



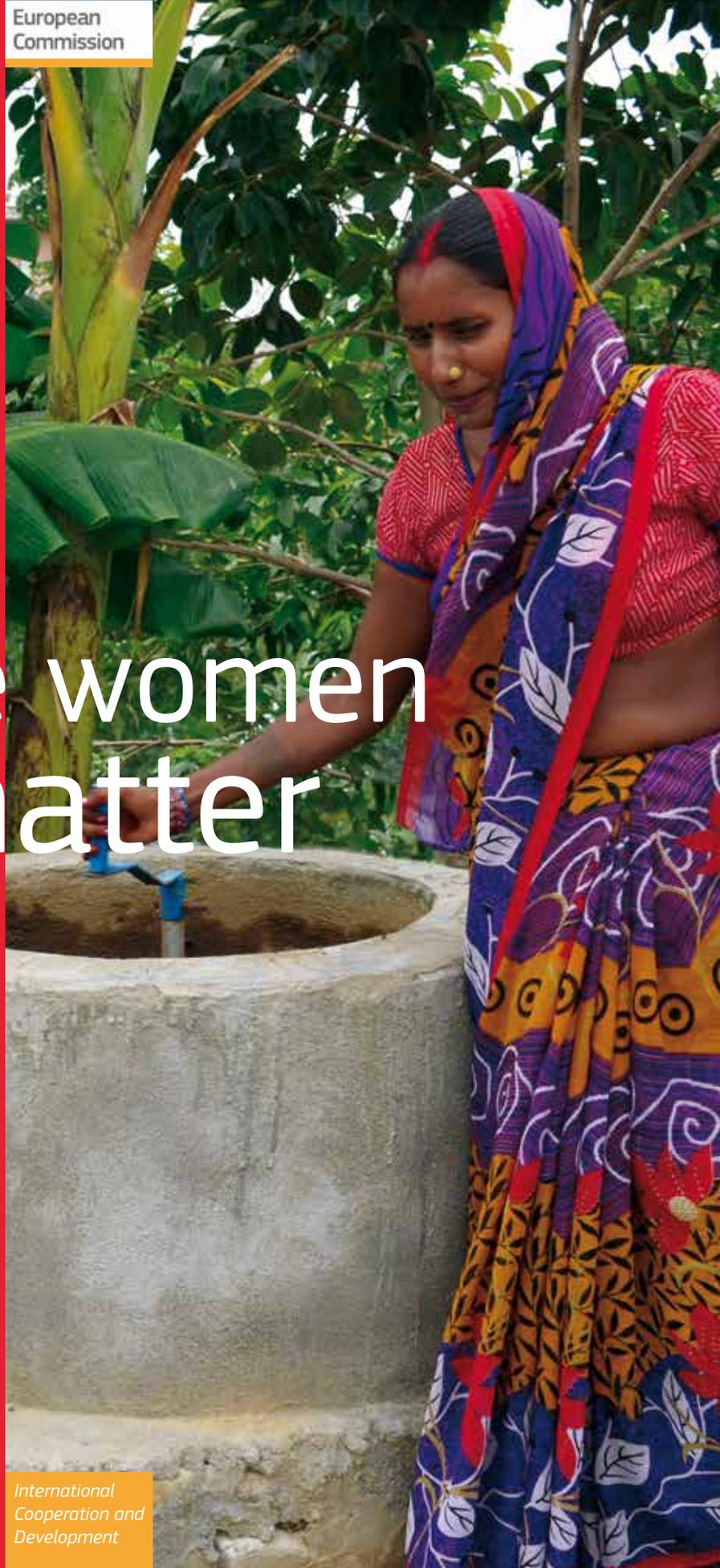
European
Commission

Because women matter

Designing
interventions in
food, nutrition and
agriculture that
allow women to
change their lives

Guidance for DEVCO staff in the Delegations

*International
Cooperation and
Development*



Foreword

“We need to urgently address the deep-rooted economic, social and cultural barriers which too many rural women and girls still face.”

Neven Mimica, European Commissioner for International Cooperation and Development

Gender equality and the empowerment of women is a core activity for the European Union (EU). In 2015, the EU adopted a new framework for addressing gender equality in EU External Relations, the Gender Action Plan 2016–2020 (GAP II). This framework calls for a shift in EU institutional culture in order to integrate gender equality concerns more effectively. The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, which forms the basis for the EU’s development cooperation agenda, has one goal (SDG 5) dedicated to *achieve gender equality and empower women and girls*. The GAP II responds to this goal.

As Director-General, one of my priorities is to integrate gender equality dimensions into our programming.

Global food and nutrition security is high on the EU agenda. Rural women, whose roles and responsibilities are multiple and complex, are key actors in the production, processing and marketing of food, as well as in preparing food for household consumption, and maintaining household nutrition security. They carry the potential to increase productivity, thereby raising incomes, and the knowledge required to

diversify their livelihoods in times of stress. In short, rural women are instrumental to the EU’s aim of zero hunger.

Despite their potential, rural women face many barriers to increasing agricultural productivity and achieving food and nutrition security for their families. They have less access than men to productive resources, less information, and are less able to make decisions on their own. Their reproductive role means that women and girls are more at risk from nutrition insecurity than men and boys.

At the heart of these inequalities lie discriminatory social norms – reflected in attitudes, behaviours, policies and laws that hold women and girls back. This is why the GAP II calls for a **transformative** approach, which seeks not only to improve women’s access to resources, but also to guarantee their equal rights. It goes without saying that a transformative approach towards improving the lives of rural women and girls in the agriculture, food and nutrition security sectors must be accompanied by efforts in other sectors to guarantee their rights, including their reproductive rights.

In order to bring about this social transformation, we need evidence-based gender analysis through which we can explore the discriminatory trends that disadvantage women. This Guide takes the reader through the necessary steps to design an intervention that is informed by a gender analysis. By using this Guide, we can design interventions that not only increase food and nutrition security, but also promote the equal rights of women and girls in the countries where we invest.

Stefano Manservigi
Director-General

← **COVER PHOTO**

Woman in rural Nepal using her biogas unit

Photo: Bimala Rai Colavito

↓ **Women at a street market in Ethiopia**

Photo: Alvise Forcellini



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Section 1. Rural gender inequality

This section provides a brief overview of the key opportunities for rural women, and the key challenges that they face. The purpose of the section is to explain why it is important to address dimensions of gender equality in investments around food and nutrition security and agriculture.

average 43 % of the agricultural labour force, although there are significant variations. In some regions, women's role in agriculture is increasing. In North Africa, for example, it increased from about 30 % in 1980 to 43 % in 2010, and in the Middle East it increased from 35 % to 48 % in the same period.¹

Rural women's knowledge about the natural environment means that they play an important role in household resilience and they are critical in the drive towards increased climate-smart agriculture. Where opportunities are available to them, rural women can be resourceful entrepreneurs, able to manage successful agri-businesses that provide an important income for household food and nutrition security.

Women's agricultural and entrepreneurial roles complement their roles as food and nutrition providers. Their contribution to child nutrition begins during pregnancy, as undernutrition often starts in the womb, and continues through to breastfeeding and on throughout the child's life. Their dominance in subsistence agriculture, as opposed to more male-dominated cash crops, means that they are guardians of household food security, and generally in charge of cooking and preparing family meals. In poor rural households, whose income and food security can be affected by shocks such as price volatility, droughts, floods or conflict,

1.1 Roles and responsibilities of rural women

The role of rural women in agriculture, food security and nutrition in the developing world is complex and varies depending on many different factors such as their socio-economic status, geographic location, age, reproductive status, education, religion or ethnicity. Generalisations run the risk of oversimplifying the story of rural women's lives. In addition, past and emerging trends such as climate change, migration, disease outbreaks, commercialisation, and an increase in technologies, globalisation and conflict can alter the behaviours of both men and women. Certain patterns, however, can be identified.

As subsistence or commercial farmers, pastoralists, fishers, labourers or entrepreneurs, rural women make up on

↓ *Women and children in a community health centre in Mali, Africa. Funded by the EU and implemented by UNICEF, this project provides support to the families of severely malnourished children and implements communication campaigns to improve awareness around nutrition security*
Photo: Kedidia Mossi



women may be forced to devise short-term measures to feed their families, such as the sale of livestock.

Women are normally the main care providers for children, the elderly and the sick. Many believe that this undervalued care work keeps women poor and that the value of this work needs to be recognised.

Rural women and girls are also the main collectors of fuelwood for cooking and water for drinking, domestic use and for animals. These may be heavy tasks involving frequent journeys away from home, which may grow longer as natural resources become ever more depleted.

As a result of their multiple roles as food providers and domestic carers, rural women often lack the time for more productive activities. This trend is commonly referred to as women's 'work burden' or their 'time poverty'.²

Rural women's roles are affected both positively and negatively by the ongoing rural transformation that is happening in developing countries around the world. A process of social change is under way as rural economies diversify, reduce their reliance on agriculture, gain greater access to information through information and communications technology (ICT), strengthen their links to urban areas, and become more mobile – especially through the migration of young males. This change can empower rural women as they adopt greater on- and off-farm responsibilities whilst men move into non-farm employment or migrate away in search of alternative incomes. On the other hand, more responsibilities may also increase rural women's heavy work burden and leave them with even less time.

1.2 Access to resources, services and markets

Despite rural women's multiple roles, their knowledge, and their economic resourcefulness, they are often denied the same opportunities for accessing productive agricultural resources that men enjoy. For example, they may experience limited access to land, rural credit, technological inputs, information or labour. This inequality of access normally stems from social and cultural gender power imbalances that are embedded in societies. A reversal of these imbalances would not only help to empower

women but also contribute significantly towards higher productivity, increased incomes and greater food and nutrition security.

“ If yields on farms managed by women were raised to the same level as those achieved by men, agricultural output in developing countries would increase by 2.5 % to 5 %. This could reduce the number of undernourished people in the world by between 12 % and 17 %.³ ”

Access to land⁴

Issues of ownership of, control over and access to land in the developing world are complex. Generalisations about the low proportion of females owning land disguise a more nuanced picture.⁵ Many factors come into play. Discriminatory ownership and inheritance practices put women at a disadvantage and they are often ignorant of their rights. Discriminatory laws and policies around land titling and property ownership and inheritance also put women at a disadvantage. Even where ownership and inheritance laws and policies promote women's rights, women are often ignorant of these rights so they do not know how to claim what is rightfully theirs. In these cases traditional discriminatory justice systems prevail that favour men. Women's access to inputs is often out of their control because their access to land is dependent on spousal relationships.

Factors such as these mean that women are less likely to own, or have access to or control over land. They are more likely to farm smaller plots or marginal land of inferior quality that is more susceptible to the effects of climate change such as soil degradation or depletion. Without the resources or knowledge to address these issues – such as through soil and water conservation techniques – in some cases women are only able to engage in wet season farming, which in turn impacts on food security within their homes.

Mounting pressure on land – as a result of climate change, depletion and degradation of natural resources, rising global population

and global demands on food, minerals, forest products and energy resources – all conspire to compound these inequalities in land ownership. If women's ability to own land was improved, this may improve their bargaining power within the household and the opportunities available to them to diversify their income.

