A GUIDE TO INTEGRATING GENDER INTO SELF HELP AFRICA PROGRAMMING

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Image References

Cover: Ejigayehu Bekele and her husband Mebrat Guilliat, Garmama Village, Kofele district, w/arisi, Oromia region, Ethiopia, 2015.


Page 8: Bernard Kemei with his wife Zedy and children Faith (2), Abagail (6) and Elisha (10), Sonokwek village, Bomet County, Kenya, 2015.


Page 17: Rose Kayange, Lufita Village, GVH Mwenlufta, TA: Mwabulambia, Malawi, 2015.

# Table of Contents

- Acronyms 
- Foreword 
- Background - Self Help Africa (SHA) 
- Introduction to the Guide 
- Definitions of Key Terms 
- Some Key Gender Dimensions in SHA Programme Thematic Areas 
  - A) Key Gender Dimensions in Agriculture 
  - B) Key Gender Dimensions in Natural Resource Management (NRM) 
  - C) Key Gender Dimensions in Nutrition 
  - D) Key Gender Dimensions in Marketing/Value Chain 
  - E) Key Gender Dimensions in Climate Risk Reduction and Disaster Risk Management (DRM) 
  - F) Key Gender Dimensions in Rural Entrepreneurship 
- Essential Cross-cutting Considerations 
- Conclusions 
- References
As the Gender and Inclusion Advisor, I wish to sincerely thank Fasil Kelemework for taking the initiative in developing this Guide as a means to further integrate gender in all aspects of Self Help Africa Ethiopia.

As we are a learning organisation, this kind of leadership is greatly appreciated and valued. In this light, we will share the Guide with all country programmes, partners and stakeholders at large, with a view to promoting and advancing gender equality as a key cross-cutting dimensions in our new strategic plan for 2016-2020.

Going forward, I would like to see all technical training and capacity building initiatives undertaken by SHA integrate a gender component, making full use of this guide and other resources to inform both the design and the delivery of all our programmes.

As mandated by the new Sustainable Development Goals agenda, we are called to “leave no-one behind”. This requires both urgency and responsibility on the part of us all to ensure that women, men, boys and girls enjoy equal opportunities and benefits arising from all our interventions. This is very much part of our vision of change which is based on transformed gender relations and enhanced human dignity.

It has been my great pleasure to work with Fasil on this initiative. I wish to thank Rahel Abebe for her input and suggestions and Isabella Rae for her insightful contributions and support.

Mary Sweeney
Gender and Inclusion Advisor
Background -
Self Help Africa (SHA)

Self Help Africa (SHA) has been working with rural communities to overcome the challenges of hunger and poverty for over three decades. The organisation was established in the immediate aftermath of the Ethiopian famine, to strengthen agricultural food production and alleviate hunger. It later moved on to more integrated rural development programmes with emphasis on areas of food and nutrition security, agriculture and enterprise development – all with a clear focus on smallholder farmers.

As an international development organisation, SHA currently operates in nine countries in Sub-Saharan Africa – including Ethiopia. The organisation works with smallholder farmers, farmer associations, cooperatives and agribusinesses to help farmers grow and sell more food, improve diets, diversify incomes and make their livelihoods more sustainable and resilient to external shocks. SHA also works to raise awareness of smallholder farmers’ issues and represent their interests at policy and institutional level.

SHA’s vision is to have an economically thriving and resilient rural Africa. The main values are equality, innovation, learning and accountability. The strategic objectives of its new strategic plan for 2016-2020 are to:

1. Improve food, nutrition and income security for smallholder farmers
2. Support the establishment and growth of inclusive, profitable and sustainable agri-business
3. Support the improvement of policy environment for smallholder farmers

Introduction to the Guide

In most developing countries, women constitute more than half of the total population and their contribution in ensuring food and nutrition security is enormous. Yet, their role is not adequately recognised, as women often lack access to productive resources, markets and other services and have a weak voice in decision making.

Women carry a disproportionately high burden of poverty. This social inequality (gender gap between women and men) has both economic and social consequences on the development of society as a whole.

Gender equity/fairness is an essential element of sound development practice, as development goals cannot be maximised and sustained without explicit consideration being given to the different needs, capacities and contributions of women and men, girls and boys. Ignoring these differences can have serious implications in the achievement of food and nutrition security and the overall alleviation of poverty. Thus, closing the gender gap in all development interventions needs to be pursued in its own right for a just and equal society, and also as part of a broader development agenda, aimed at the achievement of inclusive growth, poverty reduction and the attainment of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). As women’s status improves, so do the benefits for the entire society.
The Guide is organised into two main sections. The first section covers the key terms/concepts of gender and the rationale for gender mainstreaming in SHA development projects and programmes. The second section covers modalities for integrating gender into the project cycle through the provision of some key gender-related questions to be considered at different stages of the cycle and related to specific thematic areas.

Definitions of Key Terms

Gender is a complex concept with definitions that are often as variable as the diversity of cultures, geographic locations and advancement of society. This section presents a list of definitions of the main terms used in this Guide.

Gender refers to the socially constructed interpretations and values assigned to being a woman, man, boy or girl. Gender is a concept we learn, it changes over time and has wide variations both within and between cultures. Gender determines the roles, power and resources of females and males in any culture. It has nothing to do with capabilities and very little to do with a person’s sex.

