of cropping activities on this [FIELD]? Who are the other household members consulted by the primary decision maker on the [FIELD]?” In Malawi, the survey asks: “Who in the household makes the decisions concerning crops to be planted, input use and the timing of cropping activities on this [PLOT]?” In Nigeria, the survey asks: “Who in the household manages this [PLOT]?” In the United Republic of Tanzania, the survey asks: “Who decided what to plant on this plot in the long rainy season (separately for the short rainy season)?”.


9 With the 19th International Conference of Labour Statisticians (ICLS Resolution I, 2013), which distinguishes between work for pay or profit, or employment, and unpaid forms of work, subsistence agriculture is excluded from employment. The new concept includes only formal and informal wage employment, self-employment activities and contributing family labour in the definition of employment.


Data snapshot USING SEX-DISAGGREGATED DATA TO BETTER UNDERSTAND GENDER GAPS IN AGRICULTURE


Komatsu, H., Malapit, J. L. H. & Theis, S. 2015. How Does Women's Time in Reproductive Work and Agriculture Affect Maternal and Child Nutrition? Evidence from Bangladesh, Cambodia, Ghana, Mozambique, and Nepal. IFPRI Discussion Paper 01486. Rome, IFPRI. The data is from the time use module included in the Women's Empowerment in Agriculture Index (WEAI) as part of the Bangladesh Integrated Household Survey (BiHS) which is representative of the rural areas of the seven administrative divisions; population-based surveys from the US Agency for International Development (USAID) Feed the Future initiative in Cambodia, Ghana, and Mozambique which focus on USAID's zones of influence (ZOI); and a baseline survey of a USAID-funded nutrition program in Nepal (Komatsu, Malapit and Theis, 2015). Two household members were interviewed when possible per household. In Bangladesh, Cambodia, Ghana and Mozambique, the respondents were primarily the household head and spouse. In Nepal, the respondents were mothers of children younger than five, and their spouses, if available. The data was collected between 26 October and 30 November 2011 in Bangladesh, September 2012 in Cambodia, July and August 2012 in Ghana, February to early March 2013 in Manica, Nampula, and Zambezi, November 2012 to January 2013 in three districts in the province of Tete in Mozambique and June to October 2012 in Nepal (Komatsu, Malapit and Theis, 2015).


