

Macro Level Handbook

handbook

SEAGA

Socio-Economic and Gender Analysis Programme



Food and Agriculture Organization
of the United Nations

SEAGA

Macro Level Handbook

Gender analysis in macroeconomic and agricultural sector policies and programmes

Gender and Population Division
and
Policy Assistance Division

FOOD AND AGRICULTURE ORGANIZATION OF THE UNITED NATIONS
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FOREWORD

This Handbook is part of FAO's renewed emphasis on policy assistance and on building a policy capacity in developing countries towards the ultimate aim of contributing to greater food security and to poverty reduction. It is also part of the Organization's work of mainstreaming gender in all aspects of policy-making, including economic policies.

While it is acknowledged that food security and poverty are to be addressed from a multisectoral perspective, it is also widely recognised that it is the growth of the agriculture and rural sector that has the most linkages with the growth of the rural economy as a whole. The role of women in agriculture is well known and documented by now as well as their pivotal role in ensuring food security, both through production and through other rural activities enabling access to food.

The purpose of this Handbook is to show that both men's and women's productive capacity and their capacity to participate in the economy is shaped by their gender roles and that, therefore, gender relations impact agricultural outcomes and affect economic efficiency. There is evidence that gender equity is shown to be linked to increased efficiency and increased prospects for rural growth and the development of the rural economy. It follows that gender ought not to be considered as a purely social issue or an add-on category to decision-making but rather, as an integral part of policy-making and implementation, thus deserving explicit analytical attention.

The Handbook illustrates, through the use of a macro-meso-micro framework, the relevance of gender in policy from both an efficiency and equity point of view. The macro-meso-micro framework underlies an important assumption for all development practitioners: notwithstanding the smallness or the locally circumscribed dimension of development activities, the policy dimension is not to be taken as a given but rather is to be analysed, understood and acted upon at various levels.

The Handbook shows, through examples, how to mainstream gender analysis in agricultural sector policies and programmes through institutional analysis, baseline gender analysis of the sector, budgeting, monitoring and evaluation. It provides references and information on additional resources to support further work and more in-depth treatment of the policy issues, when conducting policy and capacity building work at the country level.

The Handbook is addressed to officials, trainers and development agents involved in agricultural policy-making, agricultural planning and programmes. We hope that it will be part of the useful armoury of knowledge and tools to help in the fight against hunger and poverty.

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ACRONYMS	
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GAD	Gender and Development Approach
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
ILO	International Labour Organization
M&E	Monitoring and Evaluation
NGO	Non-governmental Organization
NTAE	Non-traditional agricultural exports
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PER	Public Expenditure Review
SEAGA	Socioeconomic and Gender Analysis Programme
SNA	System of National Accounts
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNIFEM	United Nations Development Fund for Women
WID	Women in development

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I. Introduction

Module 1
How to Use
The Macro Handbook

MODULE 1

HOW TO USE THE MACRO HANDBOOK

PURPOSE

This module will:

- Specify the purpose of this Macro Level Handbook and its target audience.
- Introduce FAO's Socio-Economic and Gender Analysis (SEAGA) approach.
- Introduce other resources that can be used in conjunction with the Handbook.

CONTENTS

- 1.1 Introductory comments on the Macro Handbook
- 1.2 The SEAGA approach
- 1.3 The purpose of the Macro Handbook
- 1.4 How to use this Handbook and other FAO resources
- 1.5 Objectives of the Handbook

1.1 INTRODUCTORY COMMENTS ON THE MACRO HANDBOOK

Technical experts working in the field have documented the important contribution of rural women towards development, a contribution which remains largely invisible in the eyes of policy makers. Efforts have been made to **raise the profile of rural women and to incorporate gender analysis into the project cycle**, focusing largely on micro-level interventions to support rural women. As a consequence there are many examples of micro and community level interventions which aim to reduce gender inequalities and promote rural poverty reduction and food security.

Gender analysis at the policy level

Gender analysis has something to offer at the policy level. There is growing empirical evidence linking gender inequalities in resource control and lost productivity and income in agriculture. There are also well known linkages between gender and sustainability of development, e.g. between female education, reduced fertility and mortality, better educated and fed children, and higher future productivity. Yet, to date gender analysis has not been incorporated into the mainstream of agricultural policies and programming.

After introducing the SEAGA approach and the purpose of this Handbook in Part One, Part Two of this Handbook is designed to assist policy makers understand *why* it is important to integrate gender analysis at macro and sectoral policy levels. Understanding why can provide users with the means to develop their own

approaches to integrating gender into the mainstream of agricultural policy, taking a country or region's particular circumstances into account.

Part Three of the Handbook provides specific examples and practical guidance on *how* to integrate a gender perspective into the policy process. Further work is in process on incorporation of gender analysis in sub-sectoral policies. The Macro Handbook is part of FAO's policy work, supported by the SEAGA Programme¹ which contributes to the overall objective of integrating gender concerns into the mainstream of agricultural policy and operations in ways which can improve the equity, efficiency and sustainability of agricultural policies.

1.2 THE SEAGA APPROACH

The Socio-Economic and Gender Analysis (SEAGA) approach is a people-centred programme that emphasises the need to understand how development policies and programmes are likely to affect the economic activities and social relationships among different groups of people in local communities. The focus is on the need to identify women's and men's needs and priorities in a participatory manner in order to promote more equitable, efficient and sustainable development. SEAGA aims to increase awareness of and sensitivity towards gender issues, as well as to strengthen the capacity of development specialists to incorporate socio-economic and gender analysis considerations into development planning.

SEAGA's approach is founded on **three guiding principles**:

- gender roles and relations are of key importance;
- disadvantaged people are a priority in development initiatives;
- participation of local people is essential for sustainable development.

Box 1: Gender roles

Gender roles are:

- Socially constructed
- Learned
- Dynamic - they change over time
- Multi-faceted - they differ within and between cultures
- Influenced - by class, age, caste, ethnicity and religion

¹ **The Socio-Economic and Gender Analysis (SEAGA) Programme** was established in 1993 to promote gender awareness when meeting development challenges. The SEAGA package was initially developed by the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), the International Labour Organization (ILO), the World Bank and the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP).

Gender shapes men's and women's opportunities in securing their livelihoods

Gender roles are of key importance because gender shapes the opportunities and constraints that women and men face in securing their livelihoods across all cultural, political, economic and environmental settings. Gender influences the roles and relationships of people throughout all their activities, including their labour and decision-making roles. It is also important for understanding the position of both women and men vis-à-vis the institutions that determine access to productive resources such as land, and to the wider economy.

Development must address the needs and priorities of both women and men in order to be successful. It is recognised that across all socio-economic groups, women are generally disadvantaged vis-à-vis men. This must be taken into consideration because development efforts in which women are marginalised are destined to fail.

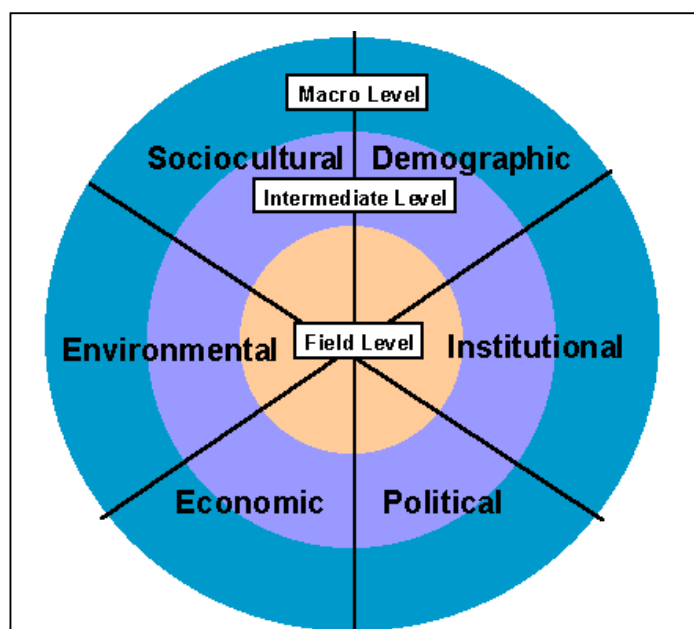
SEAGA helps to take a realistic look at the development challenge – looking at socio-economic patterns at different levels and for different people.

Box 2: Key questions

“It is imperative to ask, Development for whom? With input from whom? Failing to ask these questions is a failure in the fundamental purpose of development itself. If women in subsistence economies are the major suppliers of food, fuel and water for their families and yet their access to productive resources is declining, then more people will suffer from hunger, malnutrition, illness, and loss of productivity”

Source: Jacobson, 1993.

Figure 1: Factors influencing socio-economic patterns at macro, intermediate and field level



For any one-development problem, a number of different socio-economic patterns play a role. For example, the lack of food security in a village may stem from environmental problems such as drought, as well as economic problems such as the lack of wage labour opportunities, or institutional problems such as inadequate extension training on food conservation methods and social problems such as discrimination against women. There are important linkages between these patterns too.

**Gender
biases
hamper
economic
efficiency
and food
security**

Discrimination against women, for example, can result in women's lack of access to credit, in turn limiting women's ability to purchase inputs. The end result is that overall crop productivity is lower than it could be. In areas where women have a major responsibility to produce food crops, these linkages are an important part of the food security equation. In other words, underutilized resources stemming from gender biases will lead to economic inefficiency, and may damage the achievement of food security, rural poverty alleviation and agricultural growth. While there may be some trade-offs (such as social disruption) associated with increasing the recognition of women, the costs of maintaining gender biases must be acknowledged.

Development problems also stem from different levels. The lack of food security in a village, for example, may result not only from crop and animal production problems at the household or community level, but also from barriers to district-level markets, as well as national pricing policies and international terms of trade. In other words, there are important linkages between field-level problems and intermediate- and macro-level institutions, programmes and policies.

Using gender analysis helps us to understand the needs and priorities of different people, clarifying the relevance of gender in conjunction with age, wealth, caste, race, ethnicity, religion, and so on. In gender analysis the focus is on both women and men.

1.3 THE PURPOSE OF THE MACRO HANDBOOK

**To show the
relevance of
gender in
policy and
sector work**

The aim of the Macro Handbook is to help agricultural policy makers and planners in developing countries and FAO staff to understand *why* and *how* gender considerations should be incorporated into their work. It will update them on theoretical developments as well as give practical guidance on how to integrate gender into policy and sector work.

The Handbook can also be used by trainers dealing with agricultural policy and planning topics.

Although many users of the Handbook will be economists, not all readers are expected to be conversant with economics. To assist those readers is included a glossary of economic and other less familiar terms used in the Handbook. This can be found at the end of the Handbook and terms covered in the glossary are indicated by bold type and an asterisk (*) when they first appear.

The Handbook will support two types of work; agricultural policy-making and agricultural planning and programme work.

Agricultural policy-makers are elected or appointed officials, high level civil servants, and in some cases aid donors, who wield the political and financial power to:

Agricultural policy-making

- set goals for the agricultural sector (such as growth, food security, poverty alleviation, regional equity);
- develop **strategies*** to pursue these goals (such as giving priority to export crops, commercial farming or smallholders);
- adjust **policy*** instruments to achieve the goals (such as output and input prices, credit and land policies, market liberalisation policies).

Agricultural plans, programmes and projects

Planners develop national, regional and district level investment plans or **programmes***. These consist of directly managed activities involving interaction with farmers, financial institutions, and other private economic agents. **Projects***, like programmes, are limited in time and are staff-intensive. They usually involve a significant investment component. Projects utilise the government's capital budget, whereas programmes utilise the current account budget. Both programmes and projects are usually required to implement policies. Planners may be economists, social scientists or technical specialists in planning units of the Ministry of Agriculture or its various line agencies such as extension or credit services. With the trend towards decentralisation, planners are also increasingly located at regional or district level. Managers may also be involved in planning, especially in programme planning for line agencies.

The Macro Level Handbook is not designed to give detailed help to those involved in the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of specific agricultural projects such as an irrigation or credit project. This type of work is supported by the SEAGA Field and Intermediate Level Handbooks (FAO, 2001) and other FAO technical guides (FAO, 1997 and 2002). However, project workers may find this Handbook provides useful background material to help understand the wider context in which they work.