There is a clear distinction between sex and gender. Sex refers to the biological traits that societies use to assign people to the category of either male or female. Gender is a social construct referring to the expectations, capabilities and responsibilities of men and women which are not always biologically determined. Gender is not the same as sex.

Difference between gender and sex:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Sex</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Socially constructed</td>
<td>Biological</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learned and changes</td>
<td>Universal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>over time/dynamic</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Multifaceted/differs</td>
<td>Generally permanent</td>
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<tr>
<td>within and between</td>
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<td>cultures</td>
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<td>Influenced by class,</td>
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<tr>
<td>age, caste, ethnicity</td>
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<td>and religion</td>
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• **Gender roles** are based on norms or standards created by society, dictating the types of behaviour generally considered acceptable, appropriate or desirable for people, based on their actual or perceived sex or sexuality, although there are expectations and variations. In other words, gender roles are the behaviour, tasks, responsibilities and activities that a society ascribed to women, men, girls and boys on the basis of perceived differences it considers appropriate for each. In most societies, male roles are usually associated with strength, aggression and dominance, while female roles are associated with passivity, nurturing and subordination. For example, in many cultures boys tend to help their fathers, working outside the home on the land and girls tend to help their mothers, taking care of the housework.

Gender roles, however, can and do change, often faster than the ideas people have about how girls and boys, men and women should or should not behave. For example: in many societies, girls and women are seen as being the weaker sex and they are to be protected from heavy workloads. In reality, however, girls and women from poor population groups are often engaged in heavy work for long hours alongside boys and men. The specifics regarding these gendered expectations may vary substantially among cultures, while other characteristics may be common throughout a range of cultures. Gender roles are described as being ‘socially constructed’, which means that they are shaped by a multiplicity of social, economic, political, cultural and other factors, and will change as a result of modifications in these formative influences. For instance, in most rural areas, cash crop production (preparing the land, irrigating crops, harvesting and transporting produce to market) and large animal rearing are mainly under the ownership of and traded by men. Women are responsible for managing cows and rearing poultry as well as small income-generating home garden vegetable production. However, when the commercial size and value of the home garden vegetable and poultry starts to grow, the responsibilities and control are often taken over by the men.

• **Gender stereotypes** are the ideas that people have as to what boys and men, girls and women are capable of doing. For example, there is the notion that women are better housekeepers and men better leaders, or that boys are better in mathematics than girls. Gender stereotypes are over-generalisations about the characteristics of an entire group based on gender, i.e. attributes or characteristics that are or ought to be possessed by women and men. Simply put, gender stereotypes are generalisations about the roles of each gender. While gender stereotypes have been popularly perceived as having negative connotations, they can
have positive ones as well. Negative stereotypes hinder women’s and men’s ability to fulfil their potential by limiting choices and opportunities. They are at the root of overt and covert, direct, indirect, and recurrent gender discrimination, which adversely affects the *de jure* and *de facto* substantive equality that should be guaranteed to women.

- **Gender discrimination** is any exclusion or restriction made on the basis of a person’s gender roles and relations that prevents that person from enjoying his/her rights, denying access to opportunities and/or resources. In other words, gender discrimination is the unfair or unequal treatment of people based on their gender. For instance, rural women often lack access to productive resources such as credit, extension services, and agricultural inputs.

- **Gender equality** recognises women as having the same rights and opportunities in life as men, including the ability to participate in the public sphere. Promoting gender equality means ensuring that equal opportunities are available to both women and men. However, equality does not mean that women and men are the same but that their enjoyment of rights, opportunities and life chances are not governed or limited by whether they were born female or male. Here, women’s and men’s similarities and differences are recognised and equally valued. A critical aspect of promoting gender equality is the empowerment of women, with a focus on identifying and redressing power imbalances.

Working towards gender equality does not necessarily imply treating women and men in the same way. This is where gender equity comes in. Gender equity means fairness of treatment for women and men, according to their respective needs and capabilities. Gender equity recognises that different measures might be needed for both, including special support measures in situations of extreme vulnerability (affirmative action). Gender equity is the process of being fair to women and men – in terms of, for instance, equitable allocation of resources and opportunities. In order to ensure fairness, measures must be available to compensate for historical and/or social disadvantages that prevent women and men from operating on a level playing field. Gender equity strategies are used to eventually attain gender equality. Equity can be seen as a means and gender equality as a result/an end. In short, equity leads to equality.

- **Gender equality** is regarded as a cross-cutting development issue. Like other cross-cutting issues,
gender equality is an important development objective in itself, but it is also instrumental in the achievement of poverty reduction and any other development goal.

- **Women's empowerment** involves awareness-raising, building of self-confidence, expansion of choices, as well as increased access to, and control over, resources and actions to transform the structures and institutions that reinforce and perpetuate gender discrimination and inequality.

- **A gender transformative approach** refers to programme approaches or activities that seek to build equitable social norms and structures in addition to individual gender-equitable behaviour by addressing both the fundamental causes and sources of gender inequality. This means taking effective action to transform the unequal power relations between men and women, boys and girls, resulting in the improved status of women and in gender equality. Gender integration and gender mainstreaming refer to the process of working towards the achievement of the goal of gender equality.

- **Gender mainstreaming is a strategy used for ensuring that women's and men's concerns and experiences are an integral dimension in the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes in all areas (such as social, economic and political spheres) and at all levels, so that both women and men benefit, and inequality is not perpetuated.** Gender mainstreaming is the process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action in any area and at all levels, and adjusting interventions accordingly. Gender mainstreaming is not a goal in itself but an approach for promoting gender equality.