“There is strong evidence to suggest that ownership of land by a woman (either solely or jointly) increases household livelihood opportunities and food security.”⁶

↓ **Women are normally the main care providers for children**
Photo: Enrique Castro Mendivil

Access to forestry

In communities where forestry is an important resource, women play an active role in the protection and conservation of

trees. They also use forests for the collection of fuelwood and non-wood forest products such as food, medicine and fodder. These can be important because many women experience poor access to other productive assets such as land, so that the cash and food they derive from the forest may make up a significant portion of their livelihoods.

In some cases, access to communal land and forests is problematic for women. For example, where it is culturally unacceptable for women to climb trees, men will take over fruit harvesting, or accessing wild honey, and women will be relegated to the role of processing their husband's produce, or buying fruit from men. This places them at a disadvantage within the value chain.

As forests degrade, women have to walk longer distances carrying heavy loads, and this takes up more of their already scarce time.

Access to water

Increasingly erratic rainfall patterns in many regions, brought about by climate change, as well as growing competition for water from industry, agriculture, energy generation and domestic demand, make it harder for poor people to access water for agriculture. Women's access to irrigation technology is important because it is women who tend to prioritise household food and nutrition security over other expenditures, and who are normally responsible for growing nutritious vegetables and fruits on household plots. However, women do not always have access to irrigation technology, or relevant training on how to operate and maintain irrigation systems.

In addition, men commonly take the major decisions around irrigation for agriculture, so that water management programmes often exclude women despite their important knowledge of local biodiversity, water resources, crop production and soils.

Women and girls are also mainly responsible for fetching water for domestic use and for watering small livestock. This frequently requires long journeys by foot from their homes, which become longer as climate change causes water to deplete faster.

Access to livestock

Livestock ownership is a key asset for many poor pastoralists and those engaged in mixed farming, especially where water and land are scarce. It can generate income,



maintain food security and serve as an insurance against shocks. Women play a major role in livestock management; of the world's 900 million poor livestock keepers, an estimated two thirds are rural women.⁷ Women's role as livestock keepers is especially important in the context of climate change, resilience and food security. Women are more likely to farm small animals such as poultry and goats which can be sold or slaughtered and eaten quickly in times of stress. Women are also more likely to farm locally adapted breeds which are more resilient and easier to manage.

Factors such as women's limited access to and control over land, extension services and credit, their heavy workload, or local cultural norms about what types of livestock women can farm, will all influence the choices that women make over livestock rearing. Depleting water sources caused by climate change will also affect female livestock owners who have less mobility than men to roam further afield in search of water. Where there is rising demand for livestock products, women may lose out to men who take over decision making when production scales up and intensifies. Or, smallholders such as female pig and poultry farmers simply go out of business.

Access to fisheries

Case studies suggest that women may comprise up to 30 % of all those employed in fisheries worldwide, including primary and secondary activities.⁸ The type of labour they provide to the fishery sector depends on where they live, but they are mostly involved in small-scale aquaculture, either fishing in small boats close to the coast or time-consuming tasks on land such as net mending, feed preparation or stock feeding. Most significantly, they are mostly responsible for processing and marketing.

Although these tasks can be time-consuming, the labour that women provide to the fisheries sector is often not recognised in the formal economy.

Access to financial services

Although women are generally considered better at saving and repaying loans than men, and despite a multitude of microfinance initiatives targeting rural women, their access to credit and savings can be limited. Reasons for this are rooted in social discrimination. Poor rural women may lack the collateral, such as land, to secure credit. Social and cultural norms may

prevent women from opening bank accounts or signing for credit. Where they live far from rural financial services, they may even lack the freedom to travel to the nearest bank. They often lack access to information on the types of financial products and services available. They may not be able to understand complex application procedures or repayment schemes. Even where women are able to access rural credit, they may not – in reality – be able to control the use or repayment of a loan.

Poor women tend to be more risk averse than men and may fear a slide into debt they cannot repay. Or, the poorest women may use microfinance loans to address household food security needs instead of enterprise development.

Access to technology

Poor rural women often lack the cash, credit or land to access technologies such as machines, tools, improved seeds, fertilisers, pest control or processing upgrades. They may also lack the labour, knowledge or literacy to utilise them. New technologies are often designed in such a way that women cannot or will not use them. The fact that women are less likely to have access to land than men means they may not be able to participate in new agricultural technology, for which land access is a prerequisite. The smaller size of their landholdings also comes into play. For example, tractor service providers target landowners with a minimum number of hectares for practical reasons.

“ In Ghana, 39 % of female farmers adopted improved crop varieties compared to 59 % of male farmers because they had less access to land, daily labour and extension services.”

This lack of access to technology restricts the ability of female smallholders to participate in climate-smart agriculture because they lack the tools to do so.

Labour-saving agricultural technologies may benefit or disadvantage rural women depending on their roles and social status. They may free up women's time but they may also mean that poor landless women who work on others' farms are at risk of losing their jobs.

Access to labour and employment

Labour is an important factor for agricultural production. As more men – especially young men – migrate in search of alternative income opportunities, women must compensate for lost labour either by hiring in labour, or working more hours themselves. If remittances do not flow regularly, poor rural women may have to farm smaller plots with lower yields. Extremely poor female farmers who have no resources to fall back on may have to lease their land to richer farmers or sell their labour to work on other farms, thus reinforcing their downward spiral into poverty.

The commercialisation of agriculture and increasing outmigration of rural men can, in some instances, offer greater employment opportunities for rural women outside their traditional spheres. For example, the growth of supply chains to market high-value crops such as fresh fruit, vegetables and flowers for urban and export markets could benefit women. For some crops, such as green beans in Senegal and vegetables in Mexico, women's share of the labour in commercial farms can be as much as 90 %.¹⁰ Some studies have linked female labour force participation rates to greater participation in household decision making.¹¹

↓ **Programmes that promote women's participation and management can help to increase their confidence and decision-making power. In this food security programme in Laos, women are managing the revolving fund**
Photo: Carine Malardeau

“ In Bangladesh, only 3 % of rural women are in wage employment, compared to 24 % of rural men. In Malawi, 66 % of rural women are in wage employment compared to 90 % of rural men.¹² ”

However, women's multiple responsibilities, often compounded by their lower educational status and discriminatory social and cultural norms, mean that they are more likely than men to take seasonal, part-time and badly paid jobs in poor working conditions with little or no social protection.

Access to knowledge and extension services for climate-smart agriculture

Female farmers in developing countries often have less access to information, such as agricultural extension advice, than male farmers do. This is largely due to social and cultural norms that prevent women from engaging in spaces where information about agricultural innovations is available. In conservative societies, customs prohibit



women from mixing with men outside the family and most extension officers are men who target male farmers. This means that women benefit less from new farming practices and new crop and livestock varieties that are promoted by the extension services. Added to this, women tend to have lower literacy levels than men, which limits their ability to absorb available information.

“Research in India showed that 29 % of male-headed households met extension agents. In Ghana, 12 % of male-headed and 0–2 % of female-headed households met extension agents. In Ethiopia, 27 % of men and 20 % of women received agricultural extension visits at home or on the farm.”¹³

Rural women are also less likely to have access to ICT and therefore will miss out on information about agricultural techniques, livestock disease, the weather or market prices. In low- and middle-income countries, a woman is 21 % less likely than a man to own a mobile phone.¹⁴

This limited access to agricultural information means that even if they are motivated to adopt climate-smart practices, rural women may not be in a position to do so.

Access to markets and the private sector
Agriculture in developing countries is becoming increasingly commercialised and trading regimes more liberal. Whilst in some parts of the world rural women play a key role in marketing agricultural produce, various barriers mean that transforming small and medium farms into commercial enterprises is harder for women than for men.

For example, poverty or social or cultural constraints restrict women's mobility and their ability to use transport in order to reach markets. Women may lack the timely market information that would allow them to negotiate better prices with buyers. They may also lack access to credit, new technologies or knowledge to upgrade production or comply with regulations in global markets. Women's restricted access to collateral may prevent them from

participating in producer associations and rural cooperatives that provide access to markets and boost productivity. They cannot always acquire contracts in their own name to participate in contract farming, and they lack secure control over land, family labour and other resources needed to guarantee delivery of produce. Evidence also indicates that men tend to take over when women progress from subsistence or small-scale farming to commercial production.

Cultural norms often dictate that rural women are less able to respond to new market linkages with the private sector. For example, even in those sectors where women dominate, such as poultry production, market linkages with private-sector services such as vaccinations or feed often disproportionately benefit men because private-sector companies find it easier to reach male farmers. Companies that provide inputs such as fertilisers or seeds tend to target producers of cash crops, such as rice or cocoa, which women are less likely to farm in large quantities. This leads to a 'masculinised' marketing system, where women are sidelined and forced to focus on traditional crops.

“We must move beyond conventional thinking of women's empowerment. We must look towards technology and how we can take advantage of the agriculture value chain to grow women farmers in Africa.”¹⁵

1.3 Women's voice, leadership and decision-making power

At the heart of these gender inequalities in access to resources lie deep-rooted structural gender power imbalances that prevent women and girls from exercising control over resources, having a voice or making decisions. There are not enough women in leadership positions. Women's lower educational status, higher rates of illiteracy, limited mobility, lower confidence rates and lack of time all conspire to compound these structural inequalities.

Policies and programmes often ignore the specific needs of rural women. For example, the decision-making bodies set up to combat the effects of climate variability often do not

involve women. This exclusion further hinders the process of women's empowerment and prevents opportunities for sustainable development in the long term. The EU and FAO have recently finalised a very useful guide on how to influence policy around food and nutrition security from a gender perspective.¹⁶

“*In Burundi, a food security project organised a workshop on financial products. It was later found that female participants were reluctant to add their names to the list of participants in case their husbands saw this as a threat to their household leadership.*”¹⁷

1.4 The legal and policy framework

Legal reform in some countries – for example reform of laws about land and property inheritance – reflects the importance of addressing gender inequalities in the rural sector. The challenge, however, remains how to enforce these laws in situations where patriarchal social norms and customary law still take precedence. Some national gender policies also recognise the importance of promoting gender equality in the rural sector, but in general there is a disconnect between national and sectoral gender policies on the one hand and sectoral food and nutrition security policies on the other. Both fail to reference each other or harmonise their objectives and actions. This disconnect is largely a result of limited awareness or understanding amongst policy makers of how gender inequalities influence agricultural development, food and nutrition security outcomes. When

“*In Rwanda, the Matrimonial Regimes, Liberties and Succession Law (2000) for the first time recognized the rights of women and girls to inherit and own land.*”¹⁸

Gender Focal Points are placed in ministries of agriculture or other ministries dealing with natural resource management, they often have little power or resources to push for gender equality.

1.5 The impact of gender inequality: Food insecurity and undernutrition

The inequalities that rural women face in accessing the resources they need can push poor households into a downward spiral of poverty and food insecurity. As primary producers of subsistence crops for household consumption, such as cassava or plantain, women's weaker ability to withstand drought, economic crises or increasingly industrialised farming systems directly impacts on household food and nutrition security.