Methods

The methods proposed in this Handbook have been tested in a number of countries and have been selected because of:

- proven positive experience;
- applicability in the short time which is usually available to policy analysts;
- their reliance on existing data and information rather than on primary data collection.

The Handbook is divided into three parts and nine modules. In addition to this introductory part:

Structure and content of the Handbook

Part Two focuses on **WHY** gender considerations are important. The purpose is to help users of the Handbook understand why gender is important from both an **efficiency*** and an **equity*** point of view. This part uses theoretical developments, particularly the **macro-meso-micro*** framework, to illustrate this point. It also uses boxed examples from the field to show what can happen when

macroeconomic and sector policy is “gender-blind”. This part of the Handbook will be particularly useful to those who have never thought about macroeconomic and agricultural sector work from a gender perspective or who remain unconvinced of the need to incorporate a gender approach into their work.

Part Three focuses on **HOW** to integrate gender into agricultural sector work. It illustrates, both conceptually and with practical examples from the field, ways in which gender can be mainstreamed into agriculture sector policy work.

The Modules on mainstreaming in **Part Three** show policy-makers how to:

- develop the institutional capacity to incorporate gender into policy and programme work;
- conduct a baseline gender analysis of the agricultural sector;
- develop gender-sensitive sector policies;
- improve budgeting to incorporate gender concerns;
- improve the monitoring and evaluation of policy in terms of its gender dimensions.

The boxes in Modules Three and Four illustrate, with examples from the field, how appropriate interventions at the sub-sectoral level, which take into consideration the (gender influenced) nature of responsibilities, needs and constraints, can help achieve agricultural sector goals such as sustainable improvements in productivity, food security, and poverty alleviation.

1.4 HOW TO USE THIS HANDBOOK AND OTHER FAO RESOURCES

This Handbook is divided into distinct Modules which form a coherent whole but which can also be used as free standing modules. Each Module introduces key concepts and ideas and shows how to implement them. When used as part of training courses and workshops the boxed examples in the Handbook could be substituted with examples from the country/region in which the training activity is taking place.

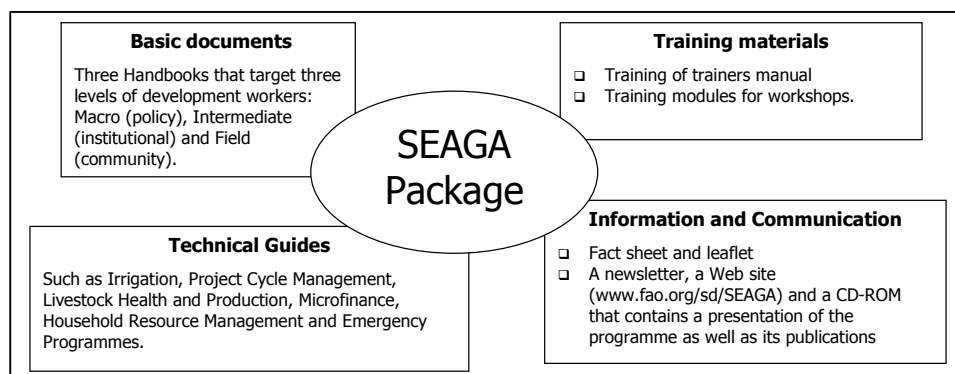
Where appropriate, Modules include exercises and tools, many of which are taken from the SEAGA package. These provide material for participatory group work which can form an important part of workshops and training exercises.

Each Module concludes with a set of references which offer further supporting material. Web sites are also provided. Given the possible changes in the Web site addresses (URLs) since the time of writing, readers are invited to use the available search engines. These references and Web sites demonstrate the large amount of work, both conceptual and empirical, that is taking place. The users of this Handbook, and in particular trainers, are invited to complement the introductory basic concepts and applications, with additional materials and examples.

This Handbook can be used together with other FAO resources, such as:

- **The SEAGA package** consists of a set of basic documents, training materials, and technical guides which illustrate the concepts, methods and tools for conducting socio-economic and gender analysis in a practical and user-friendly way.

Figure 2: SEAGA package



- **Agricultural Development Policy: Concepts and Experiences** by Roger D. Norton, is a conceptual and empirical review of macroeconomic and sectoral policies. This may serve as a reference on keys issues in the agriculture sector, such as policies that influence producer incentives, land tenure policies, water management policies, policies for agricultural and rural finance and for agricultural technology.

1.5 OBJECTIVES OF THE HANDBOOK

On completing all Modules in this Handbook, participants should be able to:

- present strong arguments, using both theory and practical examples, as to why gender should be incorporated into their everyday work;
- understand the policy significance of the role of women in the agricultural sector;
- understand the gender-based constraints that producers face and be able to provide concrete examples of how such constraints operate in their own country and affect their work;
- show how macroeconomic and agricultural sector policies can take into consideration the development context (including gender issues);
- know how to mainstream gender into agricultural policy through baseline gender analysis, capacity building, institutional analysis, gender disaggregated data collection, stakeholder participation, budgeting and monitoring and evaluation;
- know how to access further resources to help with the above work.

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FAO (1986). *Guide for Training in the Formulation of Agricultural and Rural Investment Projects*.

Other technical guides for investment projects available on the FAO Web page:
<http://www.fao.org/tc/tci/resource.htm>

II. Why Integrate Gender and Socio-Economic Analysis into Agricultural Policy and Practice?

Module 2

The Macro-Meso-Micro Framework

MODULE 2

THE MACRO-MESO-MICRO FRAMEWORK

PURPOSE

In this Module you will learn about:

- The role of women and gender asymmetries in the agricultural sector.
- The link between gender **inequality*** and economic growth.
- The implications for policy and public action.
- What is meant by the macro- meso- micro levels of analysis.
- The benefits of redefining the traditional concepts of the macro-meso-micro economy to incorporate gender considerations.

CONTENTS

- 2.1 The importance of gender and gender asymmetries in agriculture
- 2.2 Implications for policy and public action
- 2.3 Integrating gender into the development context: the macro-meso- micro framework
- 2.4 Efficiency reasons for incorporating gender into macro and sector policy
- 2.5 International mandates for incorporating gender into macro and sector policy

2.1 THE IMPORTANCE OF GENDER AND GENDER ASYMMETRIES IN AGRICULTURE

Arguments for gender analysis

A common view among economists, agricultural economists and many technical experts is that gender is purely a social issue, which should not figure in economic policy making. Although one must not forget the strong social and political reasons to support gender equality, there are also convincing economic arguments for bringing gender and socio-economic considerations to the centre of macroeconomic and agricultural policy. The arguments summarised here to illustrate WHY macro and agricultural analysis should be made gender-aware focus largely on efficiency arguments which show that gender inequality can constrain growth in national income, exports and productivity (Elson, Evers and Gideon, 1997).

... food security

In most developing countries, both men and women producers face considerable constraints to increasing their productivity, including a serious lack of resources. However, despite women's central role in the production and marketing of food, in the production of agricultural exports, in maintaining **food security*** at household, community and national levels and in protecting biodiversity, women face more

serious constraints than their male counterparts in gaining access to productive resources (see the internet site of the FAO at www.fao.org/gender for more information).

FAO estimates of women's share of the agricultural labour force indicate that women form a substantial part, varying from 44 to 51 per cent in developing countries as a whole (FAO, 1999, p. 13). In sub-Saharan Africa this figure is higher: there women contribute between 60 and 80 per cent of the labour in food production both for household consumption and for sale. These figures are likely to be underestimates as surveys and censuses only count paid labour whilst much of women's work in producing food for household and community consumption is unpaid so not counted in statistics.

Women make major and multiple contributions to the achievement of food security:

- Women produce more than 50% of the food grown world-wide (FAO 1995).
- Male migration and increased male activity in cash crop production is increasing women's responsibility for producing food for household consumption.
- Women in most countries do the overwhelming majority of work in storing, processing, marketing and preparing food.
- Women care for the basic needs of the household, performing most tasks required for household food security such as gathering fuel and water, cleaning and cooking.
- Women preserve biological diversity and plant genetic resources crucial for food security (Karl, 1996; Bunning and Hill, 1996).
- Research shows that when women have direct control over income they are more likely than men to spend it on the well-being of the family, particularly on improving the nutritional status of the more vulnerable members (Karl, 1996).

Despite women's central role in agricultural production and food security, the sector is characterised by sharp gender-based asymmetries and gender biases. Women are disadvantaged compared to their male counterparts in

... equity

- Access to credit, training, income, transport, technology.
- The terms and conditions of their participation in goods and labour markets influence on agricultural research and extension priorities.
- Voice as community stakeholders in the policy process.
- Influence in decision making in Ministries of Agriculture, in marketing and producer organizations

(Elson and Evers, 1997; Elson, Evers and Gideon, 1997; FAO, 1998; UNIFEM, 2000).

... economic efficiency

Thus, women remain largely a voiceless force, often unrecognised in the mainstream of agricultural policy, under-provided for by public services and marginalized and discriminated against in credit, goods and labour markets. The causes of discrimination against women have social and cultural origins. The costs of such discrimination are borne not only by women, but also by their families and by the economy, since gender **equity** is shown to be linked to increased **efficiency** and increased prospects for growth and economic development (See Box 3). Persuasive reasons exist for assigning a high priority to the development of agricultural policies which treat gender in an appropriate way.

Box 3: Gender inequalities and economic growth

Research on **agricultural productivity** in Africa shows that reducing gender inequalities could significantly increase agricultural yields. Given the same level of agricultural inputs and education as men producers, women producers could increase their yields by more than 20% (Saito and Spurling, 1994).

In Latin America, gender inequalities in **education** have been shown to constrain economic growth. In countries where the ratio of female to male enrolment in primary/secondary education is less than 0.75, GNP levels are likely to be about 25% lower than in countries where there is greater gender equality in education (assuming everything else is equal) (Hill and King, 1995).

Research on structural adjustment in sub Saharan Africa shows that the **supply response** in agriculture is strongly influenced by gender inequalities due to insufficient incentives for women to increase export crops and through over-burdening of women's time (Brown, 1995).

Women's time burdens are an important constraint on growth and development - women are an over-utilised resource. The benefits of reducing this gender-based constraint can be considerable. For instance, a study in Tanzania shows that reducing women's time burden in a community of smallholder coffee and banana growers increases household cash incomes by 10 percent, labour productivity by 15 percent, and capital productivity by 44 percent (Tibaijuka, 1994).

2.2 IMPLICATIONS FOR POLICY AND PUBLIC ACTION

The role of public policies

Policies can influence gender discrimination:

- **Policy can** be formulated and implemented in ways which take account and **reduce the effects of the social and cultural norms** which disadvantage women.
- Alternatively, **policies can reinforce and strengthen discrimination against women.**

... in equalising access to resources

There is scope for public policies that provide incentives to equalise access to productive resources by gender, and that foster a legal and regulatory framework that treats men and women equally.

**... in leveling
the playing
field through
regulatory
and legal
measures**

“...the role for government policy is to improve development outcomes by 1) providing incentives to equalize men and women’s access to productive resources; and 2) levelling the ‘playing field’ that shapes their decisions to produce and reproduce. Providing incentives to equalize access means using public expenditures and pricing mechanisms to promote investments in human capital (e.g. education), financial resources (e.g. savings and credit), and physical assets among those disadvantaged, by gender. Leveling the playing field means to remove or mitigate discriminatory elements embodied in laws, institutions, market structures, and technology, which often apply differently by gender”

(World Bank, 2000)

**Policy
process and
stakeholders’
involvement**

Even though in this Handbook policies will be referred to as government decisions, there is scope for considering policies as taking place, being influenced and modified at different levels. Noteworthy are the efforts to ‘empower’ women, i.e. enabling participation by women in order to redress those gender inequalities that are entrenched in institutional practices. Policies and influence on government policy-making can derive from women themselves through their own ‘access institutions’, like for example the Self-Employed Women’s Association (SEWA) and their pro-poor advocacy work. (Box 4)

Box 4: The Self-Employed Women’s Association (SEWA) and their pro-poor advocacy work

SEWA grew out of the long history of organizing textile workers in Ahmedabad, but applied and modified those lessons to organizing women in the informal sector. Starting from an urban base, it has now also expanded to organizing in rural areas.