- **Mainstreaming is not about adding-on a ‘women’s component’, or even a ‘gender equality component’, to an existing activity. It involves more than increasing women’s participation. Gender mainstreaming means:**
  - Identifying potential gender issues and concerns in all the stages of the project cycle.
  - Identifying the consequences of the proposed project on women and men.
  - Addressing gender issues and concerns by formulating the necessary strategies.
  - Putting adequate resources and necessary expertise in place.

- **Holding individuals and institutions accountable for results.**

- **Gender mainstreaming is a critical strategy not only in the pursuit of gender equality- a development goal in its own right- but also of other development goals such as poverty alleviation and inclusive economic growth.**

**Why is Gender Mainstreaming Important?**

- **Women play a significant role in all development activities. But they play this role in the face of enormous social, cultural and economic constraints.**

- **Women face a serious gender gap and they do not have equal access to the resources and services they need in order to be more productive.**

- **A more equal distribution of existing resources between women and men can improve food security. Closing the gender gap in agricultural inputs alone could lift 100–150 million people out of hunger.**

- **Gender equality is no longer viewed as a separate question but becomes an integral concern for all development programmes and policies.**

- **Gender relations are social phenomena since it is impossible to separate women’s economic spheres from their household activities. Preparing food and collecting firewood and water are both time-consuming and binding constraints that must be addressed if women are to be able to spend their time in more rewarding and productive ways. Interventions must consider women within their family and community contexts.**

- **A gender mainstreaming approach does not look at women in isolation, but looks at women and men.**

- **Failure to address gender issues in programme design, implementation, and development interventions can lead not only to inefficient and unsustainable results, but may also exacerbate existing inequities.**

- **The understanding of many gender issues is hindered by the lack of sex-disaggregated data, and an inadequate analysis of existing data.**
Gender analysis is the systematic gathering and examination of information on gender differences and relationships between women and men, girls and boys, in terms of their relative distribution of resources, opportunities, constraints and power in a given context. A gender analysis is the starting point to identify, understand and redress gender inequalities and look at the different impacts of development interventions on women, men, girls and boys.

The following is a guide as to the key questions that can be used in gender analysis:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender Analysis – 10 key questions</th>
<th>These relate to</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Who does what? Why?</td>
<td>Activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How? With what?</td>
<td>Access to resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Who owns what?</td>
<td>Ownership of assets</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Who is responsible for what?</td>
<td>Roles and responsibilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Who is entitled to what?</td>
<td>Rights</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Who controls what?</td>
<td>Income and spending power</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Who decides what?</td>
<td>Power / Control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Who gets what?</td>
<td>Distribution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Who gains? Who loses?</td>
<td>Redistribution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Why? What is the basis for this situation</td>
<td>Rules and laws/norms/customs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(adapted from UNDP checklist, Tearfund and Trocaire)

- **Gender analysis** requires separating data by sex, and understanding how labour is divided and valued. Through gender analysis we can identify the differences between women and men regarding their specific activities, conditions, needs, access to and control over resources, and access to development benefits and decision-making.

- **Gender division** of labour refers to the socially determined ideas and practices that define which roles and activities are deemed appropriate for women and men.

- **Disaggregation by sex** refers to data or statistics that are divided to show the respective results for female and male separately.

- **Gender integration** refers to taking into account both the differences and the inequalities between women and men in development programme/project planning, implementation and evaluation. The roles of women and men and their relative power affect ‘who does what’ in carrying out an activity, and who benefits. Taking into account the inequalities, and designing programmes to reduce them, should contribute not only to more effective development programmes but also to greater social equity/equality.
Some Key Gender Dimensions in SHA Programme Thematic Areas

SHA’s approach to gender is divided into two types of initiatives: gender mainstreaming and gender-specific actions (direct support and women’s empowerment). Gender mainstreaming is about making gender equality programming ‘everyone’s business’ and not just the responsibility of the gender focal person.

The recent development of our Family Life Model (FLM, 2016) assists us in working towards ensuring that women, men, boys and girls have equal voice, can make choices and gain control over resources and income for the overall wellbeing of the family. Used together with the FLM, this Guide will assist the different programme staff in addressing gender issues as an integral part of their operational activities.

Within this approach, specific questions are asked. Here below we provide a checklist to highlight some key considerations to be addressed in relation to selected thematic areas, in particular those of: agriculture, natural resource management (NRM), value chain, nutrition, training and capacity building, and monitoring and evaluation (M&E).

A) Key Gender Dimensions in Agriculture

Women’s role in the economy has often been underestimated, and their work in agriculture has long been invisible. However, women share almost 50% of the agriculture labour force in Sub-Saharan Africa. They make these contributions despite unequal access to land, to inputs such as improved seeds and fertilisers, and to information.

Major opportunities to close this gap arise in the course of SHA’s project activities, such as improving women’s access to productive resources (i.e. appropriate technologies, information and credit), promoting women’s self-confidence, and challenging traditional decision-making power at community and household levels.

A gender-sensitive approach to agricultural projects is required in order to understand the different skill sets, needs, priorities, vulnerabilities, and responsibilities of women and men. These differences are manifested by the different voice, choice and decision-making power at individual, household and community levels.