Food-insecure households may suffer from undernutrition; adolescent girls, women of reproductive age and young children are most at risk. Children in the poorest 20 % of households are twice as likely to be stunted

“*Despite rapid economic growth in India, thousands of women and girls still lack food and nutrition security as a direct result of their lower status compared with men and boys.*”¹⁹

as those in the richest 20 %.²⁰ In addition to resource constraints, women's lack of time for child care and breastfeeding has been identified in many instances as a key cause of child undernutrition. Their lower educational status and limited mobility also mean that women often lack access to information around nutrition.

What is more, undernutrition in poor rural households is passed down to future generations. Undernutrition in mothers increases the risk of poor foetal growth, which can lead to childhood stunting, which in turn can persist into adulthood if it is not addressed during the first two years of life. The consequences of stunting (i.e. poor physical and cognitive development) are largely irreversible.

1.6 Opportunities to empower women

A plethora of policies and programmes recognise the need to address gender inequalities facing rural women. Some of these address women's individual needs, such as accessing appropriate technology, rural credit and social transfers, or maternal, sexual and reproductive healthcare, or education. There is an increasing trend to go a step further and attempt to bring about social change by tackling the deep-rooted patriarchal values that discriminate against women and girls. This is commonly termed a **transformative approach**. Such an approach focuses on supporting women to have a louder voice in decision making at all levels, to have more confidence in their own ability to contribute towards agricultural growth and to organise collectively, and to help them gain the knowledge and skills required for leadership. It also often requires changes in household dynamics.²¹

Rural organisations such as producer associations, cooperatives or farmers' groups increase farmers' access to markets and their bargaining power. Such organisations offer great potential to empower rural women by raising their profile, voice and confidence through collective action, and by increasing their access to productive resources, for example accessing loans. However, there are few women in leadership positions because rural women face multiple barriers such as time, unpaid care work or social and cultural norms that expect them to remain silent in public spaces.

“... at a local level you will find many women in leadership positions but as you go up into national and regional structures, you will find very few.”²²

National, regional and continental farmers' organisations have, to varying degrees, taken steps to empower women through collective organisation. For example, the regional African organisations ROPPA²³ and PROPAC²⁴ have both set up a women's college with the main objective of providing a platform for voicing women's concerns and promoting women's decision-making status in regional and national farmers' organisations.

Leadership training: Raising women's self-esteem and tackling men's fear in the Democratic Republic of the Congo

The *Ligue des organisations des femmes paysannes du Congo* (LOFEPACO) was established in 2000 as a platform for eight rural organisations to solve collectively the problems that female farmers face and to give them a voice. LOFEPACO ran a women's leadership programme which resulted in notable improvements in women's self-esteem, leadership ability and entrepreneurship. Programme evaluators realised that the programme needs to address the fear felt amongst men that their organisation will gradually become 'feminised'.

Source: AgriCord, *Farmers Fighting Poverty: Strengthening Farmers' Organisations in Developing Countries, Consolidated Report*, May 2016

↓ An EU project supporting fish processing activities managed by women in Guinea, Africa

Photo: Laura Mascagna



Section 2. Designing gender-sensitive EU programmes

This section guides the reader through the steps required to integrate gender dimensions into the design of an investment. Central to this process is a *gender analysis*.

- It places critical importance on **gender analysis and sex-disaggregated data** to be used in all EU external actions.
- It requires a **shift in EU institutional culture** to integrate gender equality concerns which includes **dedicated leadership**.

2.1 Gender equality lies at the core of EU policy

“Understanding the context is necessary in order to understand how you might improve the situation of those discriminated against, and at a minimum it helps understand how not to do any further damage (“do no harm”).²⁵”

What is the GAP II?

The recently adopted **Gender Action Plan (2016–2020)**²⁶ – or GAP II – insists that the integration of a gender equality perspective must lie at the heart of all EU investments. The GAP II has the following features:

- It is **mandatory**. Performance will be tracked.
- It calls for **transformative change**, acknowledging unequal gender power relations that discriminate against women and girls.

GAP II has identified five minimum standards of performance (see Table 1). The Action Plan is accompanied by a guidance note to support GAP II implementation.²⁷

GAP II has three thematic priorities. Under these thematic priorities, GAP II provides a list of objectives. Table 2 provides the GAP II objectives that are relevant to food and nutrition security and sustainable agriculture.

2.2 Gender analysis (Action Document: Section 1 and Annex)

“The EU and its Member States will promote women’s rights, gender equality and the empowerment of women and girls and their protection as a priority across all areas of action.”²⁸”

Why do we need a gender analysis?

The GAP II makes clear that gender analysis must lie at the heart of all EU investments.

Table 1: GAP II minimum standards

GAP II minimum standards of performance

OECD/DAC gender marker is always justified.

Gender analysis is carried out for all priority sectors by the end of 2016.

Sex-disaggregated data is used throughout the project and programme cycle.

Gender expertise is available and used in a timely way in the programme cycle.

GAP II objectives are selected to be reported on (see Table 2 for these objectives).

Table 2: GAP II thematic priorities and objectives relevant to food and nutrition security and sustainable agriculture

GAP II thematic priority	Objectives
Ensuring girls' and women's physical and psychological integrity.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Healthy nutrition levels for girls and women throughout their life cycle.
Promoting economic and social rights and empowerment of girls and women.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Access to decent work for women of all ages. ■ Equal access by women to financial services and productive resources including land, trade and entrepreneurship.
Strengthening girls' and women's voice and participation.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Equal rights enjoyed by women to participate in and influence decision-making processes on climate and environmental issues.

A gender analysis will guide programme and project planners by identifying:

- specific opportunities for development that rural women and girls can offer;
- specific barriers to gender equality that rural women and girls face;
- ways in which an EU investment can help to build on these opportunities and remove these barriers;
- ways in which an EU investment can avoid the risk of worsening gender imbalances through its actions.

The results of a gender analysis will also act as a **baseline** against which the investment can be measured to see how the results affect the lives of women and girls.

What is a gender analysis?

Table 3 describes some key themes that could be explored in a gender analysis, all of which have been touched on in Section 1, with examples of the types of investigation for each theme.²⁹ Appendix 1 provides a more detailed list of themes to be covered in a gender analysis.

What methodologies can be used to carry out a gender analysis?

Certain features of gender equality can be assessed through the collection of quantitative sex-disaggregated data, either at the national, regional or local level. For example, numbers of men and women

who own land, or participate in producer associations, or are recipients of rural credit. Other features of gender equality – those that relate to underlying trends in human behaviours and societal changes – will require qualitative research at a 'case study' level. For example, qualitative research can indicate the extent to which rural women believe in their own potential as food producers and income earners, or male attitudes towards female participation in rural organisations, or intra-household decision-making patterns around use and control of land.

Note that the results of qualitative research can be reported using quantitative data.

The different types of qualitative and quantitative research methodologies are listed below. Appendix 2 provides an up-to-date list of useful research methodologies that you can refer to if you would like further guidance.

- *Qualitative data*: participatory rural appraisals (PRA), vulnerability assessments, participant observations, ethnographic studies, focus groups, interviews, role-play.
- *Quantitative data*: household surveys, questionnaires, attitude studies, seasonal labour profiles, time-use studies.

Table 3: Themes for a gender analysis: Food and nutrition security and sustainable agriculture

Themes for a gender analysis	Areas for investigation
Land tenure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Sex-disaggregated data on intra-household and community land ownership ■ Gender analysis of decision making around land use
Irrigation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Gender analyses around access to and control over water resources ■ Gender division of labour for activities related to water use ■ Sex-disaggregated data on membership and attendance of water user groups
Livestock	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Sex-disaggregated data on livestock ownership ■ Gender analysis of division of labour, income and decision making in livestock value chains
Forestry	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Gender analysis of forestry-related roles and responsibilities ■ Gender analysis of division of labour, employment, income and decision making in forest product value chains
Fisheries	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Sex-disaggregated data on employment in the fishery sector ■ Gender analysis of division of labour, income and decision making in fishery value chains
Credit	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Sex-disaggregated user data for rural financial services ■ Gender analysis of access, use and control over savings and credit schemes
Technology	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Sex-disaggregated household-level data on ownership and control of technologies
Information, training and extension	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Sex-disaggregated data on access to extension services/training ■ Staffing structures of extension services
Employment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Intra-household gender division of labour ■ Sex-disaggregated data on rural employment by sector, activity and salary ■ Gender analysis of rural value chains
Markets	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Sex-disaggregated data on membership of rural trade/producer/business associations and cooperatives ■ Gender analysis of rural value chains, including market linkages
Voice, leadership and decision making	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Intra-household decision-making patterns ■ Sex-disaggregated data on leadership, membership and attendance of rural organisations ■ Gender analysis of level of influence within rural organisations ■ Description of rural women's organisations and networks
Legal and policy framework	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Gender analysis of the national legal/policy framework relating to agriculture, food and nutrition ■ Gender analysis of rural customary practices
Food and nutrition security	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Sex-disaggregated data on nutritional status, including: weight for age of under-5s; stunting of infants; anaemia in pregnant women ■ Gender analysis of causes and consequences of undernutrition ■ Sex-disaggregated data on recipients of social transfer programmes

2.3 Objectives, outputs and activities (Action Document: Section 3, Logical Framework Matrix and Annex)

“Quality Support Groups will assess how Action Documents are using gender analysis to inform their approach, beyond a mere checklist/box ticking exercise, as a means to inform the programme design.”³⁰

If gender equality is ticked on the first page of the Action Document as a ‘significant or principal objective’, this must be reflected in the rest of the project design. The gender dimensions to the project design must be explicitly described in Section 3 of the Action Document and in the Logical Framework Matrix. This must be done at the earliest stages of action formulation, **not as an after-thought when changes can no longer be made**. Full details of how the gender analysis has informed the project design can be put in the Annex to the Action Document, but a summary **must be contained in the main Action Document**.

Even when gender equality is not specifically mentioned in the objectives, outputs or

activities, these should somehow contribute to addressing gender inequalities or promoting opportunities for rural women that have been identified in the gender analysis.

Integrating gender equality into the overall objective (impact)

An overall objective is a description of the broader long-term change that will come about as a result of a number of interventions by the partner government and development partners, which the EU-funded action will indirectly influence. It is likely that the overall objective will contribute towards one of the goals or targets of Agenda 2030, which has integrated gender equality and the empowerment of women across many of its Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), and has dedicated one goal (SDG 5) to this theme.

Integrating gender equality into specific objectives (outcome)

A specific objective is a description of the medium-term effects and most likely changes in behaviour towards which the EU-funded outputs will contribute.

Use the results of your gender analysis to determine which GAP II thematic objectives in Table 2 you think your action can deliver on. You may decide to choose additional objectives that are not listed in Table 2. Note that the last objective listed in the table – strengthening girls’ and women’s voice

CHECKLIST FOR CARRYING OUT A GENDER ANALYSIS

Gender analysis

- Make sure that the terms of reference (TOR) for project identification includes gender expertise.
- Assess existing gender analyses that have been done either internally or by other Member States or partners that are relevant to the project action. Make sure that any analysis used is no more than five years old.
- Identify what information is lacking in relation to your project action. Look for qualitative information about attitudes, behaviours, social norms as well as quantitative data.
- Coordinate with other stakeholders around conducting a gender analysis where fresh information is required. Identify the support required with a TOR. Make sure that the partner commissioned to find new information has a background in both qualitative and quantitative research methodologies.
- **Make sure your analysis does not view women as a homogenous group, or categorise all women as ‘vulnerable’, or group women together with youth. Recognise different factors such as: age, location, wealth, tribe, religion, etc.**
- Make sure that the analysis has included active consultation with both men and women.
- Draw on the results of the gender analysis to identify the barriers and opportunities for gender equality that your planned action can address.
- In Section 1 – The Context – of the Action Document summarise the results of your gender analysis and provide a fuller description in the Annex to the Action Document.

