



# **PART TWO**

# **GENDER MAINSTREAMING**

# **IN SECTORS**

How gender aware is SADC as an institution? This can be gauged from time to time using the organisational score card found on **CD ROM 13**. The score card is a good test of the general introduction to this Resource Kit. It helps to identify areas of strength and weakness. It will also be apparent from this overview that the only way to ensure that gender mainstreaming works is for each directorate to play its part.

**Part two** of the Resource Kit focuses on gender issues in the key sectors that the SADC Secretariat works on through the Directorates. The chapters aim to give sufficient insight into the main issues, through case studies, exercises and fact sheets relevant to each sector. It is recommended that all staff read and appreciate the key gender issues in other sectors to foster cooperation across Directorates. This is particularly critical as gender is a cross cutting issue and requires a coordinated response. A cross sector approach to gender mainstreaming increases efficiency and effectiveness.

Each chapter addresses sector issues linked to a particular Directorate, and provides a step by step process for mainstreaming gender from a project/programme perspective. To assist managers in asking the right questions as they go about mainstreaming gender in their sectors, each chapter contains sector-specific checklists.

The structure of each chapter in Part Two is as follows:

- Brief profile of each Directorate and areas of focus.
- Key gender issues in areas of focus of the Directorate.
- Case study to prompt critical thinking about gender issues in selected sectors of focus.
- Analysis of the gender issues in the sectors.
- Check list of key gender issues (policy level, project, or programme levels).
- Where appropriate, additional resources for further reading are also provided.



# CHAPTER SIX

## FOOD, AGRICULTURE AND NATURAL RESOURCES



## **Introduction**

The main mandate of the Food, Agriculture and Natural Resources (FANR) directorate is to develop, promote, coordinate and harmonise policies and programmes to increase agricultural and natural resources production and productivity and to promote trade, food security and economic development in the region on a sustainable basis.

This is done through promoting agricultural productivity and food security at household, national and regional levels, promote efficient development, utilisation and conservation of natural resources, improve capacity in agriculture to transform national economies, generate domestic savings and foreign exchange to finance a gradual, structural transformation of the region's agriculture-dependent economies, and facilitate improvements in the welfare of the people of the region<sup>27</sup>.

As at June 2008, the Directorate consisted of 34 men and 20 women, with a woman director (the only one in the Secretariat).

FANR is managing 10 programmes that range from fisheries, to natural resources management and livestock development, amongst others. Within these, as in other Directorates, there are annual priorities approved by Council, for example, food security, natural resources and environment.

Agriculture is a major player in the SADC region's economy, and, contributes 35% to its gross domestic product (GDP), and about 70% of SADC's population depends on agriculture for food, employment, and income<sup>28</sup>. It is also a dominant source of export earnings in many SADC countries, on average it contributing approximately 13% to total export earnings and approximately 66% to the value of intra regional trade<sup>29</sup>. According to 2004 Dar Es Salaam Declaration on Agriculture and Food Security in the SADC Region "the performance of agriculture has a strong influence on food security, economic growth and stability of the SADC region."

The broad policy framework informing FANR activities places emphasis on food security as: a priority objective, cross cutting issue, and linked to alleviating hunger and poverty. The agriculture sector also has to contend with droughts; floods; plant pests; animal diseases; the impact of HIV and AIDS; inadequate irrigation and transport infrastructure.

Gender inequality limits potential in achieving agricultural and food security goals. The "time-age gender problems" of women being the key producers, but lacking access to land and land titles still persist. Land tenure systems remain patriarchal. Women also lack of access to such factors of production as fertiliser, improved technology, training and financial services.

Article 18 of the draft SADC Protocol on Gender and Development provides that State Parties shall, by 2015, review all policies and laws that determine access to, control of, and benefit from, productive resources by women in order to:

- (a) end all discrimination against women and girls with regard to water rights and property such as land and tenure thereof;
- (b) ensure that women have equal access and rights to credit, capital, mortgages, security and training as men; and
- (c) ensure that women have access to modern, appropriate and affordable technology and support services.

<sup>27</sup> FANR Directorate (2007) Annual Business Plans and Expenditure Estimates for 2008/9.

<sup>28</sup> SADC (2003:33) RISDP

<sup>29</sup> *ibid*



SADC therefore needs to take a lead in urging member States to revise legislation to empower women to contribute decisively to the elimination of food shortages. Guidelines on land tenure and land reform are necessary to reverse the status quo. A key area where Member States should close the gender gap is in the restoration and/or the establishment of financial services for farmers that they can use without being overburdened by unaffordable high-interest loans, and simultaneously ensuring that both women and men have access to them.



## Case study 2: Gender mainstreaming in food security management

As part of its early warning system, FANR administers an in-depth Needs and Vulnerability Multi Sector Assessment to a sample of households across Southern Africa. (see full form on **CD ROM 14**). Key gender data, or potential gender data that can be obtained through these surveys includes the following:

- The first question asked is the sex of the household head and the sub-question is the sex of the main respondent.
- Another question concerns the marital status of the household head.
- The survey asks the number of children who drop out of school. The question is asked separately for boys and girls. For both, there is the same drop down menu of nine reasons to choose from. The reasons include family not being able to afford the fees; helping with household activities; caring for a sick family member; hunger; lack of interest/poor performance and damaged infrastructure. Pregnancy is not specifically cited, although there is a category “other.”

Other kinds of question in the survey include:

- Type of cooking fuel used.
- Type of lighting used by the household.
- How many of different kinds of productive assets the family owns.
- How many livestock the household has.
- Income sources and expenditure patterns.
- Land ownership.
- Types of crop produced.
- Food purchases.
- Coping strategies. Eg borrowing food; food aid; selling assets
- 24 hour recall on children’s nutrition.
- Water and sanitation, including source; distance to water source; irrigation and sanitary disposal facilities.