The following points should be considered in implementing agricultural activities, among others:

- Have the planned agricultural interventions considered women’s and men’s needs separately?
- Does meeting men’s needs compromise women’s needs or vice versa?
- What are the implications of planned agricultural interventions in terms of access to, control over and use of resources for both men and women? Do the agricultural technologies provided through the project benefit both men and women?
- Who uses the technology and who controls its use (men, women, youth)?
- Will the planned agricultural interventions increase the knowledge and skills of both men and women farmers?
- What will be the implication of modifications in household production systems in terms of food security and nutritional status of men and women at household level?
- What are men’s and women’s interest in, and capacity to adopt, the proposed technologies (tools, inputs, storage, improved varieties, labour-saving technologies, etc.)?
- What will be the implications for men and women of incremental labour needs that are generated, directly or indirectly, by the planned interventions?
- Does animal ownership and the use of animal products differ along gender lines?
- Will women’s access and control over certain agricultural commodities be taken over by male family members if they increase in value due to the project interventions?
- How are decisions made regarding the roles in enterprise (men, women, joint decisions)?
- What has been the impact of adopting the new technology on intra-household division of labour?
B) Key Gender Dimensions in Natural Resource Management (NRM)

Improving natural resource management practices and protecting the environment requires reducing poverty and achieving improved livelihoods and food security among rural women and men. Women are active in natural resource management. Women themselves recognise the problems of deforestation, desertification and environmental degradation. They are the first to suffer, as these environmental changes affect their ability to obtain firewood, water and other natural resources for household use and economic activities.

Women are primarily responsible for obtaining firewood to cook the family meals. Forest resources are also used for various other purposes, such as food, animal fodder, traditional medicines, construction materials and resources for handicrafts. Women’s engagement in such activities is very high. If given the chance and opportunity, women, along with their children, could become the best environmental managers. This has been demonstrated in large food-for-work, soil and afforestation schemes carried out in the country with significant participation on the part of women.

In this regard, understanding gender dimensions of natural resource management is vital for protecting the environment, as well as reversing environmental degradation.

The following are some of the key gender issues to be considered in natural resource management interventions:

- What roles, responsibilities, and knowledge do women and men have in managing natural resources?
- Do women participate in most natural resource related decision-making processes?
- Do gender differences exist in rights and access to natural resources, including land, trees, water and animals?
- Does access to new technology, information and training related to natural resource management remain determined by gender? Who is targeted in most of the NRM initiatives?
- Will degradation of the natural resource base result in new forms of cooperation, conflict, or controversy between men and women or different ethnic groups?
- Is there a gender relationship with respect to the production, collection, distribution, purchase and final consumption of fuel wood, woody biomass and tree products, crop residues and animal dung? Who does what?
- Do women spend several hours per day just in collecting fuelwood?
- Is there a difference in the selection of varieties/species of trees used or preferred by each gender group?

C) Key Gender Dimensions in Nutrition

Adequate availability of high quality diverse food at the household level is a necessary component in order to achieve nutrition security, but this alone is not sufficient. Proper handling, utilisation and consumption of the available diverse food, use of safe potable water, hygiene and sanitation, together with good caring practices, especially for young children in the household, are among the determinants of nutrition security. Access to well-run health facilities is essential to ensure people remain healthy and receive medical care as required. Malnutrition impairs both physical and mental growth at individual level, and overall economic growth at national level, since it affects productivity and the ability to become engaged in productive activities. It also increases the risk of disease.
Women, girls, boys and men face different risks with regard to a deterioration in their nutritional status. These different vulnerabilities are related both to their differing nutritional requirements and to socio-cultural factors related to gender. Women, children and adolescents are often those most affected by malnutrition because of their high nutritional requirements, and sometimes an unequal allocation of food within the household - often resulting from cultural practices, heavy workload and responsibility in terms of productive and domestic tasks.

Poor nutrition during pregnancy can have a negative impact on the child in terms of low birth weight, leading to an inter-generational burden of malnutrition (a child born underweight is often unable to ‘catch up’ in terms of growth, with consequences for the next generation as well). Furthermore, adolescent pregnancy can also exacerbate the situation in that it can increase the nutrition requirements for young girls who are not fully developed themselves and yet are expected to be even stronger in the face of a pregnancy. Micro-nutrient deficiencies is another major issue, affecting almost 1/3 of the population worldwide.

According to the World Health Organization (WHO), 40% of women worldwide suffer from iron deficiency. Anemia in pregnancy is a significant health risk to both mother and infant (mortality and morbidity). Iron deficiency anemia is important economically as it can affect an individual’s capacity in terms of both mental and physical activity. Anaemia in children can lead to low performance at school. Yet, women’s nutritional needs are de-prioritised - mainly due to cultural norms, among others. In some contexts, during pregnancy, and possibly lactation, women are not even allowed to eat the more nutritious foods, such as eggs, fish and meat, which further exacerbates malnutrition.

Other key contributors to good nutrition are adequate health and child care, and access to clean water and good sanitation. Ensuring the nutrition security of the household, through the combination of both food and other resources, is almost the exclusive domain of women. Women’s ability to manage these resources is especially important for the more vulnerable members of the household, such as children. Good nutrition programming must take due account of gender issues at all stages of the project cycle.