SEWA’s ground level campaigns, and their national advocacy work, reflects a pragmatism which eschews ideological positions on “state versus market”. They have supported certain types of trade liberalization because they increase the demand for the output and labour of their members. But they have opposed other types of trade liberalization when they hurt, for example, the employment and incomes of the husbands and brothers and fathers of their members.

They are strong supporters of deregulating the control of the Gujarat State Forestry Commission on the livelihoods of their members. But they oppose deregulation of the pharmaceutical industry because of the devastating impact of these on basic drug prices, and they support increased regulation in Export Processing Zones to ensure that labour standards are met ...

Source: Kanbur, R. (2001). Economic Policy, Distribution and Poverty: the Nature of Disagreements, IFAD (page 6).

FAO, along with many governments, international and donor organizations, is committed to the reduction of discrimination against women.

2.3 INTEGRATING GENDER INTO THE DEVELOPMENT CONTEXT: THE MACRO-MESO-MICRO FRAMEWORK

Impact of gender relations and inequalities on agricultural outcomes and on economic efficiency

For some years FAO policy and practice have reflected greater awareness of the different effects of agricultural policies on men and women. This has helped to establish important equity reasons for strengthening the position of women in rural areas. However, there is also a need to consider the implications of gender structures and relations for agricultural policy analysis and implementation. To put it another way, gender relations and gender inequalities have an impact on agricultural outcomes and affect economic efficiency. So rather than using gender analysis just to support certain women in agricultural settings, it is useful for policymakers to take the analysis a step further and to examine the ways in which **gender influences the agricultural sector itself**. Here we examine some of the conceptual and methodological approaches to thinking about gender using a macro, meso and micro framework.

Effective, efficient and sustainable agricultural policies are developed on the basis of knowledge of the agricultural sector and its significance to the economy as a whole (macro), the markets, infrastructure and organizations, institutions, rules and norms (meso) and the nature of agricultural households (micro).

A macro-meso-micro analysis can be used to discuss:

- the structure of an economy;
- the pattern of decision making and the way an economy responds to policy changes;
- the distortions and biases which hamper effective agricultural and rural development;
- the opportunities and constraints for agricultural policy.

Levels of the economy

This framework identifies three aspects of the economy:

- ... Macro*
 - The Macro level of the economy refers to the economy as a whole. Macro policies (such as exchange rate, interest rate, tariff and tax policies) concern aggregates such as **gross domestic product (GDP)***, imports, exports and the **balance of payments accounts*** and the government budget.
- ... Meso*
 - The Meso which refers to the sectoral level and associated **organizations*** and **institutions*** which mediate between the macro and micro levels. These comprise markets and infrastructure, both economic (roads, communications, irrigation) and social infrastructure (health and education), as well as institutions.
- ... Micro*
 - The Micro which consists of a set of producers and consumers and individual producer enterprises.

Macroeconomic policy (e.g. tariff reduction, market liberalisation, **devaluation***, **fiscal*** and **monetary policies***) affects incentives and resource availability in the agricultural sector. The impact of, and response to, these incentive changes depends upon institutional structures at the meso level (such as rules, norms, the operation and structure of public and private institutions, markets) and the micro level (e.g. household resource endowments, men's and women's control over household resources, intra-household labour allocation and decision-making). It is important to examine these three levels of the economy - the macro, meso and micro - in more detail to highlight their relevance to agricultural policy and to incorporate gender dimensions.

2.3.1 *The macroeconomy: conventional definitions*

Standard disaggregated economic data for the macroeconomy traditionally consider only activities for which people are generally remunerated and which are summarised in the System of National Accounts (SNA). Initially the SNA was based on the idea that production is only carried out by firms while households merely consume. However, this is now changing and the SNA now incorporates some household-based activities, particularly subsistence production (UNIFEM, 2000).

Women's contribution to national income

Nevertheless, in practice, official statistics still underestimate women's contribution to national income. This is partly because women are concentrated in the informal and subsistence sectors, which tend to be undercounted. It is also due to the categorisation of "work" which often fails to capture what women do (See Box 5).

Box 5: Measures of women's economic participation in Pakistan

In Pakistan, women's official economic participation rate varies from 3 percent (1981 Population Census) to 12 percent (1981 Labour Force Survey) to 73 percent (1980 Census of Agriculture). In 1991, conventional measures of women's economic activity put it at 7%, but when activities such as transplanting rice, picking cotton, grinding, drying seeds and tending livestock were included women's economic participation rate rose to 31% (UN, 1995).

Source: FAO, 1999.

Need of gender-sensitive statistics

The under-recording of women's economic participation is particularly problematic in the agricultural sector where much unpaid subsistence activity occurs and where activities tend to be highly segregated by gender. In recent years FAO has tried to fill the information gap through its support for more **gender-sensitive statistics*** for agricultural development (FAO, 1999; 2000). In the words of the Director General of the FAO:

“Gender disaggregated information is essential if appropriate policy recommendations are to be made ... a gender-based differentiation of allocation of labour and resources must be taken into account if technologies are to be developed, targeted and transferred appropriately”.

(Jacques Diouf, in FAO, 2000).

A snapshot of the Ugandan economy provides an example of the gender-based structure of agriculture and other sectors in one particular economy (Table 1).

Table 1: Structure of macro economy, Uganda ^a

**Gender
based
analysis of
the
economy**

	Sector	Sector	Sector	Gender Intensity of Production ^b	
	Share of GDP	Share of Exports	Share of Employment	Female	Male
	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)
Agriculture (of which)	49.0	99	80	75	25
Food crops	33.0	-	-	80	20
Traditional export crops	3.5	66	-	60	40
NTAEs ^c	1.0	34	-	80	20
Industry (of which)	14.3	1	3	15	85
Manufacturing	6.8	-	-	-	-
Services	36.6	-	17	32	68

^a Estimates based on data for 1988 – 1995.

^b Estimates of female and male shares of employment in the sector/subsector.

^c Non-traditional agricultural exports.

Source: Elson and Evers, 1997 and sources cited therein.

Gender sensitive data, which more accurately reveals women’s contribution to the economy, will better reflect the reality of women’s importance as producers, traders, labourers and carers in their own right. Better sex disaggregated data and gender shares of employment provide important pieces of information needed for more effective and sustainable policy advice. In addition, women’s unrecorded and unpaid contribution to marketed and non-marketed activities needs to be documented. Thus, **gender-sensitive statistics** should include data on women’s contribution to the **unpaid domestic economy**, also known as social reproduction or unpaid caring labour.

2.3.2 The macroeconomy and the unnamed, unrecognised, unpaid domestic economy

The relevance of the unpaid domestic economy for agricultural policies

A distinguishing feature of gender analysis is the inclusion of the **unpaid, domestic economy** in economic analysis. Gender analysis incorporates a broader definition of “work” than is normally used in standard economic reports. This definition of work consists of a set of activities which is not represented in official statistics either conceptually or in practice: the time and effort spent collecting water and fuel for family use, cooking, sewing, cleaning, caring for families and communities. These services, which are not categorised as “work” by the SNA², absorb a large proportion of time and energy, especially that of women and girls, and particularly in rural settings (UNDP, 1995). The sum total of these activities is referred to in various ways; here we refer to it as the unpaid domestic economy (See Box 6).

Box 6: The invisible policy variable: women's unpaid work

The unpaid work provided largely by women in caring for families and communities is:

- an obligation which has costs in terms of time and energy (“work”);
- not remunerated by a wage (“unpaid”);
- indispensable for the continuation of the entire society (“social reproduction”); and,
- an opportunity and a constraint for the achievement of food security, improved agricultural productivity and output.

Source: UNIFEM, 2000, p. 23.

Time Use Data for men and women

Failure to account for the significance and the structure of the domestic unpaid economy can limit the sustainability and effectiveness of agricultural policy. For example, women producers may be unable to respond to improved price incentives by increasing production if at the same time increased demands are being placed on their work in the unpaid domestic sphere which could be due to reductions in government social welfare provisions. Hence, the conventional concept of the macroeconomy needs to incorporate the unpaid domestic economy. One method for achieving this is through Time Use Data.

Time Use Data is important for sectoral and macro policy analysis. In terms of the agricultural sector, more accurate reporting of men’s and women’s time use provides a better basis for policy interventions than one which fails to take into account the potential opportunities and constraints of over and under-use of men’s and women’s time. Documenting time use in rural settings is particularly important. It is often assumed that agricultural growth will be pro-poor because it increases the demand for labour, an asset it is assumed that the poor have in surplus. Gender analysis challenges this assumption by arguing that if one looks at both the unpaid and paid

² Some countries (e.g. Canada and Australia) produce Satellite Accounts which attempt to measure the value of this unpaid work.

activities of men *and* women, rural women often suffer from time poverty (Brown, 1995).

**Gender
differentiated
time
allocation for
market and
for unpaid
domestic
economy**

The *UNDP Human Development Report 1995* summarises the evidence on time use for a sample of 31 countries. It includes both SNA activities (the market economy) and non-SNA activities (what we have called the unpaid domestic economy). The Report indicates that, for developing countries, the gender gap in time allocation is wider in rural than in urban areas. The underlying reason for the division of labour between SNA and non-SNA can be found in the social norms which assign women and men certain jobs and responsibilities. However, reasons for the time burdens experienced by rural women are associated with the time-consuming nature of work in non-SNA activities such as collecting fuel and water and the lack of infrastructure to support these activities (Evers and Walters, 2001). This is an aspect of gender inequality that policy can easily address. This type of data points to the need for policy to extend its audit of time use to include both types of activities, and not simply those market-based activities which are incorporated into standard economic accounts.

Time Use Data and other forms of gender disaggregated data help to illustrate how structures of production, labour allocation and work patterns are influenced by gender. Paid employment, unpaid work in family firms and farms, as well as the unpaid work undertaken in homes and communities, is largely determined by gender. If we look at the way people spend their time we see that men and women (and to a large extent boys and girls) are rarely randomly dispersed throughout the economy. Instead, some sectors and activities are considered to be “men’s domain” and others are “women’s domain” and within these broad categories are tasks or activities which are classed as “men’s work” (say, clearing and preparing fields) and “women’s work” (which may include sowing and weeding) and some sectors and tasks are gender neutral, where men and women participate equally. Clearly these definitions differ enormously across geographical areas, class, ethnicity, and time, but **the terrain of work and leisure, consumption and production is gender-based, though to differing degrees and importance**. This is a fundamental idea which needs to be explicitly incorporated into the policy context.

Accounting for the unpaid domestic economy and recognising gender patterns and intensities of time use:

- demonstrates constraints on women’s time which would otherwise be ignored in policy analysis (leading to wrong assumptions about the availability of labour for work in the agricultural sector);
- suggests fresh possibilities for reducing gender inequalities by reducing women’s time constraints in water collection, transport and specific agricultural tasks such as weeding.

Hence, we need to redefine the macro level of the economy to include women’s under-recorded contribution to the marketed economy as well as their unpaid work in the unpaid domestic economy (Elson, Evers and Gideon, 1997).

2.3.3 *The meso level as a structure influenced by gender*

The link between the macro and the micro, termed ‘meso’ or intermediate level, comprises: markets for labour, production inputs, credit, food and other consumer goods; infrastructure which includes economic and social infrastructure (roads, irrigation, education, health and other social services, including food and nutrition programmes) as well as the institutional rules and norms that guide the behaviour of public and private sector organizations delivering such services.

The various macroeconomic policies affect both markets and the economic and social infrastructure which in turn affect individuals and households. Box 7 provides a graphic representation of these linkages.

Macro-meso-micro linkages

Markets are the main links between the macroeconomy and individuals in households. Economic variables changes such as changes in relative prices or quantities traded alter the market conditions faced by individuals in households and enterprises. They might also change the features of marketing institutions and thereby influence the way market signals and opportunities are transmitted to members of the household.