A review of the regional and country reports that are compiled as a result of this survey showed that none of them, except one from Zimbabwe, had made use of gender disaggregated data in any way. The following are some extracts from the report “Zimbabwe: Emergency food security and vulnerability assessment April 2004” demonstrating how gender disaggregated data was used in the analysis:

### Head of household profile

A number of head of household characteristics are summarised below.

- Female headed households were most common in Matabeleland North and Midlands (35%) and least common in Mashonaland West (20%).
- One fifth of all households recorded the head as being widowed, most commonly in Midlands.

Comparing male and female headed households it became apparent that female heads were

- Less educated;
- More likely to be widowed and/or to have 1+ widows in residence;
- More likely to have households with more serious dependency ratios;
- More likely to have 1+ orphans in the household;
- Less likely to be in charge of large households.

### **Household education**

One quarter of households reported that one or more children aged 6-15 years was not currently attending school. Of these children 47% were female and one quarter were aged 6 years. Less than one fifth of households reported children dropping out of school in the previous 12 months and of those who had dropped out two thirds were over 12 years old and 44% were female.

### **Human capital factors**

A number of **human capital** factors were considered in respect of anticipated food insecurity in the coming year and are summarised as follows:

- 37% of female compared to 29% of male headed households are expected to be food insecure, the difference being most noticeable in Old resettlement areas;

### **HIV/AIDS and Food Security**<sup>30</sup>

While AIDS can affect households' food security status, their food security status can also affect the progression of the disease and its transmission. Poor nutritional status can increase the risk of opportunistic infections occurring, and can speed up the progression from HIV to full-blown AIDS. Research has also shown that malnutrition increases the risk of HIV transmission from mothers to children. Food insecurity can also lead people to engage in high-risk activities such as commercial sex work or emigrational labour, or can make them more vulnerable to sexual exploitation.

The gender dimension in the HIV/AIDS debate is quite crucial. It is estimated that more than half of all HIV/AIDS cases (56.5% of infected adult population) are found in the female population, who are arguably the most productive in rural areas and are also charged with providing primary care for the young. The gender dimension is clearest among teenage girls and young women. UNAIDS (2003) have indicated that the prevalence of HIV among 15-19 year old females is almost 4 times the prevalence for males of the same age; while the prevalence for 20-24 year old females is more than 2½ times higher than that for males. This reflects the particular vulnerability of young women to infection as a result of exploitation and/ or a lack of power in sexual relations.

Home based care (HBC) programmes and those for orphans and vulnerable children (OVC) are increasing and expanding in the rural areas of Zimbabwe, aiming to mitigate some of the effects of HIV/AIDS, and more national health policy initiatives are needed to contribute to the on-going efforts to control HIV/AIDS and to ease the plight of those affected.

### **Food Sources by gender and age of household head**

The table below shows the percentage of minimum energy requirements provided by each source of food, broken down by the gender and age of the household head<sup>31</sup>. The 18% of households in the survey who accessed more than double their minimum requirements last year (the "super secure") are excluded from this analysis to avoid skewing averages.

<sup>30</sup> Information in this section is based on "Zimbabwe National HIV and AIDS estimates 2003" MOHCW, CDC, UNADIS, SAFAIDS updates and the National Nutrition Survey (MOHCW) 2003.

<sup>31</sup> Note that the sample size is too small to allow further disaggregation of the households headed by 15-19 year olds.

This table shows that while there was a difference in the contribution of the harvest to households headed by males and females (31% for male-headed; 24% for female-headed), there was no significant difference by age. Age was more significant for direct sources of food – mainly food paid in exchange for casual labour - where elderly-headed households are likely to be less able to labour. There was little difference by age or gender in the contribution of purchased food.

#### Food Access by Source 2003-04, by Gender and Age of Household Head

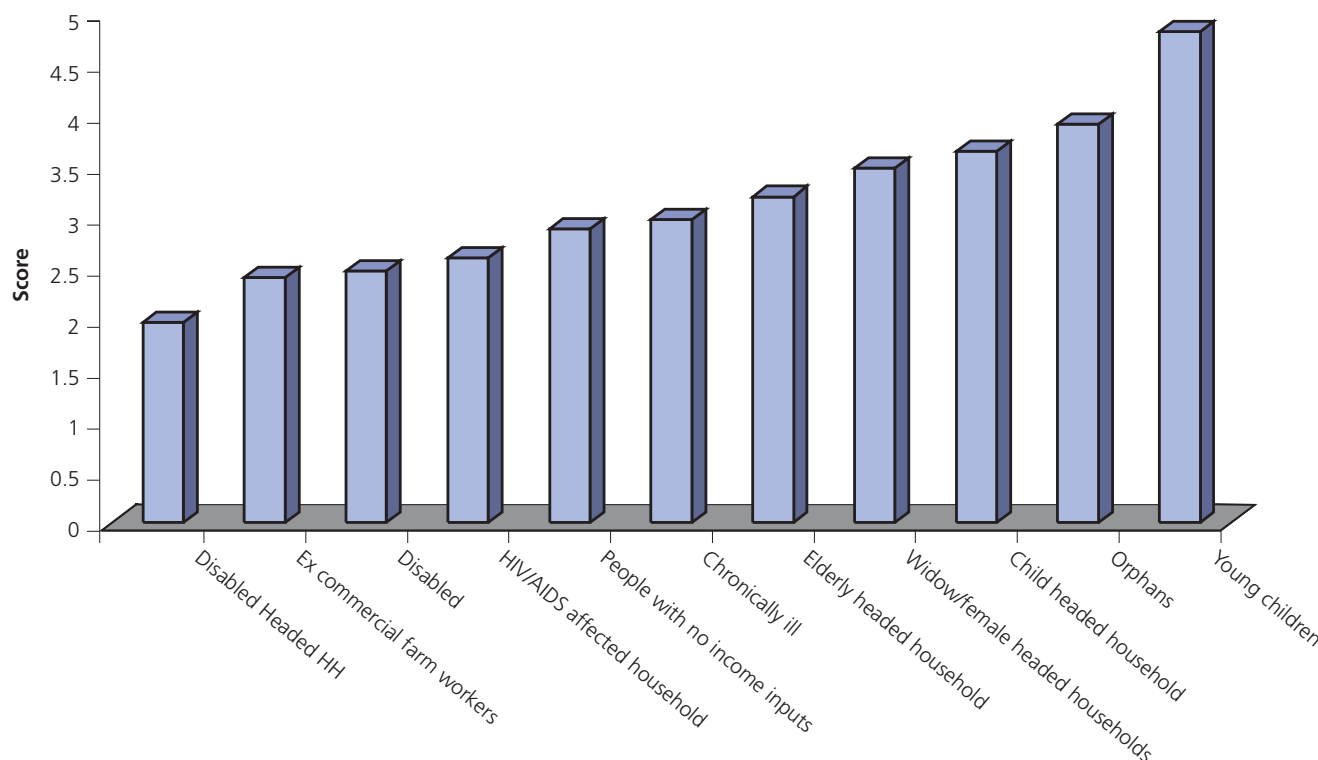
Gender of HH Head	Age of HH Head	Own Production	Direct Sources	Food Aid	Purchases	Total	n =
<b>Male</b>	<i>20-59 years</i>	31	8	35	25	<b>100</b>	1,046
	<i>60+ years</i>	31	5	42	22	<b>100</b>	385
	<i>All Male-Headed</i>	31	7	37	25	<b>100</b>	1,442
<b>Female</b>	<i>20-59 years</i>	24	7	46	23	<b>100</b>	396
	<i>60+ years</i>	24	8	49	24	<b>104</b>	153
	<i>All Female-Headed</i>	24	8	47	23	<b>101</b>	556
<b>Both gender</b>	<i>15-19 years</i>	20	9	43	35	<b>108</b>	18
	<i>20-59 years</i>	29	8	38	25	<b>100</b>	1,442
	<i>60+ years</i>	29	6	44	23	<b>101</b>	538
	<b>Total</b>	<b>29</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>24</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>1,998</b>