Women are central to the life of the household. They are food producers, income earners and family caregivers. They are involved in hard labour, typically working for over 16 hours per day. The overstretching of women’s workload affects their health and subsequently reduces their ability to tend to children, elders and household nutrition. Due to their core responsibility in ensuring good nutritional status in the family and the community in general, women’s empowerment in higher gender inequality situations is necessary.

The following are some of the key gender issues to consider in nutrition interventions:

- What are the roles and responsibilities of different household members? Who has control over the management of food within the household (what is kept, what is sold etc.)?
- How is food distributed within the home between women, girls, boys and men?
- Who within the household has control over resources? Does this impact on access to food and feeding habits?
- What decisions do women, girls, boys and men make that affect family nutrition (e.g. food choices; decisions related to vaccination/vitamin A/micro-nutrients; food handling, preparation, storage; food sharing –who eats first and most)?
- Are there gender-based constraints to achieving nutrition security?
- Are there any socio-cultural practices, taboos, cultural beliefs or caring practices that may affect women’s, girls’, boys’ and men’s nutrition status differently?
- Are there any differences in breastfeeding practices for female or male babies?
- How will the project contribute to increasing food availability and enhancing the nutritional status, especially micronutrient status, of women and girls?
- Have the interventions given consideration to the need to balance women’s farm workload with their caring practices?
D) Key Gender Dimensions in Marketing/Value Chain

The value chain refers to all the activities and services that bring a product (or a service) from its conception to its end use in a particular industry. A whole value chain approach is expected to address constraints and opportunities at multiple levels.

A value chain approach strengthens business linkages between producer groups, service providers and other actors, such as processors and importers, rather than focusing exclusively on farm interventions. Value chains vary in complexity and in the range of participants they draw in. Export value chains tend to be more complex than local chains in terms of the knowledge and technical facilities required, often necessitating particular processing and packaging. Frequently the knowledge and information embodied in the different functions of a value chain are gender specific. In some cases, women or men are entirely responsible for a whole value chain or significant aspects of it. For example, in traditional beekeeping activities, it is mainly the men who engage in honey production as the hives are located high up in trees and harvested by night (climbing at night is not considered a suitable activity for women).

Moreover, a value chain involves multiple actors and women require special attention in order to enhance their role in the process.

Lack of mobility, lack of access to assets and markets, and lack of linkages to other value chain actors, are among the key constraints that can be addressed by women-centred interventions. Lack of mobility and lack of access to markets can be solved by ‘bringing the value chain to the village’, for example by developing a network of women linking village producers to a district centre that supplies inputs and market opportunities.

The following are some key gender dimensions to be considered in value chain and marketing interventions:

- Do women face more constraints in accessing markets, veterinary services, information, technologies and credit vis-à-vis men?
- Is it easy to move women from subsistence agriculture to higher value chains?
- Are there socio-cultural norms and responsibilities that restrict women’s participation in value chains?
- What barriers, if any, prevent certain household types from growing market-oriented crops or livestock?
- To which groups and organisations do women and men belong?
- What other livelihood activities do women and men undertake?
- Who controls the income gained from marketing?
- How can women be economically empowered through value chains?
- How does women’s empowerment work out for different value chains?
- What are important ‘windows of opportunity’ with regard to including a gender perspective in specific value chains?
• What alternative and effective interventions exist with regard to empowering women within the context of value chains (best and worst practices)?

• Who does what work and how labour intensive is that work? What does the newly created task imply for other work, productive or reproductive, that women and/or men take on within the household or the community?

• How does the work performed within the value chain add to women’s work burden?

• Are both women and men involved in the ‘value adding’ and ‘income earning’ stages of the value chain?

• Who takes decisions at different levels, and who takes up leadership positions?

• Who signs the contracts for the sale of the products? Who receives the income from the sale?

• Is the value chain gender-sensitive? Are gender issues considered as an add-on or an integral component of the value chain development intervention?

• Will the role of different crops and livestock be changed in the household economy due to the promotion of value chain development for those specific commodities?

• Are there ‘women-centered’ value chains?

• Are women and men differently located in the value chain and what roles do they play?

• Which of the constraints identified in the market mapping relate to power relations within the household?
E) Key Gender Dimensions in Climate Risk Reduction and Disaster Risk Management (DRM)

Climate change is one of the most daunting global challenges of our time. It is already having an impact on agriculture and food security as a result of increased prevalence of extreme events and increased unpredictability of weather patterns. This can lead to reductions in production and lower incomes in vulnerable areas.

Vulnerability is key to understanding the gender differential in climate change. Vulnerability to climate change is a function of the exposure to climate/weather impacts, sensitivity to those impacts, and adaptive capacity of the economy. The impacts of climate change are likely to include: loss of lives, increased food insecurity, decreased ability to earn income and grow food, less arable land available, less access to clean water, and more disease and health problems, with overall negative impacts on economic and social development.

Climate change is also a social issue. Poverty and climate change are closely related. The poorest and most disadvantaged groups tend to depend on climate-sensitive livelihoods (e.g. agriculture), which makes them disproportionately vulnerable to climate change.

There are strong links between gender equality, women’s empowerment and climate change. Climate change is not gender-neutral – it affects women and men differently. Poor women are, in a sense, doubly affected because climate change affects the poor more than other groups and women constitute the majority of the poor; moreover, climate change also worsens existing gender inequalities. Hence, women are more vulnerable to the effects of climate change than men, partly due to their limited access to knowledge and information, to technology and financial resources, as well as their increased dependence on natural resources that are threatened by climate change, and their exclusion from decision making.