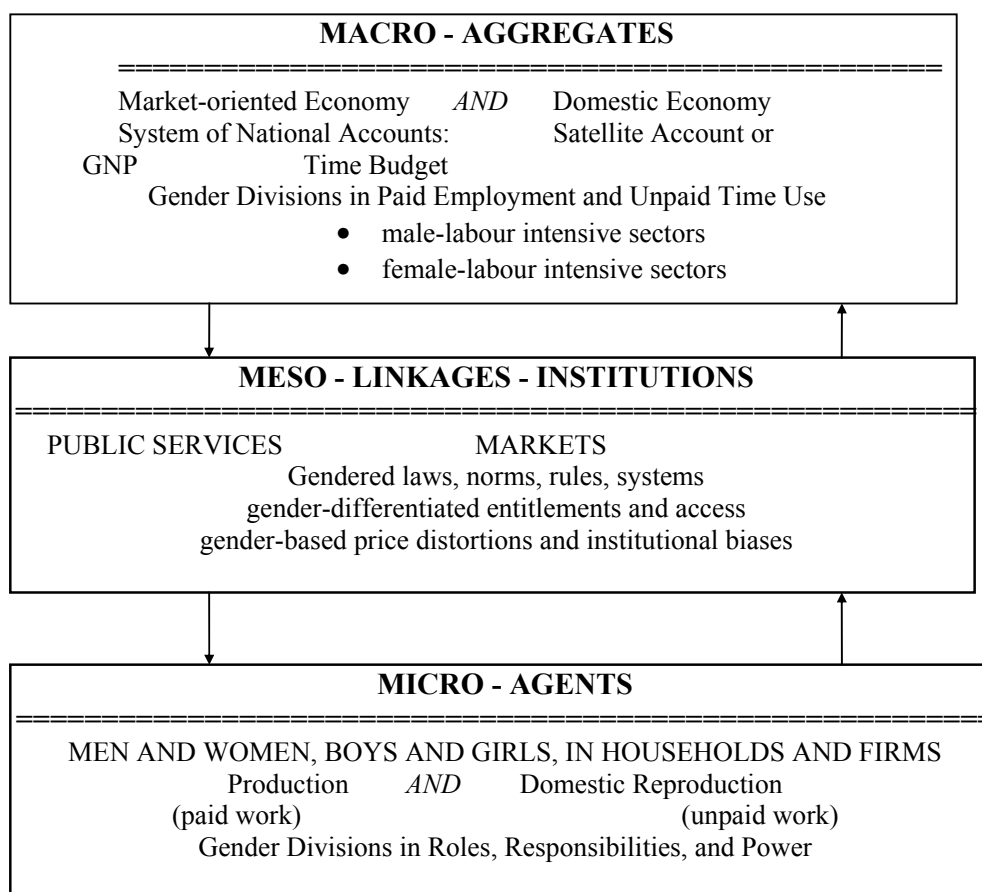
Macro-economic policies and the meso level

Macroeconomic policies directly affect provision of infrastructure and services at the meso level (e.g. provision of extension services, rural roads, drainage and flood control), through fiscal policy and spending on support services. This has immediate effects on the primary incomes of households. Social infrastructure, such as health, education and nutrition programmes affect the welfare of individuals and therefore their overall productivity and ability to participate in markets. There exist many linkages between markets and infrastructure (markets and road conditions, markets and food marketplaces, public works programmes and the labour market, etc.).

The meso level and individuals

Both market and infrastructural changes affect individuals, by changing their incomes from various sources, asset holdings and incentives. However, the ability of individuals to take advantage of the incentives offered by development policies and programmes will depend on their abilities and control over productive resources, be they human capital (skills, knowledge, good health), physical capital (production equipment and basic infrastructure), social capital (networks, access to wider social institutions), natural capital (land, water, environmental resources) and financial capital (savings, credit supplies).

Box 7: Gender in the macro-meso-micro framework



Source: Elson, Evers and Gideon, 1997

While the rationale behind macroeconomic policies can be considered gender neutral, macroeconomic decisions do affect men and women differently – in many cases disadvantaging women because of social practices and institutions that discriminate against them. Given that the quality of a country’s institutions are strong determinants of economic outcomes (Stiglitz, 1998), then gender asymmetries and biases need to be understood as a factor which reduces the quality of agricultural institutions and organizations.

The meso level is where gender differentiated impacts can be analysed and corrective interventions be devised.

The importance of the meso level for analysis and corrective interventions

There are many ways in which institutions and organizations are gender-biased. While there may be cases where men are disadvantaged, overwhelmingly the evidence shows that agricultural institutions are more likely to show preference to men and exclude and discriminate against women as clients, recipients, stakeholders, and participants (Goetz, 1995; 1998). The following provides some examples:

- Agricultural **training, extension services and research** are directed almost exclusively to men or men's crops in many countries, even when women take the main responsibility for much of agricultural production (see Box 8).
- Women's ability to participate in the agricultural sector is contingent on individual women's ability to organise "cover" for their domestic duties – childcare, cooking, cleaning, etc. This may be provided, unpaid, by older girl children, or where women have access to adequate income, may be provided by paid substitutes – maids, nannies, babysitters. Men and boys do not face such constraints. Yet, at the meso level the organization of public meetings, training programmes, transport systems etc. often fail to take account of the constraints women face. They result in being gender biased not only because they set out to explicitly discriminate against women, but also because they fail to account for the fact that the working schedules of women differ from those of men. (Elson and Evers, 1997; Goetz, 1995).

Box 8: Gender bias in research and extension

- In Sudan "agricultural research has hardly addressed gender-specific concerns or taken into account women's knowledge and opinions." (FAO, 1997, Part I, p. 24).
- "The majority of ... appropriate technology available is designed for men and does not take women's interests in(to) consideration. Likewise, the extension services have been highly biased in favour of male producers". (FAO, 1997, Part I, p. 24).

Such bias results in lost opportunities: women fail to raise their agricultural productivity (often in food crops which feed their families) and scarce public resources are wasted.

Source: FAO, 1997.

- Institutional communication networks also often operate in ways which are gender biased. Organizations encompass both formal and informal forms of communications and behaviour that facilitate or obstruct effective action by individuals and entire organizations. Women and men often operate within separate networks – clubs, societies, informal meeting places. Agricultural policy-makers need to understand how such networks operate, and, for instance, the extent to which information is passed between men's and women's networks.
- Goods markets provide another example of gender-biased structures at the meso level. Changes in price incentives alone often are not sufficient to elicit a supply response. Strengthening **marketing structures** in the food crop sector to ease women's access and improve their terms of participation is critical for sustaining a supply response in the women-managed food sector (SIDA, 1996; UWONET, 1995; Wøld, 1997). Box 9 provides an example of gender asymmetries in grain markets in Guinea.

- Reduction of **social infrastructure** may imply a transfer of the costs of care from the paid economy to the unpaid domestic economy, with particular repercussions on women.
- **Participatory management systems**, which promote employee-oriented working systems, traditionally exclude women because their contribution to the labour force frequently remains unrecognised and invisible. When they do participate, women often have difficulties making their voices heard.

Box 9: Gender asymmetries in grain markets in Guinea

In Guinea, where women are extensively involved in grain production and marketing:

- men control strategic decision-making, key assets and access to information;
- men dominate long-distance inter-regional trading, and the marketing system as a whole is controlled by men which limits women traders' commercial potential;
- women face higher costs than their male counterparts: their wholesale trading costs are 12% higher; transport costs are 55% higher and storage costs are 200% higher than men's.

Source: Harriss-White, 1998

2.3.4 The micro context

Assumptions about the household

Most policy analysis treats the household as an undifferentiated unit, despite overwhelming evidence of significant gender-based differences in control over income and command over resources as well as gender-based differences in preferences and patterns of expenditure (Dwyer and Bruce, 1988; Haddad *et al.*, 1997). This can result in different entitlements to resources for well-being (including food) within the household. Women, who are largely responsible for household food security, often have little say in the use of income from male-controlled export crops. Consequently it is incorrect to assume that increases in household cash incomes will automatically compensate for any decrease in household food production.

Evidence from many countries shows that women are more likely than men to devote extra resources to the improvement of family welfare (Alderman, *et al.*, 1997; Dwyer and Bruce, 1988).

By treating the household as a single undifferentiated unit, public services may unwittingly channel more resources to men and fewer to women and to children. For example, provision of food stamps (or other food aid) to male heads of household may have little impact on food consumption of women and girls within the household.

Treating the household as a single unit can also lead to the overestimation of the standard of living of women and girls within households, since intra-household income distribution often favours boys and men over women and girls - so that girls and women are relatively less well nourished and/or less well educated (in economic terms we would say that there are gender differences in household *entitlement sets*).

**Looking
within the
household**

The failure to look inside the household implicitly assumes the household (however defined) to be relatively homogenous with an equitable distribution of resources and rational allocations of time to marketed and non-marketed activities. Hence, we need to redefine and disaggregate the micro level to look at relationships between men, women, boys and girls. Looking within the household helps to identify appropriate policy interventions and predict likely household level responses. Policy makers need to investigate answers to the following questions:

- *Who* is responsible for what crop?
- *Who* controls resources?
- *Who* makes decisions about expenditure and investment?
- *Who* benefits from additional household income?

2.4 EFFICIENCY REASONS FOR INCORPORATING GENDER INTO MACRO AND SECTOR POLICY

Macroeconomic policy affects incentives and resource availability in the agricultural sector. The response to these incentive changes depends upon the meso-economy (markets, infrastructure and institutions) and micro structures (households and male and female resource access, labour allocation and decision-making within households). Macroeconomic policy affects men and women differently because of their differing control over productive resources (human, financial, physical and social capital) and because of the existence of institutions that exclude women from economic opportunities.

**Possible
unintended or
counter-
productive
effects of
policies**

If this gender-based development context is not taken into account, macroeconomic policies may have unintended and even counter-productive effects which will have a cost in terms of the efficiency and sustainability of development as well as in terms of equity. For example, policy makers may assume that the extra foreign exchange income generated by increased exportable cash crop production following devaluation will be allocated to food imports. Instead, household food security might be jeopardised in two ways:

First, the demands of male-dominated cash crop production on women's and men's labour and land may lead to reductions in productivity and/or output of female-intensive food crops (Evers and Walters, 2000).

Second, the dominance of male cash crop production may result in a decline in the share and/or absolute amount of household income under women's control. Less cash under women's control may mean a smaller share of expenditure allocated to household welfare. This does not mean that the macro policy should necessarily be

abandoned, but appropriate sectoral policies and programmes are needed to address gender biases.

2.5 INTERNATIONAL MANDATES FOR INCORPORATING GENDER INTO MACRO AND SECTOR POLICY

Although the focus of this Handbook is on efficiency reasons for incorporating gender into macro and sector level policies, it is worth recalling that there are also strong equity reasons for doing so. Most countries adhere to such equity reasons through their support to multilateral agencies and their participation in the international human rights movement.

There are a large number of mandates and conventions on gender equality. Government commitments to gender equality are documented in United Nations human rights instruments, International Labour Organization Conventions, UN conference agreements and in FAO documents, such as:

- **The Declaration of the World Food Summit: five years later (2002), and the 1996 Plan of Action of the World Food Summit**, that committed governments to halve the number of hungry in the world no later than 2015 and also to promote equal access for men and women to food, water, land, credit and technology and reaffirmed the need to assure gender equality and to support empowerment of women.
- **The FAO Gender and Development Plan of Action (2002-2007)** that advocates mainstreaming gender in all its technical areas.
- **The United Nations Millennium Declaration (2000)** has the promotion of gender equality and women's empowerment as one of its specific goals.
- **The Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action** that commits governments and other actors:
 - to promote and protect women's human rights; including equal rights to inheritance;
 - to promote an active and visible policy of mainstreaming a gender perspective in all policies and programmes, so that before decisions are taken an analysis is made of the effects on men and women;
 - to support strategies for reducing gender inequalities through macro-economic policies and development strategies that address the needs of women in poverty;
 - to revise laws and administrative practices to ensure women's equal rights and access to economic resources;
 - to provide women with access to savings and credit mechanisms and institutions;
 - to developing gender-based methodologies and conduct research to address the feminisation of poverty and acknowledge that insufficient attention to gender analysis has meant that women's contributions and concerns remain too often ignored in economic structures;

-
- to make reforms to give women equal rights with men to economic resources, including access to ownership and control over land and other forms of property;
 - to remove obstacles to women's ability to buy, hold and sell property and land equally with men.
- The **Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW)** that outlaws all forms of discrimination against women.
 - The **International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR)**, which includes the right of women and men to an adequate standard of living.
 - The **1993 UN Second World Conference on Human Rights** in Vienna, which recognises women's rights as human rights in the Vienna Declaration and programme of Action.
 - **ILO Conventions** that commit governments to promote legal measures to eliminate discrimination against women employees on grounds of sex, age, marital or family status and to change policies that reinforce the gender division of labour to promote equal sharing of family responsibility for unpaid domestic work.