However, the biggest difference was in terms of the amount of food aid provided, where being female-headed and elderly-headed added to the average amount received. Households headed by 20-59 year men received 35% of their requirements from food aid, while those headed by elderly females received 49% of their requirements. In communal areas<sup>32</sup>, this greater amount of food aid appears to have slightly over-compensated for disadvantages some of those groups faced elsewhere, resulting in those groups accessing on average more than male or 20-59 year old headed households. In resettlement areas, however, where minimal food aid was provided, female and elderly-headed households had significantly lower total food access. Hence, while elderly female-headed households were the most food secure group in communal areas (accessing on average 107% of their needs), they were the most food insecure group in A1 resettlement areas (accessing only 77% of their needs).

#### Community Perceptions of the most vulnerable

Communities were asked to identify and rank which groups of people, from a specified list, were most vulnerable to food insecurity. Using the multiple response approach we find that, out of all groups ranked 1, ("most vulnerable"), orphans attracted one quarter of responses, followed closely by child headed households and thereafter by female or widowed headed households and elderly headed households.

<sup>32</sup> See Annex K for further disaggregation by land sector.



The report also contains several examples of instances in which gender is not mentioned at all, although such data could have been extracted. Examples include:

- At national level the amount of **land owned** is not an efficient indicator of food security but once the quality of the land is considered an observable pattern begins to emerge. Only in Natural Region III can land ownership reliably indicate food security, with more than 80% of households owing 7 or more acres of land being food secure. We note that more than half of all households reported that they intend to increase the acreage to cereals in the coming season.
- **Predictions of Food Security 2004-05:** A total population of 2.3 million people in the rural areas will not be able to meet their food requirements during the 2004-05 season, meeting a cereal deficit of 177,681 Mt . This is equivalent to 29% of the total rural population and represents a significant decrease of the predicted situation a year ago (56%). The greatest proportion of the population predicted to be food insecure will be in Matabeleland North (39%) followed by Matabeleland South (34%) whilst the greatest number of food insecure people will be in Manicaland and Midlands provinces. The extent of the cereal deficit varies across the three periods with the largest deficit being expected in the period December to March.

The following are excerpts from the **recommendations addressing targeting for short term food security:**

- Vulnerability to food insecurity is a complex and multi-faceted phenomenon. Factors such as the age, gender, health and education status of the household head, the presence of orphans and the dependency ratio interact with many others including land and livestock holdings, weather patterns and market access, to produce different patterns of vulnerability in different areas. For targeting interventions aimed at alleviating short-term food insecurity, the analysis in chapter 8 provides some guidance on specific small population groups that could be safely included or excluded, but there are no identifiable criteria that will accurately capture more than 60-70% of the food insecure population.



- Programmers must therefore complement the findings of national surveys such as this with more localised analysis of vulnerability, and maintain a flexible approach to targeting. Maximum flexibility would come from a system of community-based targeting, however such systems have the potential to be dominated or abused by more powerful segments in communities. Programmers must weigh up the guaranteed errors of a more top-down approach to targeting against the possibilities of putting in place systems to minimise errors in a community-based system<sup>33</sup>.

## Questions

1. Examine the questionnaire. How adequate do you think it is for effective gender mainstreaming?

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2. How could it be improved?

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3. What lessons does this hold for gender mainstreaming at design stage?

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4. What does the use of gender disaggregated data in the case of the Zimbabwe report reveal?

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5. Is this information useful? Why or why not?

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<sup>33</sup> Annex XX provides some further analysis on vulnerability and targeting.

6. In the examples provided, in what ways did the Zimbabwe report miss opportunities to mainstream gender?

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7. Would these have assisted an understanding of the issues? Why or why not?

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8. How adequate is gender mainstreaming in the recommendations made?

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9. Why is gender not integrated into the other reports, and how does this affect the regional reports?