Technical training for women can go further than generating income – it can raise their confidence and status

In Burkina Faso, women's groups received technical training in agricultural production that benefited them in more ways than one. Formed under *Le centre d'appui à la gestion des exploitations familiales* (CAGEF), a producers' organisation that is supported by AgriCord, the groups were trained in shea butter production so that they now produce better quality shea butter and can generate an income by using it to make soap. In addition to the economic benefits, women also report that the work fits easily into their daily routine and they enjoy the social interaction. As a result, other women have been encouraged to join the group.

Under the same project, women have also received training in sheep fattening which has not only raised their incomes but also raised their confidence and status within the household. One woman reported that her husband approved of the enterprise, encouraging her to continue and taking only a small portion of her profit.

Source: AgriCord, *Farmers Fighting Poverty: Strengthening Farmers' Organisations in Developing Countries, Consolidated Report*, May 2016

and participation – is **transformative**. It relates to a process of **social change** that will **equalise gender power imbalances in society**, rather than simply address the individual needs of women and girls. Where possible, your action should aim to contribute to this more ambitious and political concept of social change where power imbalances between men and women have been identified in the gender analysis.

Avoiding evaporation: Integrating gender equality into outputs

Outputs are tangible results (such as increased agricultural productivity, greater coverage of extension services) that are brought about by the project's actions.

Your outputs must directly respond to the gender dimensions of your overall and specific objectives. This is important because **too often gender equality**

dimensions to project and programme design evaporate after the objectives.

For example, if you have an objective that aims to increase decision-making power for rural women, you must include at least one output that will contribute towards its achievement – such as strengthened participation of rural women in farmers' organisations.

Avoiding evaporation: Integrating gender equality into activities

Make sure that your activities reflect the gender-equality focus of your outputs. For example, if one of your outputs is *increased female leadership in farmers' organisations*, then you must include an activity to bring this about, such as *leadership training for women*.

Projects that aim to be **transformative** and bring about changes in gender power imbalances are likely to involve activities that promote women's participation in community level organisations, cooperatives, associations, farmers' groups, networks or movements. They are also likely to include activities that involve men – if men are excluded then social norms and patriarchal attitudes will not change.

Make sure that activities do not reinforce gender inequalities by ignoring existing gender relations and power disparities between women and men. For example, if your activity is based around encouraging women to enter paid labour in commercial agriculture, you may need to introduce measures that guarantee decent and equitable working conditions as well as reduce their domestic workload.

↓ *Social transfer programmes can facilitate women's access to credit*

Photo: Maria Winnubst



CHECKLIST FOR DESIGNING GENDER-SENSITIVE OBJECTIVES, OUTPUTS AND ACTIVITIES

- If you have ticked gender equality as a “significant or principal objective” on the first page of your Action Document, have you followed this up in the project design? Make sure that your gender equality objectives do not evaporate.
- Does the overall objective of the project address any of the gender equality targets of Agenda 2030, or of national policies?
- Do the project’s specific objectives address any of the thematic priorities outlined in GAP II?
- Make sure your project design responds to the opportunities and barriers for women and girls identified in the gender analysis. Show how this happens in Section 3 of the the Action Document, the Logical Framework Matrix and the Action Document Annex.
- Does your project design contribute towards transforming unequal gender power imbalances? If so, have you included the participation of men in activities designed to bring about societal change?
- Make sure your project’s activities do not reinforce gender inequalities identified in the gender analysis.

2.4 Indicators (Logical Framework Matrix)

In order to avoid evaporation of gender-sensitive objectives, outputs and activities, every action must be monitored and evaluated so that changes to the lives of women and girls can be measured. To do this, **gender-sensitive indicators** must be embedded in the Logical Framework Matrix. The gender analysis will help to identify these indicators as well as sources of verification. The gender analysis will also act as a **baseline** against which the changes that the action has brought to the lives of women and girls can be measured.

Appendix 3 provides a list of possible gender-sensitive indicators for actions relating to food and nutrition security and sustainable agriculture. Relevant GAP II and SDG indicators have been integrated into this list.

What are the key requirements for gender-sensitive indicators?

- Indicators must have **targets** and be measured against a set of baseline data drawn from the gender analysis.
- Where possible, indicators must be **sex-disaggregated**.
- Sources of data must be **credible and reliable**. Possible sources include:
 - international statistical databases (e.g. FAO,³¹ World Bank, OECD SIGI³²);
 - partner country statistics, projects and programme monitoring systems;
 - national gender machineries (e.g. Ministry for Gender);
 - reputable academic institutions;
 - work done by civil society organisations that are active on gender equality.
- Indicators must be **realistic** and only selected if data on them can be collected. For example, there is often a dearth of national level data around access to productive resources such as land. If data is not already available, look for instruments that could be employed to collect this data (for example, from FAO, or from the WEAI³³).
- Indicators should only be chosen for data that can be readily collected **at different points in time and can be replicated** across sites or (where relevant) countries or regions.
- Avoid indicators that relate to **female-headed households**. It is more important to measure gender equality aspects within dual-headed households rather than between male-headed and female-headed households. The position of a women or a girl in a household (e.g. her age, relationship to the household head) will affect her situation and her access to assets.
- Avoid indicators that measure youth and women together as one ‘vulnerable group’. The opportunities and needs of rural youth and women and girls may overlap but they are not one homogenous group.

CHECKLIST FOR SETTING GENDER-SENSITIVE INDICATORS

- Make sure that your gender-sensitive objectives and outputs have corresponding indicators; otherwise the project's achievements in addressing gender equality will be invisible.
- Use the information from the gender analysis as a baseline so you can set targets and milestones to measure change.
- Describe in the Action Document which methodologies you will use to measure the indicators (qualitative/quantitative, when, by whom).

Section 3. Ensuring gender-sensitive project implementation

In order to ensure that the gender-sensitive intentions embedded in your project design do not evaporate when it comes to implementation, you can take the following measures.

- Ensure commitment to delivering on gender equality is reflected in the call for proposals.
- Make sure that implementing partners have the experience to oversee the project's gender equality dimensions. If not, include capacity building or technical assistance in the project.
- Implementing partners must draw up a Gender Equality Action Plan to act as a checklist to ensure that all gender-related outputs have corresponding activities.
- The project's monitoring and evaluation strategy must include resources to track the project's effect on women and girls, including consultation with beneficiaries. This is critical, because when it comes to implementation, and when resources are limited, gender-related research and analysis is often the first to be eliminated from budgets. **This strategy should**

describe which methodologies you will use to measure the indicators (qualitative/quantitative, when, by whom).

Gender-sensitive budget support

For budget-support operations, the following extra actions can be taken.

- During dialogues with governments, push for gender equality in policies supported by EU budget support.
- Promote continued coordination on gender equality within working groups on agriculture, and with institutional stakeholders (such as gender units of the relevant ministries, ministries for women) as well as with a broader range of actors from civil society.
- Join forces with experts from Member States to combat resistance in the dialogue process.
- Promote gender-responsive budgeting, and the inclusion of gender-responsive indicators in Performance Assessment Frameworks.

Transformation of gender relations in the Andes

World Vision Bolivia encouraged farmers' groups to develop innovative proposals for improving income and nutrition. One female farmers' association proposed the development of miniature macro tunnels for vegetables and won funding to develop 15 of these, one for each family. The following year the same association proposed installing open plots for the expansion of vegetable production. Once again they won and were awarded vegetable seeds. The women want to expand further to produce vegetable pies and bread for the school breakfast programme. The income and nutritional intake of the families has risen. Women have gained confidence in their ability to organise and become involved in productive activities. As one woman said, *"Before we implemented these projects, our husbands told us, 'Why are you going to those courses or meetings? You are wasting your time!' Now, as we generate income for our families, our husbands support and motivate us to participate in training events."*

Endnotes

- ¹ FAO (2011) *The State of Food and Agriculture 2010–11: Women in Agriculture – Closing the Gender Gap for Development*
- ² FAO (2015) *Running out of Time: The Reduction of Women's Work Burden in Agricultural Production* and IFAD (2016) *Reducing rural women's domestic workload through labour-saving technologies and practices toolkit*
- ³ Ibid (1)
- ⁴ For those who wish to read more on the subject of gender equality and land access, including guidelines for integrating gender dimensions into programmes and projects that include land, see *Because women's land rights matter: Support to engender EU "land interventions"* (2017) at <https://myintracomm.ec.europa.eu/dg/devco/thematic-activities/rural-development-food-security-nutrition/Pages/index.aspx>
- ⁵ IFPRI (2013) *Gender Inequalities in Ownership and Control of Land in Africa* (Discussion Paper)
- ⁶ CGIAR (2016) *Indicators of Gendered Control over Agricultural Resources: A Guide for Agricultural Policy and Research*
- ⁷ BRIDGE (2014) *Gender and Food Security: Towards Gender-Just Food and Nutrition Security*
- ⁸ FAO (2012) *The State of World Fisheries and Aquaculture 2012*
- ⁹ Ibid (1)
- ¹⁰ Ibid (1)
- ¹¹ Ibid (1)
- ¹² Ibid (1)
- ¹³ IFPRI/World Bank (2010) *Gender and Governance in Rural Services: Insights from India, Ghana and Ethiopia*
- ¹⁴ GSMA Development Fund, Cherie Blair Foundation and Vital Wave Consulting (2010) *Women and Mobile: A Global Opportunity*
- ¹⁵ Words spoken by Mr Ishmael Sunga, CEO of the South African Confederation of Agricultural Unions (SACAU), in preparation for an annual gathering of female farmers
- ¹⁶ FAO and EU (2017) *Strengthening sector policies for better food security and nutrition results. Gender Equality. Policy Guidance note 6*
- ¹⁷ AgriCord (2016) *Farmers Fighting Poverty: Strengthening Farmers' Organisations in Developing Countries*
- ¹⁸ UN Women and the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR) (2013) *Realizing Women's Rights to Land and Other Productive Resources*
- ¹⁹ Ibid (7)
- ²⁰ UNICEF (2010) *Progress for Children: Achieving the MDGs with Equity*
- ²¹ IFAD (2014) *Household methodologies: harnessing the family's potential for change*
- ²² Words spoken by Mr Benito Eliasi, Capacity Development Advisor for the South African Confederation of Agricultural Unions (SACAU)
- ²³ *Réseau des organisations paysannes et des producteurs agricoles de l'Afrique de l'Ouest*
- ²⁴ *Plateforme régionale des organisations paysannes d'Afrique Centrale*
- ²⁵ European Commission (2016) *Guidance Note on the EU Gender Action Plan 2016–2020*
- ²⁶ Council of European Union (2015) *Gender Action Plan 2016–2020, Council Conclusions* (October 2015)
- ²⁷ Ibid (25)
- ²⁸ European Commission (2016) *Commission Communication: A Proposal for a New European Consensus on Development – Our World, Our Dignity, Our Future*
- ²⁹ For a comprehensive overview, see FAO, IFAD and World Bank (2009) *Gender in Agriculture Sourcebook*
- ³⁰ Ibid (20)
- ³¹ Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
- ³² The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development's Social Institutions and Gender Index. This is a very comprehensive set of indicators updated regularly by OECD that covers five key areas: economic empowerment; family; son bias; access to resources; and civil liberties. The SIGI has been recognised as an official SDG indicator source
- ³³ Women's Empowerment in Agriculture Index. This is a survey-based index designed to measure empowerment, agency and inclusion of women in the agriculture sector. It covers five areas: decision making; access to resources; control over use of income; leadership in the community; and time use.