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Electronic resources

For FAO's commitments to gender equality and gender-sensitive activities see www.fao.org/gender

For a diverse set of resources on gender equality, rights and gender-sensitive research, actions and analysis, including listings of UN and other commitments to gender equality see www.unifem.undp.org; Bridge at www.ids.ac.uk and www.thecommonwealth.org/gender.

II. Why Integrate Gender and Socio-Economic Analysis into Agricultural Policy and Practice?

Module 3

What Happens When Policy Makers are Gender Blind?

MODULE 3

WHAT HAPPENS WHEN POLICY MAKERS ARE GENDER BLIND?

PURPOSE

In this Module you will learn about:

- Some of the negative effects of reform which arise when the development context – including gender issues – is not taken into consideration by policy-makers.
- The inefficiencies that arise from gender inequalities and gender bias.
- The links between the macro, meso and micro levels of the economy and why gender needs to be mainstreamed into policy at the sectoral and meso level.

CONTENTS

- 3.1 The effects of economic reform policies
- 3.2 The macro-meso-micro links
- 3.3 Exercise and further resources

3.1 THE EFFECTS OF ECONOMIC REFORM POLICIES

Over the past two decades many developing countries have undertaken major economic reform programmes with the emphasis on liberalisation. Such programmes may include:

- devaluation of the exchange rate and other price changes;
- liberalisation of international trade;
- privatisation of marketing, input and service delivery;
- reductions in government expenditure and direct activity.

Policy changes create gainers and losers

Almost all policy changes create gainers and losers; very few policy changes benefit everyone equally. The purpose of this section is to examine cases where the losers from policy changes are women and when there are consequent negative effects on the welfare of the household and on the rural economy.

Women's ability to reallocate their time to other activities in response to changes in market opportunities (e.g. increased producer prices or job openings) may be hampered by the societal norms that delineate different economic and social roles

for men and women, thus restricting the substitution of male and female labour time. The household economy, with its asymmetry in the control over income, may make impossible the transmission of changing price incentives to women. For example:

Reduced export taxation and devaluation

- Reductions in export taxation combined with exchange rate devaluation provide incentives to increase cash crop production at the expense of subsistence crops, often a nontradeable good, in most cases under the responsibility of women.
- The increased commercialisation of agriculture may result in increased demand for family labour, thereby lowering the benefits of education relative to the benefits of using child labour (even more so for girls).

Public expenditure reduction may shift provision of services to the domestic household economy

- The cut back in government provision of welfare and social services such as health care can shift such provision from the paid economy to the unrecognised domestic household economy placing greater demands on women's time for the care of children, the sick and the elderly, so reducing time available for food production and income earning activities (ECOSOC, 1999).
- Dis-investment in community infrastructure such as water supply systems is also likely to increase women's workloads. Such changes might place additional demands on women's time in a manner that inhibits their response to incentive changes. Although public spending cuts are seen as improving efficiency of the public sector, these efficiency savings might simply represent a transfer of costs from the market-oriented economy to the unpaid economy of social reproduction (Elson, Evers and Gideon, 1997). Consequently, public expenditure cuts which initially appear to be 'sound finance' can have negative feedback effects, which may undermine the sustainability of the fiscal balance (Palmer, 1991) and/or threaten household well-being, including food security and nutritional status. If women's time burdens rise to such an extent that it threatens women's ability to work in the market-oriented economy this in turn may restrict tax revenue as well as the ability of the economy to increase output as expected.

In conclusion, policy makers need to be aware of the misconception that women's labour has a low marginal cost (i.e. the cost of one extra hour of a woman's time is low) and is highly elastic to economic shocks or adjustment signals, hence freely available to meet the needs of the family as well as the community and the market (Elson, 1991; Palmer, 1994).

Need for complementary policies

On the other hand, with appropriate complementary policies to ease women's time constraints and improve their market access, policies such as devaluation can bring benefits to women producers as well as their families, while also expanding national output and exports, as shown in the case of Uganda in the following page (Box 10). However, the extent to which the expansion of non-traditional agricultural exports may have occurred at the expense of the well-being of child nutrition and girls education is not yet certain (Elson and Evers, 1997).

Box 10: Women and the production of non-traditional exports in Uganda

In Uganda the macroeconomic policy of exchange rate devaluation has been used as a key tool to stimulate the production of tradable goods, especially agricultural exports.

An important aspect of agricultural diversification in response to devaluation has been the expansion of non-traditional agricultural exports (NTAEs) such as maize, beans, green beans, and flowers. Such crops are predominantly women's activities.

Between 1992 and 1996 the export share of NTAE rose from 21.3% to 34.5%. NTAEs offered new opportunities for women in Uganda. In these circumstances, women directly participate in agricultural goods markets and make decisions about how to respond to changes in the relative prices they face.

Policy makers need to ensure that women producers have access to the necessary resources that enable them to respond to price incentives.

Source: Elson and Evers, 1997.

Policies to ease women's time constraints and to improve their access to the market could be legislation to secure women's land rights and liberalisation of markets such as the credit market. The move away from state directed credit for the production of specific crops towards a more liberalised sustainable financial market can benefit poor households including female-headed households. Such households with lower incomes tend to have more diversified sources of income and hence can potentially benefit from a financial system which does not simply direct credit to the production of a narrow range of crops.

Complementary policies and programmes should also address more efficient and pro-poor social and economic infrastructure to ease women's work burden (e.g. community water supply systems) and to increase their human capital (health services and education).

In conclusion, a gender-aware approach to economic reform programmes can strengthen the justification for supporting such policies. Women can respond better to macro policy and incentives when they are integrated with complementary measures which are directed towards increasing women's control over resources as well as improving women's productivity and/or reducing women's time burdens in unpaid domestic activities.

3.2 THE MACRO-MESO-MICRO LINKS

It is now widely accepted that macroeconomic policies have a profound effect on the agricultural sector of developing countries. For example, the FAO (2003) text "Agricultural Development Policy: Concepts and Experiences" states:

“An especially cited area to develop in the guidelines is the linkages between macroeconomic and agricultural policies. Macroeconomic decisions in fact are the main determinants of agricultural prices. They also strongly influence prospects for agricultural trade, and for these reasons have a powerful effect on agricultural production itself.”

The key determinants of agricultural performance are:

- **Incentives**
- **Resources**
- **Access**

In order to operate successfully, a producer needs three basic things: adequate **incentives** to produce, a secure **resource base** (farmland, water) and **access** to markets for outputs and inputs, including technology. Accordingly, agricultural policies comprise the following three broad components:

- **pricing policy**, which is determined in large part by macroeconomic policies (e.g. the exchange rate, tariffs, taxes);
- **resource policies** (e.g. land tenure, management of natural resources such as water, fisheries, forests, land);
- **Access policy**, such as access to agricultural inputs, output markets and technology; rural financial policy as a prerequisite, in many cases, for obtaining inputs and marketing products.

Policy makers in the agricultural sector often have little influence over macroeconomic policy. Decisions about the exchange rate or the interest rates are usually taken by the Ministry of Finance or the Central Bank. Agricultural policy-makers may, however, have some influence over fiscal policy such as taxes and the allocation of public expenditure and over trade liberalisation in the agricultural sphere.

Box 11 shows the impact of a range of macroeconomic policies on agriculture.
Box 11: The impact of macroeconomic policies on agriculture

Macroeconomic Policy	Impact on Agriculture
Adjust the exchange rate	Changes the price of agricultural exports and imports.
Trade liberalisation Reduce import tariffs Remove import quotas Reduce export taxes/subsidies	Changes the domestic price of agricultural exports, imports and import substitutes. Increases competition from imports, may increase export opportunities.
Monetary policy: Change interest rates	Alters the availability and cost of rural finance, alters incentives to save.
Fiscal policy: Change taxes and user costs for public services Reduce subsidies Reducing and/or change the allocation of public expenditure Privatising government activities	Affects the cost and availability of public services supplied to men and women producers.

The gender aspects of macroeconomic policies are usually not understood nor made explicit. It is important to recognise that women are not just the potential beneficiaries of development; they are also central to agricultural production and household well-being. Given the right conditions women can play an important role as agents of change. There is increasing recognition that women represent a major force for rural change, a largely over-worked, but under-resourced, group that could boost labour force productivity, strengthen food security and general agricultural growth. When given adequate access to and control of resources, women have responded positively to the incentives offered by macro policy changes and have played a major role in cash crop production.

From a policy perspective, this implies that:

The role of government

- there is a role for the government to provide incentives to equalize access to productive resources by gender and to create a legal and regulatory framework that treats men and women equally; and
- gender sensitive meso level sectoral reforms may be necessary to ensure the appropriate equity and efficiency outcomes of the macroeconomic policy.

Macro-Meso-Micro Linkages and Intra-Household Bargaining

A useful way of using the macro-meso-micro framework to analyse the effects of macro and sectoral policy is to focus on the way in which the gender-based development context at meso level (e.g. gender-based property rights in land;

gender asymmetries in goods and labour markets, and in access to social and physical infrastructure) mediates the impact of macro and sectoral policies via the process of intra-household bargaining (micro).

Intra-household bargaining

There is ample evidence of the contribution of gender-based constraints to poor agricultural and human development for many sub-Saharan African economies (Elson and Evers, 1997; Palmer, 1991, 1994). They indicate that the portrayal of women as passive, vulnerable and dependent is very far from accurate. In practice, interactions between men and women involve a complex process of bargaining which can change with time and circumstances and which can be influenced by policy. Of particular importance is the role of land rights (and other assets) in the household bargaining process. Land ownership and usage rights crucially influence women and men's bargaining power within the household.

... over allocation of resources to production and consumption

The interaction of social and economic spheres (culture and agricultural supply response) on the one hand, and the meso and the micro levels (the structure of property rights and decision-making within the household) on the other can be more easily understood within a household bargaining framework. This is a central idea, which would assist policy makers in designing more equitable and efficient agricultural policy.

Roles and resource access by men and women demarcated by social norms

For instance, social norms underlie the allocation of land and labour in agriculture. This is reflected in the gender demarcation of land to women's crops (which may be food crops for market or for family provisioning) and men's crops (typically, but not exclusively, export crops). These norms are also reflected in the gender typing of tasks where men may be responsible for clearing fields and women take care of weeding and much of the transport and post harvesting work, while harvesting may be shared or divided between them. These demarcations create the possibilities for conflict between different sectors - women-managed food crops and male-managed cash crops - but also possibilities for co-operation. The degree to which men and women co-operate in production and the process by which they deal with conflicts over allocation of resources to production and consumption can be seen as arising from processes of explicit and implicit bargaining (Evers and Walters, 2001).

... and influence different responses to policies

In order to understand the household level outcomes of adjustment policy, gender differences in preferences and priorities must be factored in to the policy process. This involves taking into account gender differences in expenditure patterns – where men and women differ in the extent to which they are willing to allocate extra household income to food, clothing or children's welfare. Alternatively, it involves taking account of gender differences in risk taking, preferences for certain types of crops or seed, etc. This type of evidence needs to be included in the micro-level development context.

Thus, insights as to how the agricultural sector is likely to respond to macro and agricultural reforms can be gained by looking at processes of household decision making as part of the development context (Evers and Walters, 2001). In response to devaluation and other incentives to increase export production, it is helpful to ask: how do households allocate their resources to traditional cash crops, food crops (including Non-traditional Agricultural Exports (NTAEs) and own

consumption) and unpaid domestic work? What meso level (extra-household factors) are likely to influence decisions within the household? The way the household supply *responds* to new incentives is not only price-responsive, but is influenced by gender norms, intra-household bargaining, as well as other meso level factors such as the structure of land rights and gender discrimination in goods and labour markets. These factors are therefore potential policy variables.