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10. What does this exercise reveal about the importance of gender analysis permeating the whole project cycle, as well as all participants in the project?

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11. How can the deficiencies identified be addressed?

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12. Assuming that gender were fully mainstreamed into the early warning system, what tangible effects might this have in the way that SADC and MS respond to conflicts?

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## Fact sheet 7: Women's access to productive resources

Women's access to factors of production such as land, extension service, inputs, including fertiliser and seeds remain limited, although policies aimed at creating enabling environments for women to access, own, control, use and manage land for productive use have been established in nearly all countries.

### ***Right to own land***

In much of southern Africa, few rural women hold land. For instance, women hold 25 percent of agricultural land in the Democratic Republic of Congo, and 25 percent in Tanzania. Moreover, where women hold land, their plots are generally smaller than those held by men, for instance, the average size of women's landholdings is 0.53 hectares (compared to 0.73 for men) in Tanzania. This limited access to natural resources is caused by both legal and socio-cultural factors. Legal obstacles relate both to family and succession law and to natural resource law.

In most cases, women in southern Africa have only usufruct rights over land. Their insecure land tenure is both an economic and legal concern. Cultural practices and customary law contribute to women's inability to access, own, and control, factors of production such as land and livestock.

Some countries have improved women's rights by adopting family and succession laws abrogating discriminatory customary norms. In Namibia, there is The Communal Land Act (Act No. 5 of 2002), which provides for the surviving spouse to remain on the property (thus referring to immovable property) but does not refer to movable property. Although this Act has provisions to assist women who lose their land when widowed, the stripping of movable property is still now common in Namibia than land grabbing, possibly because the former is more easily disposed of than land.

In Malawi, the Agricultural and Livestock Development Strategy and Action Plan (ALDSAP) was formulated with specific gender-sensitive targets and outputs in 1995.<sup>i</sup> The plan aimed to increase women's access to agriculture, irrigation development, and extension services. To achieve this, the government reviewed the curriculum of agricultural training institutions to make them gender sensitive, recruited more female extension workers in the Ministry of Agriculture and Irrigation Management, sensitised the existing extension workers in the Ministry of Gender and Community Services to increase their coverage of women farmers, and encouraged women farmers to attend literacy classes.

In Zimbabwe, the government adopted equity as a key principle in its land reform agenda, which began in 1998. In October 2000, the government stated that it would ensure a 20 percent quota for women to benefit from the fast track resettlement programme.

By the end of the Fast Track Land Reform Programme in 2002, the land quota for women had not been put into law and the number of women allocated land was low countrywide. According to the 2003 Utete Land Report, female-headed households who benefited under Model A1 (peasant farmers) constituted only 18 percent of the total number of households while female beneficiaries under the Model A2 (commercial farmers) constituted only 12 percent.<sup>ii</sup> A Presidential Land Review Committee, appointed in 2003 has made specific recommendations on the gender dimensions of the agrarian change and reform.

<sup>i</sup> WLSA and SARDC-WIDSAA, *Beyond Inequalities 2005: Women in Malawi*, WLSA/SARDC, Limbe and Harare, 2005

<sup>ii</sup> Report of the Presidential Land Review Committee under the chair of Dr. Charles Utete, August 2003, pg 41.

In Mozambique, the 1997 Land Law was a major breakthrough because it combined formal and customary law. Not only did it recognise written documents in land usage cases, but also customary tenure systems and the rights of people who had occupied land for over 10 years in good faith - this meant that land occupied for 10 years, while believing nobody else had a legitimate claim to it, could legally be cultivated. The Land Law also guarantees equal rights of women.

**Access to credit and capital**

Many countries lack easily controllable practical mechanisms to help detect, control, and prevent discriminatory action between the sexes that may occur in a society. There are no laws in any SADC country that prohibit women from acquiring loans from banks or other financial institutions in their own name and right, but the pattern is similar in the region for many commercial lending institutions to insist on a male guarantor, usually a husband, if the woman has no sufficient collateral. The requirement for collateral and guarantors prejudices women more than men. Most women do not have assets that can be accepted as collateral due to poverty. Rural households (defacto and dejure) are the most affected.

In order to start a small business, women usually rely on family and/or community solidarity. Other measures to which women resort to obtain credit include rotating fund schemes through women’s clubs made up of people who trust each other and which establishes rules for the group.<sup>iii</sup>

Women Banks and Micro-finance lending institutions which have been introduced in many countries are another mechanism that has been put in place but they are inadequate and benefit only few women in the urban areas.

Access to credit remains a serious challenge to women, and by and large, the majority of women remain vulnerable to exploitation, in their attempts to access credit. Women, more than men, especially in rural areas rely on borrowing money from moneylenders who demand high interest.

Despite government’s efforts to link the poor, especially women, to commercial banks and other microfinance institutions, some financial institutions have procedures that are discriminatory and consider women as credit risks, especially due to the nature of their businesses, their capital base and minute loans applied for.

*(Source: Audit report on the implementation of the provisions in section H (iii) of the SADC Declaration on Gender and Development, SARDC WIDSAA, 2005).*



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<sup>iii</sup> Angola’s National report to SADC on implementation of the BDPFA and SADC Gender Declaration, 2004



## How are gender concerns currently reflected in FANR?

Now that we have established what the key gender issues are in agriculture, the logical next question is how these are reflected in current plans, programmes and projects.



### Exercise 17: Finding gender in FANR plans and programmes

Go through the FANR project concept notes and business plans in light of the key gender issues identified earlier and answer the questions that follow:

1. Is there any reference to gender anywhere?

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2. If yes, where, and is this adequate?

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3. Would you describe FANR plans as gender blind, gender neutral or gender aware?

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4. What can be done to make these plans gender aware?

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### Notes:

A review of FANR annual business plans in June 2008 showed that none of them had any reference at all to gender. Seven FANR staff received gender training in 2003, and developed an action plan for mainstreaming gender in FANR. Programmes have since expanded to respond to new and emerging challenges. The staff complement has also grown. These are important factors to be considered moving forward.