↓ **Rose plantation in Burundi** Photo: EC Library



Appendix 1. Guidelines for conducting a gender analysis around food and nutrition security and sustainable agriculture

Reasons for analysis	Questions	Evidence required	Sources
Productive assets			
In many developing countries, statutory and customary land tenure systems often disadvantage rural women so they have less access to land, less land security, and fewer rights to the land they can access. Alternatively, rural women may have land rights but not be aware of them and this prevents them from making decisions about how to use their land or to use their land as collateral. Access to land may be a requirement for interventions around the use of agricultural technologies, adopting sustainable agricultural practices or undertaking long-term investments in land improvement, so that a gender-blind intervention may further intra-household wealth inequalities between men and women.	<p>What are the differences between women and men in ownership and use of land?</p> <p>Do men and women experience different barriers to land ownership and use, and if so what are they?</p> <p>How do men and women within a household make decisions about the use, sale or transfer of land?</p> <p>How do customary practices address gender inequalities in land titling and inheritance?</p>	<p>Sex-disaggregated data on intra-household and community land ownership</p> <p>Gender analysis of decision making around land use</p>	<p>Intra-household surveys</p> <p>LSMS-ISA¹</p> <p>National agricultural censuses</p> <p>OECD SIGI²</p> <p>FAO Gender and Land Rights Database</p> <p>WEAI³</p>
Women are normally responsible for subsistence crops and growing nutritious fruit and vegetables on household plots. They often have to work on the plots cultivated by their husbands prior to working on their own plots and this compromises the timeliness of their operations. The productivity of women's plots is further compromised by more limited access to improved seeds, fertiliser and other inputs; lower levels of adoption of improved practices; and poor post-harvest handling and storage methods. The ability to adopt soil and water cropping practices that strengthen resilience to climate change and natural resource degradation depends not only on land tenure but also on the ability to mobilise the necessary resources.	<p>What are the gender differences (workload and division of labour, income, decision making) in the growing of rainfed crops?</p> <p>How do men and women participate in decisions around the production, home consumption, storage and sale of rainfed products?</p> <p>What are the gender differences in the ability to adopt soil and water conservation practices?</p>	<p>Gender analyses around access to and control over resources for rainfed crop production</p> <p>Gender division of labour for rainfed crop activities</p>	<p>Agricultural censuses</p> <p>LSMS-ISA</p>

¹ Living Standards Measurement Survey – Integrated Surveys on Agriculture: <http://econ.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/EXTDEC/EXTRE-SEARCH/EXTLSMS/0,,contentMDK:23512006~pagePK:64168445~piPK:64168309~theSitePK:3358997,00.html>

² Social Institutions and Gender Index: <http://www.genderindex.org/>

³ Women's Empowerment in Agriculture Index: <http://www.ifpri.org/topic/weai-resource-center>

Reasons for analysis	Questions	Evidence required	Sources
<p>Women's access to irrigation is important for food and nutrition security especially in times of variable and uncertain weather conditions. However, women do not always have access to sufficient income, land or labour to benefit from irrigation technology (such as drip irrigation), or relevant information or training to operate it. Potential gender issues in irrigation schemes include women's access to irrigable plots, their location (often at the tail end of the scheme) and the water scheduling at times which are not convenient or safe for women. As the agricultural landscape changes and land is increasingly privatised, access to common property resources such as water diminishes and women may find it harder to collect water either for irrigation or domestic use.</p> <p>Irrigation interventions that are gender blind may negatively affect women's ability to access water for both household and productive uses. It may also significantly increase her workload if the family are now cropping two or three times a year.</p>	<p>Is there a difference in the way that men and women participate in irrigated agriculture?</p> <p>What are the gender implications of increased access to water for productive purposes on workloads?</p> <p>What opportunities and constraints do men and women face in membership, leadership and attendance of water user groups?</p>	<p>Gender analyses around access to and control over water resources</p> <p>Gender division of labour for activities related to water use</p> <p>Sex-disaggregated data on membership and attendance of water user groups</p>	<p>Agricultural censuses</p> <p>LSMS-ISA</p> <p>Community-level analyses</p>
<p>Livestock is an important household asset that generates income, enhances food security and serves as insurance in case of shocks. Women are often responsible for livestock maintenance, particularly those kept close to the homestead such as poultry, and processing livestock products such as cheese. However, women are less likely than men to own livestock, particularly larger, more valuable animals.</p>	<p>What proportion of men and women own/manage livestock, by type and number of animals?</p> <p>How do men and women participate in decisions around purchase, sale and use of livestock and livestock products?</p> <p>What are the gender differences (workload and division of labour, income, decision making) in livestock value chains?</p>	<p>Sex-disaggregated data on livestock ownership</p> <p>Gender analysis of division of labour, income and decision making in livestock value chains</p>	<p>Intra-household surveys</p> <p>LSMS-ISA</p> <p>WEAI</p> <p>Value chain analyses</p>
<p>Women play an active role in the protection and conservation of forests. They also use forests to collect fuel and a wide range of non-fuel products. In some settings, access to forests is problematic for women. Moreover, as forests degrade, they have to walk further to collect forest products. When it is culturally unacceptable for women to climb trees, men harvest fruit and wild honey.</p>	<p>What are men's and women's roles in protecting forests and harvesting timber and non-timber forest products?</p> <p>Do men and women experience different constraints in accessing timber and non-timber forest products, and if so what are they?</p>	<p>Gender analysis of forestry-related roles and responsibilities</p> <p>Gender analysis of division of labour, employment, income and decision making in forest product value chains</p>	<p>Forestry Department records</p> <p>Forestry management plans</p> <p>Forest extension records</p> <p>LSMS-ISA</p> <p>Community-level analyses</p>

Reasons for analysis	Questions	Evidence required	Sources
<p>Women are involved in small-scale fisheries, either fishing in small boats in the sea close to the shore, lakes, rivers or fish ponds, or net mending, feed preparation or stock feeding. These roles are often invisible and rarely remunerated. They are also mostly responsible for processing and marketing. Their ability to grow is constrained by limited access to credit, processing technology, storage facilities and training, without which traders cannot keep fish fresh and so suffer significant post-harvest losses.</p> <p>Programmes promoting the mechanisation of small-scale fisheries production risk displacing women from traditional sources of livelihoods.</p>	<p>What are the key roles of men and women in the fishery sector?</p> <p>What are the gender differences (workload and division of labour, income, decision making) in fishery value chains?</p>	<p>Sex-disaggregated data on employment in the fishery sector</p> <p>Gender analysis of division of labour, income and decision making in fishery value chains</p>	<p>Intra-household surveys LSMS–ISA</p> <p>Value chain analyses</p>
Financial services, knowledge, extension and technology			
<p>Sustainable access to credit is key for increasing agricultural productivity. Despite a substantial increase in micro-finance institutions targeting women, rural women's access to larger savings and credit schemes from the formal banking sector is often limited. They may lack identity documents, collateral, knowledge of products on offer, financial literacy, confidence to take risks, or mobility to travel to the offices of financial organisations. Social and cultural norms may prevent women from opening their own bank accounts or signing for credit. Even when women are able to access rural credit, they may not be able to control the use or repayment of a loan.</p> <p>Women's access to financial services can be enhanced through self-help groups and Credit and Savings Associations, and progressing onto cooperatives and legally registered groups.</p>	<p>What are the opportunities and constraints for men and women to access formal and non-formal financial services (bank accounts, credit, insurance)?</p> <p>Are there any financial institutions that target rural women with credit and savings schemes?</p> <p>Are there financial products tuned to the needs, priorities and resources of women?</p> <p>Are there any organisations that provide rural women with financial literacy training?</p> <p>How do men and women within a household make decisions about use of credit and savings?</p>	<p>Sex-disaggregated user data for rural financial services</p> <p>Gender analysis of access, use and control over savings and credit schemes</p>	<p>Intra-household surveys</p> <p>User reports and policies from rural financial institutions</p> <p>OECD SIGI</p> <p>Global Findex Survey</p> <p>WEAI</p> <p>LSMS–ISA</p>
<p>Poor rural women often lack the cash, credit or land to access technologies such as machines, tools, improved seeds, fertilisers or processing upgrades. They may also lack the labour, knowledge or literacy to utilise them. This means they may be less able to adopt good agricultural practices and climate-smart technologies.</p>	<p>How do rural men and women access technologies differently? What opportunities and constraints do they face and how do these differ by gender?</p> <p>How do men and women take decisions about rural investments (such as fertiliser, machines) within the household?</p>	<p>Sex-disaggregated household-level data on ownership and control of technologies</p>	<p>Intra-household surveys</p> <p>LSMS–ISA</p> <p>WEAI</p>

Reasons for analysis	Questions	Evidence required	Sources
Time, mobility, social and cultural norms, lower literacy levels, household responsibilities and workloads, and resource constraints can prevent rural women from benefiting from information and communication technologies (ICTs), training and extension services . Most extension officers are men and often find it easier to reach male farmers.	Do agricultural extension services reach male and female farmers equally and consider their differing time, mobility and resource constraints? Are communication media and outreach materials adapted for women?	Sex-disaggregated data on access to extension services/training Staffing structures of extension services	National and decentralised agricultural extension and training policies and programmes Media policies and programmes LSMS-ISA

Employment, markets and the private sector

Women around the world play an important role in agricultural employment . Rural households are rarely cohesive units, but rather within them men and women pursue separate livelihoods and are responsible for different production and consumption activities. For example, women may be responsible for fetching water and fuel, subsistence agriculture, small livestock, meal preparation and child care, whilst men may be responsible for commercial agriculture, accessing markets, large livestock, and deciding about the use of household income.	What proportion of rural adult men and women work in agriculture? What are the constraints for rural men and women to engage in on-farm or off-farm employment? What are community perceptions towards rural women's work?	Intra-household gender division of labour Sex-disaggregated data on rural employment by sector, activity and salary Gender analysis of rural value chains	Labour force surveys Integrated household surveys DHS ⁴ Intra-household surveys Community-level surveys LSMS-ISA
Where rural women are employed in rural value chains, their work may not be visible or valued. Rural women often work in poorly paid, unskilled and informal jobs where there is little security and conditions are poor. Their lower educational status, household responsibilities, lack of childcare facilities, and their time constraints limit the kinds of jobs women can do.	Is there a gender pay gap in rural employment? How much time, on average, do men and women work per day on paid and unpaid, on-farm and off-farm labour?		Time use studies WEAI FAO and OECD data on labour force participation rates
Trends of rural transformation (such as migration and commercialisation) can affect the lives of rural women both positively (through more employment opportunities, greater autonomy and/or decision-making power) and negatively (through a greater burden of responsibilities and poorly paid work).	What proportion of men and women work in specific agricultural value chains by activity (i.e. production, post-harvest grading, processing, transporting, trading)? To what extent do men and women adopt management and decision-making roles in rural value chains? Who makes decisions about production, marketing, pricing, grading, standards?		