**Factors
impinging
on intra-
household
decision
making need
to be
empirically
determined**

Focusing on evidence from South Asia, Agarwal (1997) analyses the relative influence of **extra-household factors on intra-household decision making** and the resulting resource allocation in households. The importance of property rights and social norms were found to be strong influences on intra-household bargaining in the South Asian context. However, the identification of which particular extra-household factors are most likely to influence household bargaining needs to be empirically determined.

A bargaining approach to the household posits that it is incorrect to assume that new incentive structures and agricultural reforms will automatically increase traditional and non traditional export production and raise household incomes and improve the potential for better household food security. A bargaining approach shows how *extra-household* structures may act as a constraint to either supply response and/or household well-being because of the way they influence *intra-household* decision making and allocation of resources.

In a context of male-biased property rights, a bargaining approach may predict that agricultural supply response will result in an expansion in men's crops, and even in women's NTAE crops, but may have damaging implications for household food security and well-being (Evers and Walters, 2001). Thus, policy makers should consider a household bargaining approach as part of policy design (Box 12).

Box 12: Influences on intra-household bargaining

The household bargaining literature shows that gender differences in *extra-household* factors - where policy has significant leverage - can differentially affect men's and women's bargaining power *within* households. This in turn will have effects on *intra* household allocation of resources, including labour time, assets and income, and consumables such as food.

In other words, the bargaining literature demonstrates an important lesson for policymakers: although households are characterised by cultural norms which assign different status, roles and responsibilities to men and women, public policy decisions can influence the decision-making process within households in ways that lead to more equitable outcomes in consumption and production.

Source: Evers and Walters, 2001.

Box 13 shows how property rights and bargaining can influence the outcome of macro policy.

Box 13: The influence of property rights and bargaining on the outcome of macro policy

In response to devaluation, men may expand production of cash crops in order to maximise their income. This may reduce the size of women's plots or productivity if it results in moving women's crops to more distant and/or less productive land for food production. Women's lack of control over land is linked to limited control over their own labour, and even less influence over their husbands' labour. Men's control over family land strengthens their ability to command more of their wife's labour time in order to maximise his income.

In Tanzania, strengthened by their property rights, men were able to increase maize production through negotiating increases in their wives' labour time. However, women producers who lacked full control of their land were less able to negotiate increases in their husband's labour contribution to their own crops which constrained their ability to increase food production (Wøld, 1997).

This has implications for women's ability to earn cash income through food production and processing which is increasingly important as agricultural production becomes more outward oriented and market orientated in response to financial and structural reforms.

Source: Evers and Walters, 2001.

3.3 EXERCISE AND FURTHER RESOURCES

3.3.1 Exercise

Module 9 contains an exercise for the gender analysis of policy goals and public expenditure.

3.3.2 Resources

Evers, B. and Walters, B. (2000), "Extra-Household Factors and Women Farmers' Supply Response in Sub-Saharan Africa", *World Development*, Vol. 28, No. 7 and Evers, B. and Walters, B. (2001) *Review of Development Economics* provide a more detailed account of why gender issues and the wider development context must be considered when devising macroeconomic and sectoral reforms. It supports the material contained in this Module on the macro-meso-micro links and refers to the bargaining literature cited above.

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III. How to Incorporate Socio-Economic and Gender Analysis into Agricultural Policy and Practice

Module 4

What is Gender Mainstreaming in Agriculture?

MODULE 4

WHAT IS GENDER MAINSTREAMING IN AGRICULTURE?

PURPOSE

In this Module you will learn about:

- Gender-based constraints in the agricultural and rural sector.
- The different impacts of gender at field level and at macro level.
- The definition of gender mainstreaming.
- The conditions which facilitate gender mainstreaming in agricultural policy.
- The appropriate steps for mainstreaming gender in agricultural planning and policy.

CONTENTS

- 4.1 Gender-based constraints to agricultural development goals
- 4.2 Gender mainstreaming
- 4.3 Steps in the process of gender mainstreaming

4.1 GENDER-BASED CONSTRAINTS TO AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT GOALS

Given the predominant role of women in agriculture and the key role played by women in food security, it should be clear that if the goals of agricultural development are to be achieved women must be equal partners in the development process. At present this is not the case. Poor women and men face multiple constraints that limit their ability to participate in and benefit from agricultural development, and women's constraints tend to be greater than those of their male counterparts. Although there are variations between countries and cultures, some of the most common constraints are:

Most common constraints faced by women in the agricultural and rural sector

- **Lack of access to good quality land and lack of secure land tenure rights.** Land security encourages producers to invest time and resources in long-term improvements and facilitates access to support services. Some inheritance and land tenure laws limit women's ownership and use of land.
- **Weak credit and financial markets.** Savings facilities may be scarce and banks and credit institutions may be less inclined to lend to women and marginalized or disadvantaged groups because, without property, they lack collateral.

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- **Neglect of women’s needs by agricultural research and extension systems.** Extension programmes inform producers about new technologies and crops. Few extension services are targeted at women, few extension officers are women and most extension services concentrate on commercial crops rather than the subsistence crops, which are of primary concern to women. Research tends to neglect crops that are grown by women.
 - **Lack of access to agricultural inputs.** Improved seeds, fertilisers and pesticides can increase agricultural productivity. Extension services and rural groups such as co-operatives which distribute such inputs often neglect women who in any case often lack the cash to purchase such inputs, thus contributing to their low level of production.
 - **Lack of access to rural organizations.** Co-operatives and farmer’s organizations help members obtain resources, enable them to participate in decision-making and represent their interests to policy makers. Women are often excluded from such organizations when membership is based on “head-of-household” status or land ownership.
 - **Lack of access to services** such as transport and market .
 - **Increased pressure on women’s time and labour** in unpaid household and community domestic production and in market-oriented agricultural production.

These constraints are often particularly acute for women producers, traders and agricultural workers due to gender imbalances in the development context: women’s multiple responsibilities are not matched with the necessary resources to meet them.

These constraints originate from and are located in a variety of spheres:

Socio-cultural - beliefs that women “do not matter”, that they are not important to the productive process and that they simply “care for the family” with this latter work not valued, counted or appropriately resourced.

Institutional and civil, whereby women are discriminated against by a variety of institutions, policies and practices such as the legal system regarding, for example, their ability to own land and enter into contractual credit or marketing agreements.

Political with women marginalized from decision-making in agricultural policy, in research, in rural agricultural and other community organizations, and in the household.

Economic - gender bias and gender blindness of policy-makers and planners and in service delivery whereby producers are still generally perceived as male, hence excluding women from equal access to agricultural resources.

Demographic - such as male rural to urban migration resulting in the feminisation of agriculture and increased pressures on rural women’s time.

Environmental - the failure to incorporate women's knowledge and expertise in formulation of agricultural policy and, within disadvantaged groups, the disproportionate impact of environmental factors fall on women.

There are two distinct but related ways in which gender can be incorporated into the formulation of agricultural sector work so as to address the above problems:

- **Specific interventions** at the sub-sectoral level to meet the particular needs of women producers, traders, consumers and family carers.
- **Systematic mainstreaming** of gender in policy formulation which aims to develop a more equitable and efficient approach to the achievement of agricultural sector objectives. This involves the recognition of two key points:
 - that a given policy can have different impacts on men and women;
 - that gender relations and gender-biased institutions and norms influence policy outcomes.

4.2 GENDER MAINSTREAMING

Gender mainstreaming is defined as the process through which an organization or a government ministry assumes a comprehensive gender perspective. This can be achieved when consideration of gender roles and relations are included in policies, strategic views, values and all procedures (both administrative and consultative).

From projects for women-only to gender mainstreaming

To date, gender mainstreaming efforts have not been overwhelmingly successful, partly because of the marginalisation of “gender” into women-only projects. We briefly review the background to different approaches to achieving gender equity by highlighting some differences between project-level women-in-development interventions and more systematic approaches to mainstreaming gender.

Conditions which facilitate gender mainstreaming are:

- A government committed to change the orientation of its policies and to modify its procedures so that gender concerns, and the particular needs and constraints of rural women, are explicitly incorporated into policy-making and planning processes
- A government willing and capable of mobilising and allocating the resources necessary for the preparation and implementation of a gender strategy for agriculture through the various phases of design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation and revision.
- A commitment from sector institutions, at central and decentralised levels (including government departments, research institutes, producer organizations) to cooperate and promote the sharing of information to support gender equity in agriculture.
- A willingness on the part of governments and donor organizations to provide resources for training on gender analysis in macroeconomic and agricultural

sector policies. A visible commitment to gender mainstreaming by centrally placed and well-respected actors in the policy process.

Many of these conditions can be promoted through the process of gender capacity and institution building (see Module 5).

The following Modules provide guidelines on *how* to design effective policy instruments to reduce gender-based constraints to the achievement of sector goals. They use the macro-meso-micro framework to analyse linkages between different parts of the economy and between policy actions and outcomes as well as to suggest ways to reduce gender-based constraints to desired policy aims.

Box 14: Women in Development (WID) and Gender and Development Approach (GAD)

The Women in Development (WID) approach to gender analysis has been successful in increasing awareness of women's distinct priorities, concerns and needs as well as the important role women play in the agricultural sector.

Policy implications

The policy recommendation of this approach is to direct resources towards women as a special target group of beneficiaries. This often involves distinct "women only" projects at the sub-sectoral level such as projects to provide women's groups with access to credit, incentives and training to promote home gardening and the development of women-friendly technology.

However, these micro-level lessons need to be fed back into the policy process in ways that lead to changes in agricultural strategy. Without this feedback into the policy process gender and women's issues remain marginalized in the agricultural sector and will continue to be viewed largely as appendages to agricultural policy and its implementation. Another problem with women-only projects has been that they are often constrained by small budgets, low government priority, lack of skilled project staff and concentration on marginal enterprises. Such projects are not designed to address weaknesses in the overall policy framework nor deal comprehensively with other factors that reinforce gender inequalities such as the rules and practices of the household, community, market and the state.

The Gender and Development (GAD) Approach seeks to understand and influence these structural factors. It uses the lessons learned at the field level to highlight differences in the ways men and women respond to incentives and differences in the nature of the constraints they face. This analysis takes a further step: it aims to demonstrate how these gender-based constraints weaken the effectiveness of agricultural policy and can lead to unintended and often undesirable outcomes.

Policy implications

The GAD approach shifts the emphasis from women as a separate and often marginalized target group to focusing more on sector objectives (agricultural productivity; food security; rural poverty alleviation) and identifying ways in which gender equity in agriculture can facilitate their achievement. This entails more systematic forms of intervention: incorporating a gender perspective into sector strategy formulation, agricultural sector monitoring and evaluation and reform of agricultural sector institutions. Hence, policies benefiting women are integrated and linked with the overall agricultural strategy and policy process.

In addition, the GAD approach (unlike the WID approach which focuses on individual women's projects) can take account of institutional and organizational complementarities. For example, a single project to improve women's access to credit may not succeed if it is not supported by other complementary projects and programmes (for example those to secure women's access to extension advice and to marketing infrastructure). The holistic GAD approach can address this issue of complementarity.

Box 15: Gender sensitive macro-meso-micro analysis

Practical guidelines

Macro:

- Provide gender disaggregated national statistics to identify the location of men and women in the economy.
- Integrate the unpaid “domestic economy” in macro and agricultural analysis to illustrate gender patterns of time use and the extent of time burdens on men and women, boys and girls.

Meso:

- Address gender-based-distortions in markets which can result in inefficient resource allocation.
- Address gender asymmetries and biases in institutions and organizations which can restrict access to resources and are inequitable and inefficient.

Micro:

- Take account of gender differences in household preferences, time allocation and control over household resources. Note how they influence household production and investment decisions, food security and well-being within the household.

Source: Adapted from Elson, Evers and Gideon, 1997.