**Gender mainstreaming in FANR**

Clearly there is a need to revisit gender mainstreaming in this important sector. Before identifying how we would do so within each project, we need to establish what the legal and policy instruments that Member States subscribe to oblige us to do.



**Exercise 18: Finding FANR in legal and policy instruments**

Go through the legal and policy instruments below. What relevant provisions are there with regard to gender mainstreaming in FANR?

Instrument	Relevant provisions for gender mainstreaming
Millennium Declaration and Millennium Development Goals – Goal 1 and 3 (2000)	
Declaration World Food Summit (2002)	
Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1979)	
Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples’ Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa (adopted 2003)	
2004 Dar Es Salaam Declaration on Agriculture and Food Security in the SADC Region	
SADC Regional Gender Policy (Theme 4.6) (2007)	
SADC Declaration on Gender and Development (1997)	
Draft SADC Protocol on Gender and Development	



**Notes:**

According to the SADC Gender Policy and SIF, there are specific regional priorities on gender equality in the sectors coordinated by FANR that must be integrated into its planning and programming. Examples include access to and control over land, irrigation schemes, mainstreaming gender into food and agriculture policies, food distribution, investing in women farmers for increased agricultural production and incomes, amongst others. In all the SADC Gender Policy identifies 13 key areas of intervention in order to reduce food and nutritional insecurity amongst women and girls. The SIF on the other hand has linked food security to the MDGs goal of reducing hunger, as well as women’s access to credit and property rights, with appropriate targets.

**Action planning**



**Exercise 19:** Think through all the different programme areas of FANR. Identify at least one gender issue in each and one action point that can be taken to redress this. The checklists at the end of the chapter will assist you to think through the key gender issues and actions.

PROGRAMME	GENDER ISSUE	ACTION POINT
<b>1) AIMS</b>		
Regional Vulnerability Assessments and Analysis		
Drought monitoring centre Regional Remote Sensing Project		
<b>2) CROP DEVELOPMENT</b>		
Food availability		
Safety and nutritional value of food		
Access to food		
Disaster preparedness for food security		
Food availability		
Food access		
Disaster preparedness for food security		
<b>3) LIVESTOCK DEVELOPMENT</b>		
PRINT		

PROGRAMME	GENDER ISSUE	ACTION POINT
Foot and mouth disease		
Transboundary Animal Disease Project		
<b>4) AGRICULTURAL RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT</b>		
Food availability		
ICART		
FIRCOP		
SPGRC		
Access to food		
Science and technology		
<b>5) NATURAL RESEARCH MANAGEMENT</b>		
Fisheries		
Forestry		
Wildlife		
TFCA		
<b>6) ENVIRONMENT AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT</b>		
Environment Protocol		
Multilateral Environmental Agreements		
Land reform facility		
Environmental standards, data and reports		

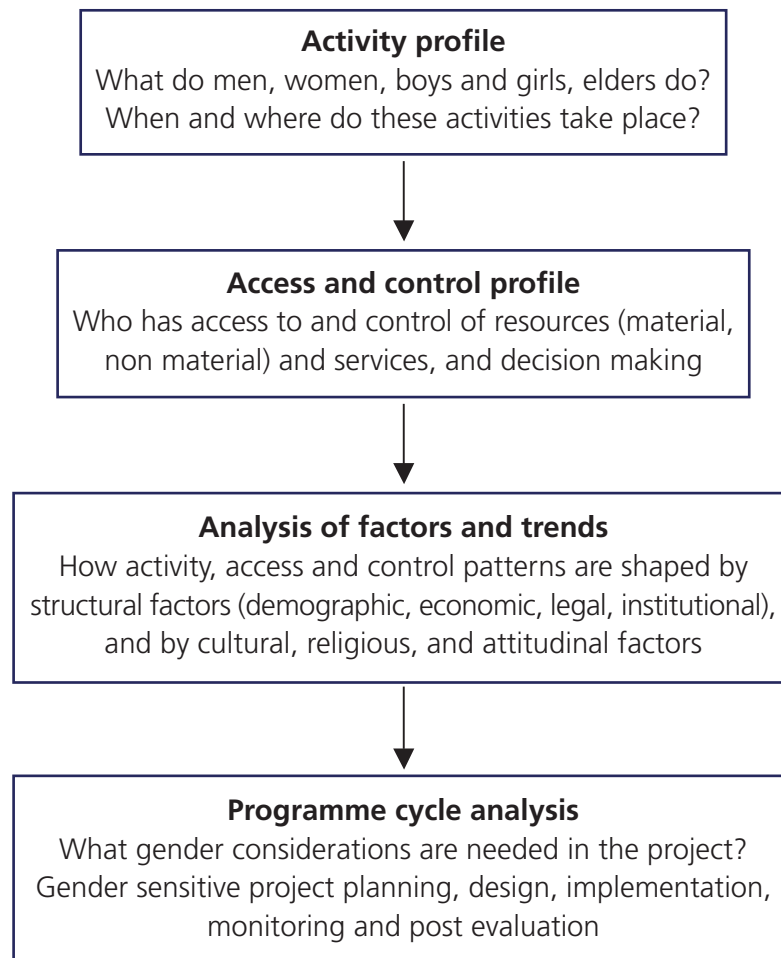




## Checklists

This section provides checklists for the agricultural sector, as well as sub-sectors within the sector.

**Figure 3: Gender analysis framework for agriculture**



### The Activity Profile

In order to plan, one needs to know the tasks of men and women in the population subgroups in the project area. This will enable one to direct project activities towards those performing particular tasks. Data must be gathered on women's and men's involvement in each stage of the agricultural cycle, on their shared as well as unshared tasks, and on the gender division of labor and the extent to which it is fixed or flexible. This ensures that women are actively included in the project and are not disadvantaged by it.