⁴ Demographic and Health Surveys: <http://dhsprogram.com/>

Reasons for analysis	Questions	Evidence required	Sources
<p>Rural women play a key role in marketing agricultural produce in many parts of the world, but as agriculture becomes increasingly commercialised, the transformation of farm produce and small and medium farms into commercial enterprises may impact more on women than men.</p>	<p>How do rural men and women negotiate differently in markets? What opportunities and barriers do they experience to market access?</p>	<p>Sex-disaggregated data on membership of rural trade/producer/business associations and cooperatives</p> <p>Gender analysis of rural value chains, including market linkages</p>	<p>Intra-household surveys</p> <p>LSMS-ISA</p> <p>Registration records of rural trade/producer associations/cooperatives</p>
<p>Poverty, social or cultural constraints may restrict women's ability to use transport to reach markets. They may lack timely market information to negotiate better prices. They may lack the resources to upgrade production or comply with regulations in urban/global markets. Women's restricted access to collateral, their time constraints, or their restricted mobility may prevent them from participating in business networks, producer associations, trade associations, or rural cooperatives that provide access to markets and boost productivity. They cannot always acquire contracts in their own name to participate in contract farming, and they lack secure control over land, family labour and other resources needed to guarantee delivery of produce. As developing countries move towards export production, the transformation can have multiple effects on rural women.</p>	<p>How do rural men and women participate and lead differently in local trade associations/producer associations/business networks or rural cooperatives?</p>		
<p>Even in those sectors where women dominate, such as poultry production, market linkages with private sector services such as vaccinations or feed often disproportionately benefit men because private sector companies find it easier to reach male farmers. Companies that provide inputs such as fertilisers or seeds tend to target producers of cash crops to ensure repayment, which women are less likely to farm in large quantities. This leads to a 'masculinised' marketing system, where women are sidelined and end up focusing on traditional crops.</p>			

Reasons for analysis	Questions	Evidence required	Sources
Voice, leadership and decision making			
<p>In many countries, deep-rooted structural gender power imbalances exist that prevent women and girls from exercising control over resources, having a voice or making decisions. These societal gender biases range from intra-household bargaining, to community-level organisations such as agricultural cooperatives, which are primarily dominated by men, to national level policy and planning bodies. Women are under-represented in leadership positions.</p> <p>Women's lower educational status, higher rates of illiteracy, limited mobility, lower confidence rates and lack of time all conspire to compound these structural inequalities.</p> <p>Rural organisations, such as producer associations, cooperatives or farmers' groups, offer the potential to transform gender power imbalances by raising women's profile, voice and confidence through collective action and by increasing women's awareness of their rights. However, social norms and practices can exclude women from rural institutions for many reasons. Women may lack the time, confidence, education and resources to participate or contribute. Women's attendance in rural meetings does not always translate into greater participation in decision making.</p> <p>Policies and programmes are sometimes gender blind – for example, in cases where decision-making bodies set up to combat the effects of climate variability do not involve women – and this exclusion further hinders the process of transforming gender power imbalances and prevents opportunities for sustainable development in the long term.</p>	<p>What are the perceptions of communities towards women holding public office and/or speaking in public?</p> <p>What level of participation (in relation to membership, attendance, voicing opinions) do rural men and women enjoy in rural organisations (traditional community leadership structures, farmer-based organisations, credit and savings groups, community-based organisations, water use groups, etc.)?</p> <p>Are there any constraints to how men and women participate in these organisations and if so what are they?</p> <p>Are existing women's groups active? Do they form strategic alliances with other networks or movements that promote rural women's rights, such as the women's arm of continental, regional or national farmers' associations?</p>	<p>Intra-household decision-making patterns</p> <p>Sex-disaggregated data on leadership, membership and attendance of rural organisations</p> <p>Gender analysis of level of influence within rural organisations</p> <p>Description of rural women's organisations and networks</p>	<p>Intra-household surveys</p> <p>DHS</p> <p>Community-level surveys</p> <p>Records/registers of rural organisations and networks</p> <p>WEAI</p>
Legal and policy framework			
<p>In countries where patriarchal social norms and customary law hold sway, the challenge remains how to enforce laws that protect the rights of rural women and girls. This is especially relevant in relation to securing rights to land and property. Almost all national gender policies stress the importance of promoting gender equality in the rural sector, but in general there is a disconnect between national and sectoral gender policies on the one hand and sectoral food and nutrition security policies on the other. This disconnect is a result of limited awareness or understanding amongst policy makers of how gender inequalities influence agricultural development, food and nutrition security outcomes. It is important that a government's stated commitment to gender equality in national development plans is reflected in sector budgeting otherwise this commitment evaporates.</p>	<p>How does the government address gender discrimination in the legal/policy framework relating to agriculture, food and nutrition security? For example, in land and property titling and inheritance, in rural employment, in financial service provision, in extension service provision?</p> <p>Is there any evidence of gender budgeting in the government's agricultural spending?</p>	<p>Gender analysis of the national legal/policy framework relating to agriculture, food and nutrition</p> <p>Gender analysis of rural customary practices</p>	<p>National constitutions, laws and policies on land titling and inheritance, employment, rural extension services</p> <p>Sector budgets</p> <p>Community-level analyses</p> <p>OECD SIGI</p> <p>CEDAW⁵ reporting</p>

⁵ Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women

Reasons for analysis	Questions	Evidence required	Sources
Food and nutrition security			
<p>As guardians of household food security, women play an important role in the availability, access and use of food, and often have knowledge of invaluable coping strategies in times of stress. However, as primary producers of subsistence crops for household consumption, women's lack of resources or knowledge to withstand stress such as drought, economic crises or increasingly industrialised farming systems directly impacts on household food and nutrition security.</p> <p>Adolescent girls and women of reproductive age are particularly at risk of undernutrition, not only because of the reproductive role, but also in some cases as a result of discriminatory conventions relating to food consumption, such as the tradition that women and girls eat last or eat less nutritious leftovers. Undernutrition in mothers increases the risk of poor foetal growth, which can lead to childhood stunting, which in turn can persist into adulthood if it is not addressed during the first two years of life.</p> <p>Gender analysis of causes and consequences of undernutrition can inform nutrition-related interventions and help break down the inter-generational cycle of undernutrition. Importantly, gender analysis can highlight where and how men can be involved in efforts to improve nutrition security.</p> <p>Social transfers can contribute to building the resilience of the most vulnerable populations, and in particular they can help poor rural women. In the short term, they provide liquidity, protect assets, open up access to credit and enable investment in productive livelihoods. In the longer term, social transfers contribute to improving nutrition, and to sustainable agriculture and economic growth. However, it is important that social transfer programmes are designed to ensure that women benefit, that delivery mechanisms are convenient for women, and that conditions associated with them do not add to women's workload.</p>	<p>What are the differences in nutritional status and trends in undernutrition amongst men, women, girls and boys?</p> <p>Are there any traditional conventions around food that may influence household nutrition security?</p> <p>How do men and women adapt to external shocks that threaten food and nutrition security?</p> <p>What are the levels of household nutrition awareness amongst men and women, including nutrient requirements for women and girls, breastfeeding practices and dietary diversity?</p> <p>Are there any nutritional services/information available for women and children, including nutritional advice during prenatal check-ups, breastfeeding advice, complementary foods or nutritional rehabilitation in cases of severe malnutrition?</p> <p>Are social transfers available for the rural poor? If so, are the targeting mechanisms designed in a way that addresses the food security and nutritional needs of rural women and girls?</p>	<p>Sex-disaggregated data on nutritional status, including weight for age of under-5s; stunting of infants; anaemia in pregnant women</p> <p>Gender analysis of causes and consequences of undernutrition</p> <p>Sex-disaggregated data on recipients of social transfer programmes</p>	<p>National health surveys</p> <p>DHS</p> <p>Household and community-level health and nutrition surveys</p> <p>Social transfer registers</p>

Appendix 2. Useful material for gender-sensitive and transformative programme/project cycle management

Author organisation	Title	Nature of tool	Description
Guides and tools for gender analysis and gender-sensitive and transformative design			
Agri-ProFocus (2014)	Toolkit on Gender in Value Chains http://agriprofocus.com/upload/ToolkitENGGender_ToolkitENGGender_in_Value_ChainsJan2014compressed14152032301426607515.pdf	Tools for integrating a gender lens in value chain development	A toolkit that provides practical tools for integrating gender dimensions into all stages of value chain intervention. Tools are divided into three categories: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ data collection/analysis ■ fostering participation of actors in value chain development ■ approaches, 'ways of thinking' and variety of interventions.
CARE International (2012)	Good Practices Framework, Gender Analysis https://www.care.org.au/wp-content/uploads/2015/02/Good-Practices-Brief.pdf	Guide for gender analysis	This resource discusses basic concepts of gender and introduces key areas for questions to take into consideration when undergoing a gender analysis. For each area, it provides examples of questions that a gender analysis may want to explore, taking into account the women's empowerment domains of agency, structures and relations.
FAO (2011)	Social Analysis for Agriculture and Rural investment Projects http://www.fao.org/docrep/014/i2816e/i2816e00.htm	Guide for social analysis and e-learning	This comprises three guides for applying social analysis to agricultural projects and programmes. The Manager's Guide describes the main parameters of social analysis. The Practitioner's Guide looks into more detail of the 'why and what' questions of a social analysis. The Field Guide provides in-depth guidance on fieldwork aspects of social analysis, such as data collection activities, checklists, focus group discussions and household interviews. All three guides have components relating to gender analysis. These guides are also available in e-learning format. (http://www.fao.org/elearning/?pgLanguage=en&leftItemSelected=food-security-courses#/elc/en/course/SA)
FAO, IFAD and World Bank (2009)	Gender in Agriculture Source Book http://www.fao.org/docrep/011/aj288e/aj288e00.HTM	A guide and e-learning to understanding gender equality, sustainable livelihoods and food security. Includes examples of good practice and a synthesis of knowledge and experience	A guide for practitioners and technical staff in addressing gender issues and integrating gender-responsive actions in the design and implementation of agricultural interventions. The book has 16 sections covering: food security, governance, water, rural finance, land, markets, education, labour, infrastructure, natural resource management, crops, fisheries, livestock, forestry, crises, and monitoring and evaluation. It compiles good practice and innovative activities, drawing on countless examples and references from FAO, IFAD and the World Bank. Recent additions include climate smart agriculture. There is an e-learning course based on the source book: http://www.gender-gap.net/content/gender-agriculture-e-learning-course .