Women and children constitute the vast majority of people displaced by conflict or other natural and man-made disasters. Traditional practices such as abduction, rape, and female genital mutilation, among others, fuel the epidemic and increase women’s vulnerability. The gender dimension of climate change and disaster risks implies that, in order to be effective, climate smart and disaster risk reduction strategies/interventions need to take into account the added vulnerability of women and girls at all stages - prevention, mitigation, preparedness and response - and to provide for their participation at all levels.

The following are some of the key gender issues in climate change and DRM:

- Is climate information available and easily accessible to both women and men?
- What are men’s and women’s resources for coping with climate change?
- Do women farmers have the ability to anticipate and/or respond to climatic change?
- Does climate variability have any influence on women’s economic activity?
- How does gender influence vulnerability to climate change?
- How do climate change and disasters increase women’s burden in the project areas?
- Are women trained and do they participate in community-based early warning systems, and other activities geared to prevent disasters?
- What factors make women and girls more vulnerable to disasters and climate change impacts?
- What are the implications of traditional disaster coping strategies (for both men and women)?
- Are gender issues adequately linked with climate change and DRM activities?
- Do both men and women have equal access to early warning information systems?
- Is there an activity that helps women build resilience against climate change? Do mitigation and adaptation efforts address sources of gender-based vulnerability, gender inequality and poverty?
- Is gender equality given due consideration when taking action on climate change?
Entrepreneurship is the process of developing and running a business enterprise, along with any of its risks, in order to make a profit. An entrepreneur is a person who organises and manages an enterprise, especially a business, usually with considerable initiative and risk. Entrepreneurship is an important part of the national economy in that it contributes to generating employment opportunities and fuelling economic growth. Rural enterprises are being increasingly viewed as a path to improving both livelihoods and food security. Small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) constitute the majority of Sub Saharan Africa’s private enterprises. SMEs are responsible for the creation of more than half of total employment opportunities. Nevertheless, women’s participation in entrepreneurial ventures is much lower than that of men, therefore efforts must be made to fully understand and address the barriers that lead to this gender gap.

The following are some of the key gender issues in entrepreneurship.

- Are there any difficulties in accessing finance in rural areas?
- Do women have equal access to financial sources and premises for starting up/expanding a business?
- Do both women and men have equal opportunities to participate in training, capacity building activities and decision making regarding leadership roles in agri-enterprise development?
- Are there any financial programmes that specifically target women entrepreneurs?
- Do both women and men have equal access to productive capital?
- Is information easily available for women to access?
- Are there role models of women entrepreneurs?
- Are there any women’s business associations in rural areas?
- Are there entry barriers for women to join business organisations?
- Do women have equal access to domestic and international markets?
- Is there a support mechanism for enhancing women’s ability to participate in enterprise development (small and medium size enterprises)?
- Are project and programme interventions focused on increasing women’s ability to enter markets and negotiate with buyers and sellers?
- Is there a possibility that the project could adversely affect the situation of women (e.g. potential increased burden on women)?
- Do women have adequate access to formal credit?
- What sort of specific support is needed to help women become entrepreneurs? To what extent should a project take into account the need for childcare, for example?
- Are there linkages between big agricultural enterprises and small-scale producers, especially women?
Essential Cross-cutting Considerations

The following sections refer to cross-cutting considerations applicable to most interventions.

Planning, Implementation, Monitoring & Evaluation

Project identification & preparation

- Conduct a gender-sensitive social assessment to broadly cover social, cultural and economic aspects
- Undertake an initial gender study/analysis to identify the different roles, responsibilities, needs, challenges and opportunities of women and men
- Identify gender-related goals and priorities, based on available information and in consultation with stakeholders
- Assess the institutional capacity for integrating gender into development activities

In particular, some key questions should be addressed:
- Have targeted women and men been consulted and have their views and voices been heard?
- Have strategies been envisaged to promote equal opportunities and benefits for men and women in the project design?
- What activities and services will the programme need to implement so as to ensure that gender specific needs and concerns are addressed?
- Are both men and women involved in the project activities: how and in what capacity?
- Is the counterpart agency meeting its commitments to incorporate a gender-based approach into the project?

Design

- Ensure that gender is integrated into goals and objectives, and set clear targets
- Develop project activities that respond to the needs of men, women, boys and girls
- Plan for developing the capacity to address gender issues and to monitor and evaluate progress
- Set up a monitoring and evaluation system that is inclusive of gender indicators
- Adopt an ‘engendered’ logical framework
- Develop gender-sensitive indicators at input, output, outcome and impact levels
- Select or develop the best data collection methods and decide on timing
- Organise reporting and feedback processes, clearly identifying who will collect and analyse information and when, and who will receive it

Implementation

- Carry out capacity development exercises for integrating, and for monitoring and evaluating, gender-related issues
- Collect gender-sensitive data based on the selected indicators
- Monitor progress against the targets set for the period under evaluation, and feed results back into the system, to allow for mid-term corrections
- Address any restriction arisen during project implementation that has hindered the equal participation of men and women in the distribution of resources and benefits
- Adjust the project activities if necessary, to ensure that the intended beneficiaries are reached and to avoid unwanted effects on particular groups
- Assess the extent to which the participation of women has affected the relationships and roles of men and women. It would be important to conduct a gender analysis regularly and compare the changes with the baseline
Evaluation

- Assess the extent of gender integration in the overall project context
- Assess the outcomes and impact of project interventions on men and women
- Extract and share lessons that can feed into the overall development goals and objectives

In particular, the following questions should be addressed:

- Has the project led to more equal opportunities for men and women?
- Did women suffer any detriment as a result of the project (division of labour, access and control of resources)?
- Has the position of women improved as a result of the project? Were practical or strategic needs addressed to enable women to make more decisions?
- Are men accepting the change in roles? Will the changes be sustainable?