#### Tasks

- ✓ Which agricultural tasks are carried out by which member of the household, and how rigid is the gender division of labor?
- ✓ What are the daily and seasonal variations in labor availability?

- ✓ Who within the household has responsibility for which house-hold chores?

***Production of goods and services***

- ✓ Are women active in both subsistence and cash crop production? What is the workload of the target group at all stages of the farming process?
- ✓ In what season are the tasks performed? These questions are asked separately for each component of production (seed or cutting selection, land preparation, planting or seeding, weeding, cultivation, storage, preservation, processing or food transformation, marketing, etc.) for both cash crops and food crops, for livestock production (including poultry, dairying, fisheries, honey production and processing), and for tree crops.
- ✓ Are tasks shared between men, women, and children or carried out by only one gender?
- ✓ Are men or women culturally excluded from any tasks that might be affected by the proposed project?
- ✓ Do men or women to any extent (note the extent) take over from each other in times of hard-ship and work pressure or because certain activities have become more profitable?  
To what extent do changes in household composition (e.g., due to labor migration) change the gender division of labor? Female-headed households in particular need to be studied in this regard.
- ✓ Will the project increase the time spent by women or men on agriculture-related activities?
- ✓ Will new technologies be introduced to assist women's agricultural roles?

***Reproductive and human resource maintenance activities***

- ✓ Who carries out the tasks of reproducing and caring for household members? Among these tasks are the care of children, care of the aged, food production (including the cultivation of domestic food crops and livestock, shopping, food preparation and cooking), fuel and water collection, education, health care, laundry and cleaning, house maintenance (structural), artisan and craft production, and performance of social obligations.
- ✓ How much time do these activities take?

***Community work***

- ✓ Who organises and carries out work for the local community (for example, care and maintenance of community facilities such as water supply equipment, meeting places, and places of worship)?
- ✓ How much time does this work take and when is it done?

***Community organisation and activities***

- ✓ What types of community organizations (traditional socio cultural organisations, producer groups such as cooperatives, savings and credit groups, community-based organizations organized by non government organizations) exist in the project area?
- ✓ What is the membership profile of these community organizations, what are their objectives and strategies, and how much time do their activities require?

**Access and Control Profile**

The Access and Control Profile focuses on productive resources such as: land, equipment, labor, capital and credit, and education, extension, and training. There is also a differentiation between access to a resource and control over decisions regarding its allocation and use. In this way those responsible for project planning can consider whether the proposed project could undermine access to productive resources, or if it could change the balance of power between men and women regarding control over resources.

The profile examines the extent to which women may or unable to participate equitably in agriculture projects. For example, if women have limited access to land, they may be unable to join structures such as agriculture

cooperatives, which provide production inputs and commercial opportunities, or to become independent commercial producers. In some subgroups, men may also suffer the same disadvantage.

### **Resources and constraints**

- ✓ Who has access to and control over productive resources, such as land, capital, human capital resources (such as education, information and knowledge, training opportunities, extension services), and markets?
- ✓ What are the constraints and implications arising out of lack of control over or access to productive resources, for those who lack such control and access?
- ✓ Which decisions in the agricultural household and in the community do men and women typically make?
- ✓ How do men and women differ in the constraints they face, and how do these differences affect their work, productivity, and access to benefits?

### **Benefits and incentives**

- ✓ Who controls production in the agricultural household and in the community?
- ✓ Who receives wages and benefits from production?
- ✓ Are men and women paid different wages, and if so, why?
- ✓ Who markets farm and household produce?
- ✓ Who controls income from different sources - who decides who gets what in the agricultural household, and who receives the income?
- ✓ Which investment- or expenditure-related decisions do men and women take?

### **Analysis of structural and socio cultural factors**

This analysis considers the structural and socio-cultural factors that influence the gender patterns of activity and access and control in the project area:

- ✓ Demographic factors, including household composition and household headship;
- ✓ General economic conditions, such as poverty levels, inflation rates, income distribution, internal terms of trade, and infrastructure;
- ✓ Cultural and religious factors;
- ✓ Education levels and gender participation rates; and
- ✓ Political, institutional, and legal factors.

The analysis should consider the following:

1. Which policies and programmes aimed at ensuring women's participation could affect the project? These policies and programmes may include those of the following, among others:
  - ✓ Agriculture ministries/departments and local extension and training services at all levels; in the project?
  - ✓ Executing agency;
  - ✓ Non- government organisations (NGOs) and research institutes that deal with agriculture;
  - ✓ Training institutes providing training in agricultural skills; and
  - ✓ Media specialising in agriculture.
2. Which community norms and beliefs could influence women's participation in the project's activities? These norms and beliefs may include the following:
  - ✓ Cultural exclusion from productive activities;
  - ✓ Heavy participation in reproductive activities;
  - ✓ Exclusion from (active) participation in public proceedings;
  - ✓ Seclusion from contacts with male service staff; or
  - ✓ Lack of mobility because of cultural norms.
3. Are there laws or regulations that could affect women's participation in the project or their access to its benefits? These laws and regulations may include the following:
  - ✓ Inheritance laws;

- ✓ Land title regulations;
- ✓ Credit regulations (such as co-signature or requirement of consent by male guardians/husbands or collateral based on land title or both);
- ✓ Labour laws (may be relevant for agricultural estates, agro-industry); or
- ✓ Cultural prescriptions.

**Project cycle analysis and design issues**

This analysis will indicate if and where the objectives and methods proposed for the project should be modified to improve the chances that the project will succeed and to minimise the likelihood that women will be disadvantaged as a result of it.