Author organisation	Title	Nature of tool	Description
FAO, with the Gender and Water Alliance (2014)	Gender in Food and Nutrition Security http://www.fao.org/elearning/#/elc/en/course/FG	A 14-hour online training course	<p>The aim of the course is to provide guidance on designing and implementing gender-sensitive agricultural interventions that promote improved food and nutrition security in a gender-responsive way. Modules are clear, well-illustrated and allow the user to proceed at their own pace. Importantly, the course reflects a change in thinking around the <i>Gender and Development</i> (GAD) approach, using the continuum of approaches described by the <i>InterAgency Gender Working Group</i> (IGWG) that range from <i>gender-blind</i> and <i>exploitative</i> to <i>transformative</i>.</p> <p>The course reflects the evolution in thinking around agriculture and rural development towards an integrated approach that combines food and nutrition security. It examines, for example, the gender dimensions of the four pillars of food and nutrition security: access, availability, use and stability. Course modules are closely tied to current global trends, such as: the impact of climate change on women; changing ecosystems; and emergencies resulting from increasing drought and erratic rainfall.</p>
BRIDGE (2014)	Gender and Food Security: Analysis Towards Gender – Just Food and Nutrition Security http://www.bridge.ids.ac.uk/bridge-publications/cutting-edge-packs/gender-and-food-security	Analysis	<p>This report provides a comprehensive analysis of food and nutrition insecurity using the four 'pillars' of food security. It goes on to identify examples of practices, policies and programmes at the regional, national and local levels that use simple yet innovative strategies to address food security with a gender-aware approach, often in transformative ways.</p>
IFAD (2017)	Poverty targeting, gender equality and empowerment toolkit https://www.ifad.org/topic/targeting/overview/tags/knowledge_notes	Toolkit	<p>The toolkit comprises a teaser and two how-to-do notes on targeting and gender in the project cycle (design and implementation support). It explains how to identify and address the diverse needs, constraints and opportunities of poor rural people through IFAD-supported projects enabling gender transformative pathways.</p>
IFAD (2014)	Household Methodologies Toolkit https://www.ifad.org/topic/household_methodologies/overview	Methodology	<p>Household Methodologies are participatory methodologies designed to improve intra-household gender relations for more equitable outcomes. This toolkit provides an overview of the Household Methodology, a step-by-step guide on how to implement them, and details of case studies illustrating the kinds of interventions that have been used.</p>
IFAD (2009)	Mayoux, L. and Hartl, M. Gender and rural microfinance: Reaching and empowering women http://www.ifad.org/gender/pub/gender_finance.pdf	Checklists	<p>This guide provides an overview of gender issues for rural finance practitioners, and the questions that need to be asked and addressed in gender mainstreaming. It includes recommendations and case studies/examples as well as checklists for organisational gender mainstreaming; product design; groups, participation and empowerment-building; complementary service; and gender impact.</p>

Author organisation	Title	Nature of tool	Description
International Training Centre of ILO	Resource package on gender mainstreaming in EU development cooperation http://eugender.itcilo.org/		This online resource package offers practical guidance on how to promote gender equality and achieve more equitable and sustainable development results. There is online and off-line training on tools for gender mainstreaming in thematic areas and aid modalities, as well as a dedicated section on how to use the OECD-DAC gender equality marker.
KIT and SNV	Nutrition and Gender Sensitive Agriculture Mapping Tool http://www.ngsatoolkit.org/home		This toolkit has been designed to facilitate the design of programmes that address undernutrition through gender-sensitive agriculture. It is a very user-friendly, step-by-step guide that takes the reader through how to carry out a gender analysis to how to design an intervention.
Landesa, Rural Development Institute (2014)	Women's Land Tenure Framework for Analysis: Land Rights http://www.weldd.org/resources/womens-land-tenure-framework-analysis-land-rights	Checklist	Framework to assess women's land rights in a specific context to help identify gaps between law and practice. The framework can be used as a checklist (questions) in relation to agricultural programmes (see example 1 in checklist).
Mercy Corps (2014)	Rethinking Resilience: Prioritizing Gender Integration to Enhance Household and Community Resilience to Food Insecurity in the Sahel https://www.mercycorps.org/sites/default/files/Mercy%20Corps%20Gender%20and%20Resilience%20September%202014.pdf	List of recommendations	This report provides recommendations on how to incorporate gender in resilience programmes in the Sahel.
Overseas Development Institute (UK) (2010)	How to design and implement gender sensitive social protection programmes http://www.odi.org/publications/5093-design-implement-gender-sensitive-social-protection-programmes	Toolkit	This has good references to gender-sensitive social transfer programme development and implementation.

Author organisation	Title	Nature of tool	Description
Oxfam (2011)	Gender and Disaster Risk Reduction: A training pack http://policy-practice.oxfam.org.uk/publications/gender-and-disaster-risk-reduction-a-training-pack-136105	Training pack	This provides materials for a four-day workshop. It includes traditional, as well as participatory and experiential learning approaches. It focuses on women's unequal access to resources, legal protection, decision making and power, their reproductive burden and their exposure to violence. There is also a focus on women's significant knowledge and responsibilities in natural resource management and building sustainable livelihoods. The training covers: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Key concepts and links of gender and disaster risk reduction ■ Gender mainstreaming and analysis in disaster risk reduction ■ Gender programme planning and implementation ■ Participation, empowerment and accountability.
United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) (2012)	Gender, agriculture and food security http://www.undp.org/content/dam/undp/library/gender/Gender%20and%20Environment/TM4_Africa_Gender-ClimateChange-and-Food-Security.pdf	Training module	This training module provides basic information and learning tools for understanding and advocating for integration of gender issues in climate change policies at the regional, national and community levels. The module focuses on gender, agriculture and food security.
United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) (2010)	Gender, Climate Change and Community-Based Adaptation – A Guidebook for Designing and Implementing Gender-Sensitive Community-Based Adaptation Programmes and Projects, New York: UNDP http://www.undp.org/content/undp/en/home/librarypage/environment-energy/climate_change/gender/gender-climate-change-and-community-based-adaptation-guidebook-.html	Guidebook, checklist	This guidebook sets out questions that need to be asked in designing a gender-sensitive climate change community project.

Author organisation	Title	Nature of tool	Description
USAID (2011)	Gender Analysis Guidance https://www.usaid.gov/sites/default/files/documents/1865/201sa_e.pdf	Guidance	This paper provides practical tips for conducting a gender analysis in project design. Although it is tied to USAID's project cycle management, it has useful guidance for areas of analysis in the domains of access; knowledge, beliefs and perception; practices and participation; time and space; legal rights; and power and decision making. It is strong on identifying the root causes of gender inequalities.
USAID/Land O'Lakes (2015)	Integrating Gender throughout a Project's Life Cycle https://www.landolakes.org/resources/tools/Integrating-Gender-into-Land-O-Lakes-Technical-App	Guidance	This paper offers guidance for integration of gender equality dimensions to a rural development investment, including: gender analysis; different technical approaches; and capacity building.
World Bank and ONE (2014)	Levelling the Field: Improving Opportunities for Women Farmers in Africa http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/579161468007198488/pdf/860390WPOWB00N0osure0date0March0180.pdf	Review and suggested policy priorities	This paper is divided into two parts. The first provides a robust analysis of the gender gap in agriculture in six African countries (Ethiopia, Malawi, Niger, Nigeria, Tanzania and Uganda). Drawing on this, the second part suggests policy priorities for governments and donors to address the identified gender gaps. These are clustered around land, labour, non-labour inputs, information, markets and human capital.
World Bank (2012)	Making Livelihoods and Social Protection Gender-Sensitive https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/handle/10986/17072	Guidance note	This is a guidance note on gender issues in disaster risk management (DRM) in the East Asia and the Pacific region. It identifies key challenges and recommends strategies and tools for incorporating gender-sensitive social protection and livelihoods into DRM programmes and for strengthening the links between social protection and livelihoods.
World Bank (2012)	Making Women's Voices Count – Integrating Gender Issues in Disaster Risk Management http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/2012/10/16875436/making-womens-voices-count-integrating-gender-issues-disaster-risk-management-overview-resources-guidance-notes	Guidelines	Grounded in extensive field work in Lao PDR and Vietnam, and drawing on the significant amount of material already available, these notes aim to condense a number of complex issues and themes to provide 'first stop' practical information.

Author organisation	Title	Nature of tool	Description
CGIAR, WorldFish, CARE (2015)	Measuring gender-transformative change: A review of the literature and promising practices http://www.worldfishcenter.org/content/measuring-gender-transformative-change	Indicators	This paper provides an excellent in-depth analysis of what we mean by gender-transformative change in rural development. It uses a three-way framework to measure transformative change: agency, relations and structures, and refers to four dimensions of power: power over, power to act, power within and power with. Each section provides a list of indicators that can be used to measure transformative change, and lists relevant methodologies to collect information.
Guides and tools for gender-sensitive and transformative data collection, monitoring and evaluation			
CGIAR (2016)	Indicators of gendered control over agricultural resources: A Guide for agricultural policy and research https://gender.cgiar.org/indicators/	Indicators	This guide builds on the paper above, whilst focusing on gender gaps in control over resources. The paper recognises an unmet need for simple, robust indicators that can be used to measure outcomes of innovative technology, policy and organisational interventions that may change gender relations. The paper offers plenty of useful indicators, for example, relating to: ownership, use and control over land and livestock; control over water; control over financial assets; and control over labour.
FAO (2010)	Toolkit for Sex-Disaggregated Data and Gender Analysis http://www.fao.org/gender/agrigender/agri-gender-toolkit/en/	Gender-sensitive questions and tables from agricultural censuses around the world	This toolkit influenced the World Programme for the Census of Agriculture in 2010. Governments have realised the importance of generating sex-disaggregated statistics relating to agriculture for planning effective policies and programmes. Consequently, agricultural censuses collect information on human resources rather than only on agricultural inputs and outputs. Information on human resources includes women's contributions to production and their access to productive resources.
FAO, IFAD and World Bank (2009)	Gender in Agriculture Source Book http://www.fao.org/docrep/011/aj288e/aj288e00.HTM	Indicators	This guide for practitioners and technical staff has a very useful section on indicators.
International Food and Policy Research Institute (IFPRI) (2012)	WEAI Resource Center http://www.ifpri.org/topic/weai-resource-center	Indicators	This resource centre provides all the material on the Women's Empowerment in Agriculture Index (WEAI) which is the first comprehensive and standardised measure to capture women's empowerment and inclusion levels in the agriculture sector. The index measures empowerment in five domains: decisions around agricultural production; access to and decision making power over productive resources; control over use of income; leadership in the community; and time use.