Participation

- Have women and men been equally consulted in assessing their livelihood needs and concerns? (bear in mind literacy levels, the need for child care during meetings, time and place of meetings, safety and mobility constraints etc.)
- What is the male/female ratio of participation in any development intervention?
- Are women involved in decision making (i.e. planning committees at village level) when decisions are being taken in relation to livelihood projects?
- Would the availability of child care facilities encourage women’s participation?
- Is it necessary for women to be addressed through their husbands, fathers or other male contact?
- Would female facilitators encourage the participation of women in group discussions?
- Are there situations where women participate but not in an equal manner?
- Were women involved in the planning and design of projects?
- Were women consulted and did they take part in setting the project objectives?

Suggested Strategies

- Adjust time, place, content and training methods in order to address possible barriers to women’s participation
- Make sure that women in the community are aware of, and are provided with, full information about the project opportunities
- Ensure the meaningful participation of women by creating women’s self-help groups
- Monitor livelihood projects for improvement in self reliance as well as beneficiary satisfaction for both women and men
- Display pictures, diagrams, or illustrations that show both women and men as key players in the sector
- Select some topics in which women have more experience or knowledge
- Small male of female homogeneous groups are ideal for practicing and trying out unaccustomed roles
- In mixed-sex units, common interests and differences can be discussed (ensure each sex has a minimum representation of 30% in these groups)
- While the groups are discussing, move between them and ensure that no single person is dominating the discussion; encourage equal participation
- When asking participants for their opinions or experiences, alternate between men and women for the answers rather than using the ‘pop corn approach’ (where the trainer asks questions and takes the answer from whoever reacts first)
- It is important to notice that participation in itself does not imply equality between men and women. For example, the fact that women participate in cash work does not imply that they receive or control the income which they generate. Women’s participation refers to women’s share and role in the various society activities
- Make sure that strategies have no potential to exclude stakeholders on the basis of gender
Training and Capacity Building

Capacity building should always be gender sensitive. Failure to take into consideration gender relationships leads to unsuccessful project activities, as well as the marginalisation of the disadvantaged sector of society and a large part of the community workforce. Looking at the status quo, women are less literate, have low access to technology and information, as well as less time, opportunity and favorable conditions to participate in capacity building events and training. Thus, a gender-sensitive approach to capacity building and training is required in order to understand and adequately address existing gender relations and the obstacles to women’s active participation in the capacity development process. Failing to do so will exacerbate the gender gap in the community and limit women’s capacity to make wise suggestions and decisions at different levels.

Capacity building in gender is an iterative process that goes beyond one-off training workshops, although these are important vehicles to develop, strengthen and renew the skills of participants.

Some key questions to address are:

- Do women’s voices, decision-making experience and confidence to express their views in the public sphere tend to be weaker than men’s, due to cultural norms and women’s lack of skills?
- Do logistical factors, including timing and location of training, encourage or considerably limit the participation of women in training?
- Do training methods take into consideration the cultural/social context in terms of gender-specific norms and practices (i.e. women lack the experience and status to express themselves in large group discussions)?
- 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?
- Are gender issues considered in every training event and within training material?
- Have women been consulted about their training needs and interests?
- Do training objectives refer explicitly to both women and men?
- Is extra capacity building and training needed for women?
- What is the participant’s level of prior experience and education? What kind of differences exist between women and men (opportunities, access to training and resources etc.)?
- Do training activities suit the contexts and needs of the different target groups?
- Are skills gaps identified and addressed so as to ensure that women and men are able to participate equally?
- Is gender training provided for both women and men in the institutions, at all levels?
- Is the location of the training arranged in such a way that women and men are able to attend safely (public transport, organised transport)?
- Do women have access to communication networks so that they can be informed about training opportunities?
- Are the facilities culturally appropriate (e.g., separate toilet facilities for women and men)?
- Would female trainers/translators encourage the participation of women?
- Is the language used verbally and in training materials adapted to the participants’ level of literacy? Are there differences between women’s and men’s requirements?
- Does the facilitator establish means of communication - for intervention, interruption etc. - that discriminate against women or men?

Suggested Strategies

- Provide technical back-up and training on concepts, relevance and analysis related to gender issues
- Organise different learning and networking forms for sharing information
- Enhance the implementing staff’s technical capacity to integrate gender aspects in all project activities through the development of a user guide and the facilitation of exchanged visits
- Create awareness of gender perspectives among project implementing and management staff, and the community at large, through training workshops, panel discussions, community conversations and experience sharing
- Increase the number of women staff
- Ensure that there is a sufficient number of women among the participants. If necessary, set quotas
- Make training schedules and arrangements flexible enough to suit participants, especially women
• Communicate training sessions in such a way that women’s attention can be drawn to them (formal and informal channels; in writing, verbally, on radio, through women’s organisations, churches etc.)