4.3 STEPS IN THE PROCESS OF GENDER MAINSTREAMING

The steps that are necessary if gender is to be mainstreamed in agricultural strategy and policy are:

- provide a baseline gender analysis of the sector (see Module 6);
- undertake an analysis of the gender-based constraints to the achievement of agricultural sector objectives (see Modules 2 and 3);
- undertake institutional assessment and capacity building for gender equality (see Module 5);
- conduct participatory planning and policy formulation (see Module 7);
- improve the budgeting process to incorporate gender concerns (see Module 8);
- improve monitoring and evaluation of gender components of the agricultural strategy (see Module 9).

Modules 5 to 9 look at how the mainstreaming process can take place in the agricultural sector. Other modules are in preparation on sub-sectoral and complementary policies and programmes.

REFERENCES

- BRIDGE Reports: <http://www.ids.ac.uk/bridge.html> is an on-line gender resource devoted to bridging the gap between theory, policy and practice with accessible gender-related information, much of which is available on-line. Consult the Web site for a full listing and useful links on gender and agriculture.
- BRIDGE Issue 5. Approaches to Institutionalising Gender. This report reviews approaches to institutionalising gender issues in government and non-government organizations. Available from Bridge Web site (See above).
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III. How to Incorporate Socio-Economic and Gender Analysis into Agricultural Policy and Practice

Module 5

Institutional Assessment and Capacity Building for Gender Equality

MODULE 5

INSTITUTIONAL ASSESSMENT AND CAPACITY BUILDING FOR GENDER EQUALITY

PURPOSE

In this Module you will learn:

- About the need for capacity building for gender equality.
- How to conduct a gender aware institutional assessment.
- How to use checklists for gender sensitive institutional analysis.

CONTENTS

- 5.1 Introduction
- 5.2 The need for capacity building for gender equality
- 5.3 Conducting a gender aware institutional assessment
- 5.4 Checklists for gender sensitive institutional analysis

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Institutional analysis* and capacity building for gender equality focuses on the meso or intermediate level by addressing physical organizations as well as rules and norms contained in the institutional framework. Gender equality is defined as "... equal enjoyment by women and men of socially valued goods, opportunities, resources and rewards. Gender equality does not mean that men and women become the same, but that their opportunities and life chances are equal. The emphasis on gender equality and women's empowerment does not presume a particular model of gender equality for all societies and cultures, but reflects a concern that women and men have equal opportunities to make choices about what gender equality means and work in partnership to achieve it." (OECD, 1999:13).

There are two types of organizations that need to be addressed:

- the organizations of the state that formulate and implement policy, e.g. Ministries of Agriculture, Planning, Finance, Women's Affairs, as well as decentralised bodies such as District Planning Committees;
- the organizations and institutions which mediate policy, e.g. marketing structures, rural organizations, labour markets and finance markets.

Looking at the process of agricultural reform in most countries, overall sector strategies have been formed with little consideration of gender. Although there is not a vast amount of experience in this area on which to draw, there is a small and

growing literature which can provide guidelines on how to develop a more gender-sensitive style of institutional change.

Recognizing institutional constraints to the achievement of gender equality in the agricultural sector is the first step in this process. Integrating gender concerns in agriculture has begun to take place, but in a piecemeal manner largely at field level. The challenge is to identify the best approach to build mechanisms, structures and the capacity to translate gender equality issues raised at field level into a coherent overall strategy which is integrated into the national agricultural framework.

5.2 THE NEED FOR CAPACITY BUILDING FOR GENDER EQUALITY

Gender-sensitive institutional analysis

A review by the World Bank in 1999 showed that gender analysis capacity is generally weak in Ministries of Agriculture (World Bank, 1999). Although most governments and their partners have explicit commitments to the integration of gender into agricultural strategies, there has been little capacity building in gender analysis for the agricultural sector as a whole. Many of the gender inputs are oriented to micro level issues without linkage to overall agricultural priorities and processes. Therefore, there is still a need to strengthen sector-wide gender capacity in most Ministries of Agriculture and among the policy formulation and management units of donor institutions. A gender-sensitive institutional analysis of Ministries of Agriculture should assess their capacity to integrate gender into the agricultural policy process (research and strategy setting, policy formulation and implementation). The institutional analysis described in this Module can be helpful in identifying the most effective interventions for building gender capacity in the sector.

... and integrating gender in sector-wide and policy formulation

As yet there are no examples of fully mainstreamed gender equality programmes for the agricultural sector (OECD/DAC, 2000). Gender specialists themselves will need time and experience to develop a systematic framework for identifying and integrating gender priorities and inserting them into the mainstream of agricultural policy. For gender specialists this means shifting from a micro-level, project-based focus to a meso-level or sector-wide, institutional approach to the integration of gender. This in turn, requires expertise in identifying key gender issues in *all* aspects of the agricultural sector. Thus, the tools and analysis presented in this Handbook should be considered as an initial effort in providing a consistent framework for gender mainstreaming in policy formulation that, with time and experience, will have to be reviewed, improved and adapted to specific contexts.

Gender specialists, in consultation with men and women stakeholders and collaborating with a cadre of technical experts and managers, can provide such an approach. However the resources and mandate for such an exercise require commitment from centrally placed and well-respected actors in the policy process.

5.3 CONDUCTING A GENDER AWARE INSTITUTIONAL ASSESSMENT

Gender-aware institutional analysis A gender-aware institutional assessment has two main purposes:

- To identify constraints and opportunities for achieving gender equity in agricultural institutions and organizations.
- To identify the ways in which gender asymmetries and biases in institutions and organizations can be corrected to strengthen the policy objectives of the agricultural sector programme. This will entail training, personnel development, workshops and reform of organizations.

Gender-aware institutional analysis can provide policy makers with guidance on how to evaluate agricultural institutions for gender bias and how to strengthen their capacity to function in gender equitable ways.

Gender-aware institutional analysis has both an **equity** and an **efficiency** dimension:

- **equity** evaluates the extent to which sector organizations and institutions systematically disadvantage men or women as participants and beneficiaries;
- **efficiency** considers the ways in which gender relations, gender-based norms, and gender imbalances affect the performance, priorities and outcomes of agricultural policies.

At the outset, an institutional analysis should recognise that:

- the **needs** of men and women producers, traders, consumers, labourers may be different;
- that men and women have different **capabilities** to participate in the design and delivery of agricultural policies, in community participation schemes, in training schemes, in agricultural markets, in financial markets, in government ministries;
- that the organizations which design, deliver and evaluate agricultural programmes operate according to **rules and norms which may be gender biased**, that is they normally function in ways which prioritise men's needs and viewpoints over those of women.

5.3.1 Identifying and analysing the institutional framework

Steps for institutional analysis

To aid an effective evaluation of the institutional framework, a two step procedure can be identified. Firstly, a broad identification of the institutional and organizational context will enable policy makers to consider the general environment in which their organization or entity exists. The second step consists of a more in-depth study of the gender dimensions in the organizational and institutional context and will involve accounting for different needs, considering the gender differences in the capability to participate in organizations and examining the gender-based rules and norms in organizations.

Step 1: identify the institutional and organizational framework.

Identification of organizations, rules and norms

The framework normally consists of the market and state organizations, including marketing structures, producer and community organizations relevant to the agricultural sector, government ministries, and local authorities. It also incorporates the rules and norms which influence the functioning of such organizations. In conventional assessments the institutional environment is seen as a set of interacting and competing producers, the private sector, and public sector providers. Normally institutional analysis involves an evaluation of the quality of these organizations, emphasising financial management (budgetary processes), production management (service delivery processes), and the links (or absence of links) between the two (Elson and Evers, 1998).

Step 2: provide a gender analysis of the institutional and organizational framework identified in step one

... and carrying out gender analysis

A gender-aware analysis takes a broad view of the factors determining the effectiveness and efficiency of public and private sector organizations and institutions. Of central concern are gender-based distortions in markets and gender-based biases in institutional norms (for more discussion of this point, see Palmer, 1995; Elson, Evers, Gideon, 1997).

Accounting for differing needs

Men's and women's different needs

In order to ease institutional constraints to achieve policy goals, differences in needs among men and women must be made explicit. For example, differences in men's and women's needs may arise from their different responsibilities in the household, for different crops and tasks. The transport market is one example of an institution that can be gender biased. In Africa, gender differences in transport needs have been studied in some detail and reveal gender bias in transport markets which neglect women's needs. For example, since many women tend to work nearer to home, and they make more trips for educational, health, and other welfare purposes, their transport schedules are more dispersed in time and location. A World Bank study (1996, cited in Elson, Evers and Turner, 1998) shows that transport policies have been geared primarily to the needs of men. Many of the activities with which women are engaged are of low status and are disregarded in resource allocation and planning.

If it is not possible to identify gender differences in needs, then the first step of an institutional analysis should be to conduct a **participatory assessment** in which men and women are equally represented (Modules 7 and 8 provide some guidance on these participatory practices).

Gender differences in the capability to participate in organizations

Women and men have different capabilities to participate in the design and delivery of agricultural policies and services, in community participation schemes, in training schemes, in agricultural markets, in financial markets and in government decision-making bodies.

... different capability to participate in design and implementation of policies and programmes

A gender sensitive institutional assessment needs to ask whether various organizations take these differences into account. For instance:

- are training schemes offered in ways such that women are able to participate and maintain their responsibilities to the household?
- are meetings held at times that both men and women are able to attend?
- do collateral requirements take account of patriarchal property rights?
- do financial organizations take account of the different financial needs of men and women producers?
- what is the gender pattern of take-up in special agricultural credit schemes?
- does the financial infrastructure comprise local savings and credit associations, particularly in rural areas?

Gender based rules and norms in organizations

The organizations which design, deliver and evaluate agricultural programmes often operate according to rules and norms which are gender biased, that is they normally function in ways which prioritise men's needs and viewpoints over those of women. A gender sensitive institutional analysis tries to answer the question: whose perspective is having an impact on important policy decisions? The analysis of each organization needs to:

Gender biases in organizations'

... functioning

... decision-making

- include an evaluation of the structures of decision-making and incentive and reward systems and any gender biases;
- identify important informal networks from which women or men are excluded;
- assess the balance of men and women in decision-making positions in organizations e.g. producer organizations, stakeholder committees, Ministries of Finance and Agriculture, agricultural research institutes.

... culture

Gender bias in the culture of organizations, in their written and unwritten rules and norms, represent a considerable constraint to the implementation of gender equity interventions in all sectors, including agriculture. Changing this culture is a long term process. However, it is possible to take small steps to challenge entrenched gender bias in ways that are considered most appropriate and effective in the particular circumstances.

For example, a gender sensitive institutional assessment of agricultural organizations in Kenya found that decision-making processes were gender biased.

As part of a credible and consistent approach to gender mainstreaming, gender focal points were appointed at all levels of the Ministry of Agriculture to address gender issues.

Box 16 applies a gender sensitive analysis to one particular type of institution, namely labour markets.

Box 16: Gender biases in labour markets

Labour markets are important institutions to analyse, not only because of the increasing importance of non-farm work, but because of the increasing commercialisation of agriculture and the likely further expansion of wage labour in the sector.

An evaluation of rural labour markets should identify any gender inequalities in earnings, wages, hours of work, occupational structure and other relevant trends. For instance, there is a pronounced tendency for women to work in lower productivity agricultural jobs than their male counterparts. In some countries, there is a feminisation of commercial agriculture, especially horticulture.

The important policy questions regarding labour market inequalities are:

- Are there forms of gender bias which hinder the enhancement of food security, rural poverty alleviation and agricultural growth?
- Does the structure of the labour market reflect the most productive and efficient use of women's labour in the sector?

A study by Tzannatos (1999) found that gender bias in labour markets is not only bad for women, but it is bad for the economy. Reducing gender bias in labour markets results in a transfer of resources to women and leads to higher growth.

Source: FAO, 1999.

5.4 CHECKLISTS FOR GENDER SENSITIVE INSTITUTIONAL ANALYSIS

Boxes 17 and 18 provide sample check lists to help assess whether agricultural organizations are gender sensitive and whether the national framework for the agricultural sector's strategy, goals and policies is gender sensitive.

Box 17: Are agricultural organizations gender sensitive?

... In assessing the needs of men and women stakeholders?

- do they consider how men and women producers', traders', labourers' needs differ?
- do they assess the transport and marketing needs associated with export as well as local markets?
- do they take into account the different sub-sectors, crops and tasks of men and women?