Author organisation	Title	Nature of tool	Description
IFPRI and International Livestock Research Institute (ILRI) (2012)	A Toolkit on Collecting Gender & Assets Data in Qualitative & Quantitative Program Evaluations	Guidelines Case studies Table templates	This toolkit offers methods for collecting and analysing quantitative and qualitative data on the gender-assets gap. It identifies tools, best practices and approaches, and pros and cons for each.
	http://gaap.ifpri.info/files/2010/12/GAAP_Toolkit_Update_FINAL.pdf		
ILRI (2011)	Gender, livestock and livelihoods indicators	Guide to indicators	This guide provides indicators to monitor the changing role of livestock in livelihoods in different production systems and the impact of livestock-related interventions.
	https://cgspace.cgiar.org/bitstream/handle/10568/3036/Gender%20Livestock%20and%20Livelihood%20Indicators.pdf?sequence=4		
OECD	Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI)	List of indicators	The SIGI provides an up-to-date measure of five dimensions of discriminatory institutions against women in 160+ countries: family code; physical integrity; son bias; access to resources; and restricted liberties. All these relate to sustainable agriculture, food and nutrition security. In particular, the SIGI captures measures of transformative change in social norms, such as attitudes and behaviours.
Root Capital (2015)	Social and Environmental Scorecards	Scorecard	These are social and environmental scorecards for loan officers to conduct due diligence. Some of the questions contain useful pointers for establishing a baseline and setting indicators for project objectives or outputs that relate to provision of rural credit. For example, questions ask about the gender of producers, artisans, and enterprise decision makers.
	http://info.rootcapital.org/hs-fs/hub/253051/file-2543781519-pdf/downloads/Social_and_Environmental_Scorecards_ENG.pdf?hsCtaTracking=ff5a819b-d210-49b9-9b7f-9821294f6d4e%7C0d7129dd-56e0-4614-bbeb-d0a60926edd7&__hstc=5548588.99df2eb6792136736b784d3a5e9caa72.1486074120110.1486074120110.1&__hssc=5548588.1.1486074120110caa72.1486074120110.1486074120110.1486074120110.1&__hssc=5548588.1.1486074120110		

Author organisation	Title	Nature of tool	Description
USAID (2014)	Understanding the Women's Empowerment Pathway – Improving Nutrition through Agriculture Technical Brief Series https://www.spring-nutrition.org/sites/default/files/publications/briefs/spring_womensempowerment_brief_4_0.pdf	Checklist	This brief provides useful frameworks for exploring how current interventions are working to achieve nutritional goals. The real-life examples show the links between empowering women and improving agriculture livelihood and nutrition outcomes.
World Bank (2016)	Feminization of Agriculture in the Context of Rural Transformations: What is the Evidence? https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/handle/10986/25099	Review, guide for indicators	This review assesses the evidence for the feminisation of agriculture and proposes a number of indicators to track this phenomenon.
World Bank (2012)	Toolkit – Gender Issues in Monitoring and Evaluation in Agriculture http://www-wds.worldbank.org/external/default/WDSContentServer/WDSP/IB/2012/11/22/000356161_20121122050203/Rendered/PDF/NonAsciiFileName0.pdf	Guidelines, checklists	This toolkit provides step-by-step checklists for designing rural development projects, and monitoring and evaluating results, outcomes and impacts.

Appendix 3. Suggested indicators for measuring gender equality in food and nutrition security and sustainable agriculture

Indicator	SDG	GAP II
Inclusive and sustainable growth		
LAND USE AND SECURITY		
Proportion of total adult population with secure tenure rights to land, with legally recognised documentation and who perceive their rights to land as secure, by sex and by type of tenure	1.4.2	15.1 ¹
(a) Proportion of total agricultural population with ownership or secure rights over agricultural land, by sex; and (b) share of women among owners or rights-bearers of agricultural land, by type of tenure	5.a.1	
Changes in household negotiation processes for use and control of land (choice of crops, inputs, timings of cropping, sale/transfer of land)		
Changes in attitudes of men and women towards women's control over land ²		
Sex-disaggregated percentage of rural population accessing legal advice over land		
Levels of community mobilisation for land rights awareness ³		
Levels of community mobilisation for enforcement of land rights for women ⁴		
Sex-disaggregated percentage of population receiving legal literacy		
Proportion of countries where the legal framework (including customary law) guarantees women's equal rights to land ownership and/or control ⁵	5.a.2	
FORESTRY		
Sex-disaggregated membership of forest user groups		
LIVESTOCK		
Sex-disaggregated percentage of small-scale farmers who participate, solely or jointly, in decisions around use, sale, transfer or slaughter of livestock		

¹ 15.7 is similar to this: Number of women and men who have secure tenure of land with EU support

² This indicator would need to be measured by a qualitative sample survey

³ Ibid

⁴ Ibid

⁵ This indicator would be for a regional or thematic programme

Indicator	SDG	GAP II
FINANCE		
Sex-disaggregated percentage of rural population receiving loans for their business plan		
Sex-disaggregated percentage of rural population who are members of informal savings/loans groups		
Sex-disaggregated percentage of rural population who participate (solely or jointly) in decisions about how to use a loan		
Sex-disaggregated percentage of population receiving training in loan application procedure		
Sex-disaggregated proportion of adults (15 years or older) with an account at a bank or other financial institutions or with a mobile-money service provider ⁶	8.10.2	
Numbers of men/women accessing EU supported community-level (micro-) financial services		
Sex-disaggregated percentage of population who have digital literacy in rural areas		15.7
WATER		
Sex-disaggregated percentage of rural population with on-site water facilities (agricultural/home gardening/other enterprises)		
Sex-disaggregated proportion of population using safely managed drinking water source		
Sex-disaggregated number of smallholder producers accessing water harvesting structures		
INCOME AND POVERTY MEASUREMENT		
Proportion of population below the international poverty line, by sex, age, employment status and geographical location (urban/rural)	1.1.1	
Average income of small-scale food producers, by sex and indigenous status	2.3.2	
EMPLOYMENT		
Sex-disaggregated unemployment rate (in rural areas)	8.5.2	
Average hourly earnings of employees, sex-disaggregated, by occupation and age	8.5.1	
Sex-disaggregated paid labour force participation rate in agriculture		
Proportion of rural population male/female living below \$1.25 (PPP) per day		14.3 ⁷

⁶ This SDG is not sex-disaggregated

⁷ This GAP II indicator has been adapted for the rural context

Indicator	SDG	GAP II
AGRO-ENTERPRISE AND MARKETS		
Sex-disaggregated percentage of farmers with improved market access		
Proportion of women and men forming part of the management of producers' organisations	5.2 ⁸	
Sex-disaggregated percentage of agro-enterprise owners surveyed who are satisfied with the business environment		
Sex-disaggregated percentage of rural population supported/trained to engage in income-generating activities (IGA)		
Sex-disaggregated percentage of rural population who participate (solely or jointly) in decisions about income from rural on- and off-farm enterprise		
Percentage of agri-business SMEs established by men/women		
Sex-disaggregated percentage of rural population who have received training in rural business/marketing/financial management		
VALUE CHAINS		
Sex-disaggregated percentage of smallholder farmers and aquaculture/fishery small producers involved in inclusive and sustainable value chains, by sector of value chain		
RURAL ORGANISATIONS		
Number of food and nutrition security policies and strategies where women's organisations have played an active role in their formulation		
Sex-disaggregated percentage of rural population who are members of community-level organisations		
Sex-disaggregated percentage of rural population who attend Village Council meetings		
Sex-disaggregated percentage of rural community organisation members who vote		
HOUSEHOLD GENDER RELATIONS, DOMESTIC AND CARE WORK		
Time spent by men/women collecting firewood and water		
Proportion of time spent on unpaid domestic and care work, by sex, age and location	5.4.1	14.2
Shift in cultural expectations of women as primary care givers and men as providers		
Evidence of changes in male and female decision-making patterns in households		

⁸ This SDG has been adapted for the context of rural organisations

Indicator	SDG	GAP II
Sustainable agri-food systems		
Sex-disaggregated number of farmers trained in sustainable production technologies/soil and water conservation/pest and disease management/animal diseases/basic veterinary services		
Sex-disaggregated percentage of rural population receiving rural advisory services with EU support		
Sex-disaggregated number of participants in farmer field schools		
Percentage of rural service providers who are women		
Sex-disaggregated proportion of farmers satisfied with training and/or extension services offered		
Sex-disaggregated percentage of small-scale farmers practising conservation agriculture		
Sex-disaggregated percentage of small-scale farmers practising climate-smart agriculture approaches (CSA)		
Changes in uptake of new technologies and inputs (such as improved seeds/grain mills/processing equipment/livestock breeding techniques/pesticides/fertilisers) by sex of landholder		
Reduced undernutrition		
NUTRITION STATUS		
Prevalence of stunting among children under 5 years of age by sex	2.2.1 ⁹	
Prevalence of malnutrition among children under 5 years of age, by sex and type	2.2.2 ¹⁰	
Minimum Dietary Diversity of women of reproductive age (MDD-W)		
Prevalence of low body mass index in women of reproductive age		
Prevalence of pregnant or lactating women suffering from vitamin A deficiency		
Prevalence of women of reproductive age with anaemia		
Prevalence of micro-nutrient deficiencies among women of reproductive age		
Minimum Dietary Diversity for children aged 1–5, by sex		

⁹ This SDG is not sex-disaggregated

¹⁰ This SDG is not sex-disaggregated

Indicator	SDG	GAP II
FOOD AND NUTRITION AWARENESS		
Levels of knowledge about nutrition awareness, by sex		
Extent of son preference in feeding		
Number of women who practise proper Infant and Young Child Feeding (IYCF) disaggregated by: breastfeeding (early initiation, exclusive breastfeeding until 6 months, and continued breastfeeding until the age of 1)		
Number of women of all ages, but especially at reproductive age, and children under 5 benefiting from nutrition-related programmes with EU support		12.3
Sex-disaggregated percentage of rural population trained on food conservation and preservation		
Sex-disaggregated percentage of WASH committee members		
HEALTHCARE		
Number of women/adolescent girls receiving primary healthcare (examples: maternal healthcare, child healthcare, reproductive healthcare, supplementation, therapeutic feeding, support to breastfeeding)		
Systemic resilience to food crises		
Number of food insecure people receiving assistance through social transfers supported by the EU, sex-disaggregated		12.4
Sex-disaggregated percentage of rural population emigrating due to lack of adequate food supply		
Sex-disaggregated percentage of rural population trained on DRR		
Evidence of adaptation/mitigation plans designed in consultation with rural women		

Indicator	SDG	GAP II
Enhanced, coherent support to developing countries on food and nutrition security and sustainable agriculture (FNS&SA)		
Number of political/policy dialogues between EU actors and partners in the country that raise gender equality issues in the FNS&SA sector, per year and at country level		1.1.2 ¹¹
Number of partner countries where EUDs and MS have agreed on context specific measures in the FNS&SA sector from the SWD ¹²		1.4.1 ¹³
Number of research projects co-financed by EU (EUD/MS) on gender-related issues in the FNS&SA sector		6.1.1 ¹⁴
Change (increase or decrease) in dedicated funding to improving results for girls and women in the FNS&SA sector after reviews and 2017 MTR (or equivalent)		3.1.1 ¹⁵
Proportion of government recurrent and capital spending to FNS&SA sector that disproportionately benefit women, the poor and vulnerable groups	1.b.1 ¹⁶	
Number of FNS&SA programmes working with the National Gender Equality Machinery		6.3.2 ¹⁷
Number of programmes in the FNS&SA sector reporting improvement in quality and availability of sex-disaggregated/gender-specific statistics through EU support		6.1.2 ¹⁸

¹¹ This GAP II indicator has been adapted for the FNS&SA sector

¹² SWD is the Joint Staff Working Document, which is the framework for the GAP II

¹³ This GAP II indicator has been adapted for the FNS&SA sector

¹⁴ Ibid

¹⁵ Ibid

¹⁶ Ibid

¹⁷ Ibid

¹⁸ Ibid

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