Some questions that may need to be considered in this analysis are:

**Project framework**

- ✓ Do the planning assumptions (at each level of the planning framework or logical framework, for example) adequately reflect the constraints on women's participation in the program?
- ✓ Do project performance indicators identify the need for data to be collected, disaggregated by gender?
- ✓ Will changes in the gender division of labour be monitored? Will data on women's access to and control over resources be collected during the project?
- ✓ Can the project meet both practical gender needs (supporting and improving the efficiency of women's and men's productive roles) and strategic gender needs (improving gender equity through women's participation in the project)?
- ✓ Do the goals, purposes, or objectives of the programme explicitly refer to women or reflect women's needs and priorities?
- ✓ Do the project inputs identify opportunities for female participation in programme management, in the delivery and community management of goods and services, in any planned institutional changes, in training opportunities, and in the monitoring of resources and benefits? Will the project resources be relevant and accessible to poor women in terms of personnel, location, and timing?
- ✓ Does the project include measurable indices for the attainment of its GAD objectives, to facilitate monitoring and post-evaluation?

**Access**

- ✓ Can project terms and conditions overcome the legal impediments that keep women from owning or accessing land, taking out loans, joining cooperatives, selling products, or receiving payments?
- ✓ If women's rights to property are currently unequal, can the project increase women's equity? (For example, if new land arrangements are proposed, can the project require that the title be held jointly by the man and the woman in a household and exclusively by women in female-headed households?)
- ✓ Can broad targets be set for the supply of measurable material inputs and services to women who are directly or indirectly engaged in the project activities?

**Participation**

- ✓ Were women consulted and did they take part in setting the project objectives?
- ✓ Were women involved in the planning and design of projects?
- ✓ If women are not involved in local decision making, could they be involved through advocacy measures within the project, such as a community development component? Is there scope for NGO involvement if such a component is feasible?
- ✓ Can women's NGOs be contracted to mobilise women to participate in the project?
- ✓ If mobility problems hamper women's participation, could the project be organised to overcome these problems?
- ✓ Does the project require motivational components to encourage women to participate?



**Production**

- ✓ Will the project activities divert women's productive efforts from food production?
- ✓ Will a change in crop varieties affect women's traditional markets?
- ✓ Will new technologies displace women's traditional income-earning labour?
- ✓ Will project activities or outcomes increase women's workload?
- ✓ What compensatory benefits will the project introduce to offset changes affecting women's role and equity in production, such as those referred to above?

**Training**

- ✓ What training could be included in the project to offset changes in production affecting women's role, or to increase women's equity in and benefits from the productive system as well as their productive skills?
- ✓ Is the project likely to precipitate changes in lifestyle in the client population, such as increased incomes following a shift from subsistence to cash production?
- ✓ What training might help women benefit from the changes?
- ✓ Is there potential for supplementary inter sectoral programmes involving health, social development, and education agencies?
- ✓ Should women be trained separately from men to ensure that they receive and benefit from training?
- ✓ Can training be scheduled for times that suit and fit women's other responsibilities?
- ✓ What training can be provided to women to address their strategic gender needs and increase their influence and control over decision making (e.g., training in the maintenance and repair of agriculture equipment)?
- ✓ Would local demonstration farms help women and men understand and obtain access to project?
- ✓ Will the project need a communication strategy and innovative teaching methods for illiterate women and men?
- ✓ Can the project include training in small-business management, accounting and entrepreneurial skills, and marketing, in support of rural women's income-generating activities?

**Information**

- ✓ Will the information and extension services reach women?
- ✓ Is a separate communication strategy needed to ensure that project messages reach women (e.g., a woman-to-woman information service or the use of local women's groups)?
- ✓ Are project messages both culturally appropriate and designed to promote gender equity?

**Institution Building**

Could technical assistance be included in the programme or project to:

- ✓ Provide training in gender awareness or assistance in the development of gender planning and policy formulation, to enable the executing agency to promote women's participation in the project and to monitor the project's benefits to women?
- ✓ Provide a GAD specialist during project implementation to increase the effectiveness of the project?
- ✓ Provide training in participatory modes of development (e.g., ways to ensure community participation in the setting of objectives and activities)?
- ✓ Develop a gender database, if the present database is inadequate for gender planning?

## Selected sub-sectors in the FANR

### Fisheries

#### **Key Issues**

- ✓ What different activities are carried out by girls and women and by men and boys in fish catching and processing, aquaculture, and marketing? Do women catch or buy fish for processing, or process the catch of male household members?
- ✓ What activities are performed jointly by women and men?
- ✓ Are there differences in time spent, or seasonal differences for separate or joint activities?
- ✓ Will the project affect any of these activities and the level of female involvement or women's incomes?
- ✓ Will the project increase the burden on women's time? Will this be to their advantage or disadvantage?
- ✓ Do women work in the fish processing centre as wage labourers or are they self-employed (buy fish to process and market)?
- ✓ Do women regularly go fishing or is this a seasonal activity?
- ✓ Is marketing of fish a regular activity or an extra source of income for the women?
- ✓ Do women depend on middlemen to market their fish or do they market it themselves?
- ✓ Do women fish sellers have a place and license to sell in the market?
- ✓ Do women and men have fishing equipment, such as boats or nets? Do they depend on middle-men or traders for capital and equipment?
- ✓ Do women fish sellers depend on private moneylenders/traders for capital or do they have access to formal sources of credit?
- ✓ Do women and men fisher folk have enough skills in fishing, as required for sustainable fish harvesting/catching?
- ✓ Do women and men fisher folk have rights to common property resources in inland fisheries?
- ✓ Do poor women and men have access to the lease of inland fishery resources such as lakes, rivers, or ponds, or is access limited to men?
- ✓ Are women involved in pond fishery?
- ✓ Will the project activities change the gender division of labour in catching, processing, and marketing fish in marine fisheries and inland fisheries?
- ✓ Will the proposed project affect the location of docks or processing facilities? How will this affect women in the sector?