• Mobilise men to advocate for women’s participation in the training

• Pay attention to factors that encourage or inhibit people’s participation, such as language, experience related to the topic, experience on speaking in public, decision making and power relations

• Consider the daily calendar of prospective participants to identify the most convenient time and place, when organising the training. Deliver the training in a place close to their village

• Recognise women’s achievements through various events in order to change people’s mind set on HTPs

• Make training and skills development available to a balanced number of women, men and adolescent girls and boys, based on a needs assessment

• Develop training and information materials based on the education level and knowledge of the different socio-economic groups

On language and communication:

• When the trainer is giving examples it is important not to confine women’s and men’s roles to negative traditional stereotypes; instead, use positive traditional examples or new ideas

• Try to use clear, simple language to ensure that all participants understand the messages, regardless of their educational backgrounds

• Hire a female translator/facilitator to help women understand the tasks, speak up and be understood

• Establish ground rules at the beginning of the training

• Restrict the length of speeches

• Allow people to finish speaking

• Allow time for feedback/criticism

• Do not generalise gender-related attributions

• Overcome bias and de-escalate sensitivities by noticing and addressing confusion between facts and views

• Create an atmosphere in which women and men feel respected, safe, and encouraged to share their views and interact with others holding diverging views

• Use gender-neutral language

Division of Labour

Most research studies indicate that women carry disproportionate workloads, compared to men, and are underrepresented in all formal and informal employment sectors.

Some key questions to adress are:

• What are the roles played by women, girls, boys and men in farming and other productive activities? (Who is responsible for farming, gathering, selling at the market, keeping stocks)?

• How much time do women, girls, boys and men devote to unpaid work (fetching water, cooking, cleaning, collecting firewood, child care, and washing clothes)?

• Has the project focused on how to address the heavy workload of women?

• What types of skills exist among women? Among men?

• What are women’s and men’s respective skills-training needs?

• Do income generation projects also build non-traditional skills for men and women?

• Do the project activities recognise the fact that rural women have longer working days than men because of their multiple roles?

• Do the multiple roles of women become an obstacle to development interventions?

Suggested Strategies

• Consider practical training projects which target the specific needs of both men and women

• Mobilise the community to challenge traditional gender inequality in gaining access to project initiatives, while maintaining cultural sensitivity towards traditional norms and beliefs

• Consider the introduction of labour- and energy-saving technology particularly targeting women

• Provide basic services (such as water supply) to reduce the amount of time needed for tasks such as fetching water

• Facilitate discussions/negotiations to ensure a better distribution of work among family members (such as persuading men to take on some of the workload normally undertaken by women)
Access to and Control over Resources

- Do women and men have equal access to resources (land, seed, livestock, equipment, markets, income)?
- What are the specific barriers preventing women and girls from enjoying equal access to resources?
- Who has the most decision-making power with regard to productive assets and household expenditures?
- What are the practices regarding agricultural land ownership and distribution? In particular, what are the practices regarding women’s property and inheritance rights?
- How do security concerns hinder the abilities of women, girls, boys and men to access productive resources?

Suggested Strategies

- Promote projects that enhance women’s self-sufficiency and improve their control over resources
- Make sure economic resources (income, seeds, tools, relief commodities, etc.) reach women as well as men
- Avoid the promotion of livelihood activities that expose women to risks (for example fetching firewood unaccompanied) or social discredit
- Routinely monitor women’s, girls’, boys’ and men’s access to services, as well as control over productive resources, through spot checks, community discussions, etc.

Harmful Traditional Practices (HTP)

Harmful traditional practices (HTP) practices that affect the health, and physical and mental status of women. Examples include: not allowing women to eat certain nutritious foods, not allowing women to give birth at home, forced isolation during menstruation, and exposing girls for early and exchange marriage.

Suggested Strategies

- Address HTP through awareness creation, sensitisation, community mobilisation and community conversation/dialogue.

Selection of Technology Interventions

- Are both women and men able to benefit from the specific technologies recommended by the project?
- Who benefits from the new technology or practice?

Suggested Strategies

- Ensure that the technical package and delivery systems do not marginalise on the basis of gender
- Promote the identification and adoption of appropriate technologies for women
- Address the different effects technology can have on the potential, productivity and capacities of both women and men.

Increase women’s access to and control over assets - inputs, credit, technologies
- Increase women’s access to skills and knowledge
- Improve women’s access to and control over assets - inputs, credit, technologies
- Improve women’s access to skills and knowledge
- Facilitate access to labour-saving technologies

Conclusions

Women play a crucial role in meeting the food and nutrition needs of their families through all four pillars of food security: food availability, access, stability and utilisation. However, they do so with inadequate resources. If the constraints confronting women farmers were removed and women were granted access to the resources that are available to male farmers, they could make significant contributions to eradicating the food insecurity faced by millions of people.

This Guide addresses key food security and gender concerns that are generally relevant in most project contexts, although the examples provided may not be applicable in all societies. SHA project staff and partners will need to adjust the issues, questions and risks to be dealt with, according to their local context.

Finally, be aware that there is no ‘magic bullet’ to achieve gender equality. It requires simultaneous interventions in different domains, at different levels and over a long period of time. This Guide is a starting point and a living document. It is intended to promote engagement and sensitisation with a view to strengthening gender equality as a fundamental component of all our programmes.
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Some Useful Resources, Tools and Guides


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