#### **Key strategies**

- ✓ Devise ways to make the activities of women and men more efficient in terms of time spent and resources invested, without diminishing women's participation and control over the activities.
- ✓ Include remedial measures to alleviate any adverse impact of the project on women's and men's customary activities, on the level of female involvement, or on women's incomes.
- ✓ Consider support for post-harvest activities (often the arena of women) within the project design.
- ✓ Develop components that will support both men's and women's contribution and involvement in the fisheries sector.
- ✓ Ensure that the project reflects and builds on areas of traditional cooperation and reciprocity between men and women.
- ✓ If new technologies (e.g., boats, gear types) or skills training are to be provided by the project, ensure that these will be accessible to women.
- ✓ Where women and men have "separate purses" and separate financial responsibilities, make provisions to safeguard the normal income sources of women and support new income-earning opportunities for them.

- ✓ Provide for the participation of women in cooperatives or other community groups that are formed or supported by the project.
- ✓ Design project activities that will not eliminate the traditional fishing rights of women and men fisher folk in marine or inland fisheries, and their income opportunities from fishing.
- ✓ If the project activities include commercial fishing, ensure that commercial fishing will not diminish women's involvement in fish processing and marketing.
- ✓ Develop project components that will provide women and men fisher folk with equal access to capital (credit), fishing equipment, and market opportunities.
- ✓ Ensure that project activities will not diminish women's access to and control over income from catching, marketing and processing activities.
- ✓ Develop project components that will give women a place in the market, a license to have a permanent place in the market, and a processing facility or dock.
- ✓ Devise activities that will provide equal opportunities for women and men to upgrade traditional fishing skills and to learn new skills.
- ✓ Develop project activities that will create new income opportunities from fisheries activities in aquatic resources.
- ✓ Develop groups/organization of women and men fisher folk to provide them with better negotiating power with traders and middlemen.

## Livestock

### Key issues

- ✓ Are there gendered differences in ownership of livestock?
- ✓ What roles do women and men play in livestock husbandry and care in the project area?
- ✓ For which aspects of animal care are women mainly responsible, e.g., with which of the following activities are women involved daily or regularly:
  - o Collection and fodder preparation, feeding;
  - o Watering;
  - o Cleaning;
  - o Herding;
  - o Milking, sheaving, or other harvesting activities; or
  - o Care of sick animals?
- ✓ How will the project affect the amount of labour men and women spend on livestock care? Will women and men do more work or less?
- ✓ If the project involves new productive tasks, will these be done by women or by men? Will the labour have to be shifted from other activities? How will such changes affect women?
- ✓ Will the project inputs to livestock development change women's roles in the overall farming system? How?
- ✓ If the care of large livestock is thought to be a responsibility of the men, do women actually do some of the work? How much?
- ✓ If commercial livestock production technologies are provided to men, how will women's traditional workload and responsibilities be affected?
- ✓ Will the project create extra work for women? If so, how will they benefit from it?
- ✓ Will new livestock production methods or new forms of livestock affect land use? Will they affect women's access to land?
- ✓ Do women have access to the resources (land, credit, capital) to participate in the project and to benefit from the improved stocks, feeds, or other inputs?

- ✓ Are women included in processing or marketing cooperatives or in communal projects?
- ✓ Do women own the animals they tend, and do they have control over or access to the income derived from the sale of meat, eggs, milk, etc.?

**Key strategies**

- ✓ Include women among the intended recipients of improved animals or other project inputs.
- ✓ Consider a project that supports small livestock production as this is often the responsibility of women.
- ✓ Consider ways in which time and labour can be used more efficiently in livestock care, without diminishing women's participation and control.
- ✓ Where women and men have separate incomes and separate financial responsibilities, safeguard the normal income sources of women and support new income-earning opportunities for them.
- ✓ Provide women with basic veterinary training to protect their livestock.
- ✓ Ensure that any training provided is conducted in the village rather than in towns since women's physical mobility can be an issue.
- ✓ Engage NGOs to mobilize and train women in livestock production and marketing.
- ✓ Ensure that all technical inputs and services are provided to women.

**Irrigation****Key issues**

- ✓ Do men and women differ in their water use and future irrigation needs, such as:
  - o types of crops irrigated (commercial crops, food crops, etc.);
  - o non agricultural water requirements;
  - o preferred sites of water use; or
  - o distance (of home or fields) from water source?
- ✓ Do women with agricultural specialisations need access to irrigation water?
- ✓ How will women be affected by intensified production as a result of the irrigation project? (Consider changes in labour requirements, changes in cash requirements for agricultural investments and concomitant changes in women's labour allocation, etc.)
- ✓ How will changes in cropping pattern (e.g., cash cropping versus subsistence crop production) affect women?
- ✓ How will women be affected by the increased demand for labour and services created in the implementation phase?
- ✓ Are women now involved in water management? Do they have a role in the settlement of water management disputes?
- ✓ Are there water user associations? Can women join them?
- ✓ Are women members of water user associations?
- ✓ Does the implementing agency have the capacity to mainstream GAD concerns?
- ✓ Does the implementing agency have female extension workers?

**Key strategies**

- ✓ Consider the different uses and users of water in the project area. Include measures to avoid potential conflicts among competing users or uses.
- ✓ Design improvements in the water system to overcome the agriculture time-use constraints specific to women and to men.
- ✓ Include cost-effective provisions in the project to meet the requirements of non irrigation water uses/users (e.g., for livestock, fishponds, ablutions, laundry, domestic food gardens, and drinking water).
- ✓ If irrigation is associated with changes in land tenure, assist women in becoming co-owners of land with men.

- ✓ Involve the beneficiaries, female as well as male, in the design of the project and in decisions regarding the location of canals and other infra-structure.
- ✓ Consider building and strengthening the capacity of the implementing agency to develop and implement gender-inclusive projects.
- ✓ Include specific employment benefits for women in the project design.
- ✓ Facilitate women's participation in water user associations.
- ✓ Consider setting targets for the inclusion of women in water user associations.
- ✓ Consider recruiting NGOs to mobilise and train women to participate in water user and water management organisations.
- ✓ If membership in water user associations is based on land ownership, explore opportunities for the joint membership of husbands and wives.