... In ensuring gender balance in determining sector priorities, policies and in the provision of services?

What is the gender balance:

- in the composition of the research and policy institutions/committees and in their definition of priorities for agriculture?
- in agricultural services provided at central and decentralised level?

... In providing support networks for men and women employees? producers? traders? wholesalers? retailers?

- Does the organization of work/training programmes take account of the household's child-rearing and childcare, food preparation, and other responsibilities?

...In monitoring and enforcing gender aware policies?

- is there gender balance among agricultural planners, managers?
- what is the gender balance among different stakeholders?
- do enumerators speak directly to women and men in households, on site?

Source: Adapted from Elson and Evers, 1998.

This checklist can form part of a baseline gender analysis of organizations (See Module 6) at the early stage of the policy process and later, as part of the monitoring and evaluation process (See Module 9).

Building more gender equitable organizations is a long term process that depends on the support and participation of women and men across the sector. It is important to demonstrate that this process is not simply one which seeks to benefit one interest group (women) at the expense of another (men) but one which aims to make it more likely that sector objectives will be achieved.

Box 18 uses the macro-meso-micro framework developed in Part II of this Handbook.

Box 18: Checklist for gender sensitive national framework

Macro

- Make the national development context gender-sensitive, by appropriate gender-disaggregation of goals, purpose, outputs, activities, and indicators.
- Formulate the national policy framework with reference to a gender-disaggregated beneficiary assessment. (Module 8)

Meso

Institutional capacity assessment should include:

- Identification of gender focal points in key organizations; the role of the Women's Ministry, if any; the role of women in the Parliamentary Finance Committee (or similar organization).
- Evaluation of gender balance in decision making in key policy making and consultation bodies.
- Gender balance among stakeholders.
- Identification of missing stakeholders: when community organizations are consulted, are both men's and women's voices heard? Do institutional stakeholders represent the interests of individual men and women producers, agricultural workers, consumers of agricultural products?

Micro

- Gender and age divisions within households must be acknowledged.
- Assess gender imbalance within the household: women's and men's decision-making powers; access to household resources (finance, bicycles, cars, carts).
- Does the household operate in an equitable and co-operative manner or are there gender (and age) hierarchies which affect individual's ability to gain access to public and private services?

Source: Adapted from Elson and Evers, 1998.

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III. How to Incorporate Socio-Economic and Gender Analysis into Agricultural Policy and Practice

Module 6

How to Provide a Baseline Gender Analysis for Agriculture

MODULE 6

HOW TO PROVIDE A BASELINE GENDER ANALYSIS FOR AGRICULTURE

PURPOSE

In this Module you will learn:

- How to conduct a baseline gender analysis of the agricultural sector (macro/sectoral level). This will include:
 - How to identify data for the market-oriented economy
 - How to document the unpaid domestic economy using Time Use Surveys
- How to analyse the baseline macro data.
- How to conduct a baseline gender analysis at the micro level.

CONTENTS

- 6.1 Baseline gender analysis at the macro level
- 6.2 Baseline gender analysis at the micro level

6.1 BASELINE GENDER ANALYSIS AT THE MACRO LEVEL

A baseline gender analysis for the agricultural sector should be undertaken as an integral part of formulating a country's National Agricultural Strategy. Such an analysis surveys the current state of the agricultural sector from a gender perspective and makes use of gender-disaggregated data at various levels. This might be done by a gender specialist or a socio-economist working closely with agricultural economists, statisticians and/or other technical experts. The Baseline Gender Analysis of the Agricultural Sector covered in this Module, focuses on two levels: the macro level and the micro level. The Institutional Analysis described in the previous module (Module 5) is an example of a Baseline Gender Analysis at the meso level.

Gender analysis at the policy level

A baseline gender analysis should first look at the macro level, which includes data for the market-oriented and the unpaid, domestic economy (See Module 2). Hence, at the macro level, gender disaggregated data is required for:

- paid *and* unpaid work
- market *and* domestic-oriented work

The baseline gender analysis at the macro level can be divided into three steps:

- Step 1. Provide gender disaggregated data for the market-oriented economy
- Step 2. Document the unpaid domestic economy using Time Use Surveys
- Step 3. Conduct an analysis of the macro-level baseline data

6.1.1 Step one: Data for the market-oriented economy

Sources of data

National agricultural strategy reports normally have a section, which provides summary data on the market-oriented macro economy. Estimates of the value of output and exports for the main sectors and sub-sectors of the economy are usually drawn from the **National Income Accounts** and the **Agricultural Census Data**, which can be a helpful source of gender disaggregated data for agriculture. This should also include gender disaggregated summary data and not simply data for male and female headed households. These can be presented in the format set out in Box 19 (also see Table 1 in Module 2 which presents data for Uganda).

When compiling data for the agricultural sector, it is helpful to include data for the most important sub-sectors/crops. This may include:

- major export crops;
- major food crops;
- those crops/sub-sectors most closely linked to policy objectives of food security, rural poverty alleviation and agricultural growth.

Sector gender intensity

The analysis should identify male intensive sectors, sub-sectors and crops (majority of total labour time contributed by men) and those that are female intensive (majority of total labour time contributed by women). Where comprehensive official data is not available, the gender-intensities of sub-sectors (fishing, forestry, or particular crops) can be estimated using sample **survey data** and local knowledge.

Apart from the Agricultural Census and FAO databases, information is likely to be available from labour force surveys, sectoral studies produced by Departments of Employment and Statistics, and from international organizations such as the ILO and UNDP.

Likely under-counting of women

When collecting gender disaggregated data for the market-oriented macro economy it is critical to note that standard labour force surveys usually undercount women since such surveys capture the formal sector but leave out much of the informal sector where women are concentrated. To get an accurate picture of women’s participation in agricultural activities, it is important to try to supplement official labour force data with data from studies of the informal sector (the references listed at the end of this module give useful guidelines in this respect).

Box 19: Development context: the structure of the market-oriented economy

	Sector share in GDP	Sector share in exports	Gender intensive/employment shares	
	%	%	Male %	Female %
Agriculture				
Food crops				
Of which maize				
Traditional export crops				
Non-traditional export crops				
Of which horticulture				
Fishing				
Forestry				
Industry				
Manufacturing				
Of which agro-processing				
Services				
Government				
Private				

Relevant Sources: National Income Accounts, Balance of Payments Statistics, Labour force Survey, Household Survey, World Bank, ILO, UNDP, NGO and academic surveys.

Source: Adapted from Elson, Evers and Gideon, 1997.

6.1.2 Step two: Documenting the unpaid domestic economy using time use surveys

The relevance of documenting the unpaid domestic economy

A thorough understanding of the national development context involves gathering information on the allocation of *all* resources and not just those that have a market price or are accounted for in official statistics. Obviously this unpaid, unrecognised effort is far more difficult to document. There is very little systematic data on the use of resources in housework, water collection, transport and other activities associated with meeting family and community domestic needs. This type of data is normally not considered important by agricultural or economic planners. However as noted in Module 2, increased time burdens, particularly on women, often represent a constraint to expansion of agricultural output. Much of that burden comes from the unpaid domestic economy. If these activities are ignored by economic planners, this time constraint is not factored in and policies can fail as a

result. In other words, failure to account for the domestic unpaid economy can effectively limit the sustainability and effectiveness of agricultural policy.

**... utilizing
time use
survey data**

One important way to document the unpaid domestic economy is to use time use survey data. The presentation of time use data in the national agricultural strategy provides a way to document the full extent of demands on household resources which include System of National Accounts (SNA) (the marketed economy) and non-SNA activities (unpaid domestic economy). Many rural household surveys fail to record time spent in non-agricultural, or non-market oriented, activities. This is a serious gap. In rural environments, for instance, non-SNA activities can account for up to 24 percent of men's and 62 per cent of women's total working time (UNDP, 1995).³

Time use survey data provide some guidance on the significance of the unpaid domestic economy and the extent to which it relies on inputs from men, women, girls and/or boys. This type of information provides an indication of the extent to which men's and women's time constraints and patterns of time use can hinder or facilitate the achievement of policy goals.

If women and/or men are already working 10-12 hours a day and macroeconomic reforms make more demands on their time (through cuts in expenditure on health, or rural infrastructure and/or through incentives to expand cash crop production) these demands may not be met. Alternatively they may be met at the expense of food security and the well-being of household members.

A particularly important issue is the comparative time-use of children. If girls have to undertake a heavy burden of work to help out in childcare, water collection or other unpaid domestic work, this may jeopardize their schooling and health and re-enforce a vicious cycle of gender gaps in education, high fertility, poor infant and child health and poverty (Elson, Evers and Gideon, 1997).

Time Use Surveys should include:

³ Data on comparative time use of men and women in market and non-market activities, in rural and urban areas, is presented in UNDP, 1995, Human Development Report.

- Total hours worked by men, women, boys and girls.
- Total hours worked in marked-based and unpaid domestic work by men, women, boys and girls.

6.1.3 *Step three: Analysis of the macro level baseline data*

It is not enough just to collect gender disaggregated data for the paid and unpaid macro economy. Data needs to be analysed and interpreted if it is to inform policy.

Suggestions for gender-aware macroeconomic analysis are included in a report for the OECD, DAC/WID (Elson, Evers and Gideon, 1997) which provides useful guidelines for baseline gender analysis of the agricultural sector. The report recommends that the analysis of baseline data for agriculture consider the following:

Basic considerations for the analysis of baseline data for agriculture

- Does the country/region rely on exports which are intensive in the use of female labour?
- If so, an important issue to consider is the extent to which gender distortions and biases constrain women's participation in export production (See Module 2).
- Is new investment directed to crops which are particularly male or female intensive?
- What are the implications of women's participation in export production for the organization of the unpaid domestic economy, and for food security and poverty reduction objectives?
- Are imports of food crops undermining women's income sources?
- Is the country reliant for its food security on crops which are intensive in the use of female labour?
- If so, evaluate the extent to which gender biases in marketing institutions offset or constrain the improvement of the productivity of women's labour in food crop production.
- If food crops and exports are both intensive in the use of female labour, how can the trade-off be resolved? (e.g. by reducing the time constraints faced by women)

6.2 **BASELINE GENDER ANALYSIS AT THE MICRO LEVEL**

Baseline Gender Analysis at the micro level should look *within* households and production units such as farms. Gender disaggregated data should report:

Household and intra-household analysis

- the nature of enterprises and farms: the gender division of labour and ownership, the structure of incentives facing men and women as they work together in production, the jobs hierarchy within enterprises;
- the nature of communities and organizations - the roles that men and women play in community associations for instance;

- the nature of households and gender roles and relations within them.

Households should be considered in the light of bargaining theory (See Module 3, Section 3), as social units which embody conflict as well as co-operation. It is important to look for information on the internal structure of households; for instance, the degree to which they pool and share income and take expenditure decisions jointly (a useful collection of studies covering a number of countries in Asia, Africa and Latin America is Dwyer and Bruce (eds.) (1988)).

In many household structures, there is internal division, with some degree of separation of income streams, budgets and expenditures. It is useful to know the proportion of male headed and female headed households, and the extent to which families are nuclear, extended, polygamous etc. But it is also necessary to enquire about relations within households. Local women's studies research institutes and women's NGOs are often a useful source of information on this point. In addition, quantitative studies are increasingly becoming available from research institutions such as the International Food Policy Research Institute, Washington DC and Centre for Study of African Economics, University of Oxford.

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FAO is at the cutting edge in terms of the providing assistance on the collection and use of gender disaggregated data. Sources include:

FAO (1993). *A Gender Disaggregated data base on human resources in agriculture: Data Requirements and Availability*, FAO, Rome, provides an excellent overview of data availability at international, national and sub-national levels and provides guidance on how to improve data from a gender perspective.

FAO (1999). *Agricultural Censuses and Gender Considerations: Concepts and Methodology*, FAO, Rome.

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Module 7

Participatory Planning and Mainstreaming Gender in Policy Formulation

MODULE 7

PARTICIPATORY PLANNING AND MAINSTREAMING GENDER IN POLICY FORMULATION

PURPOSE

In this Module you will learn:

- What is meant by the term “stakeholder” and why stakeholder participation in planning and policy formulation is important.
- The four phases in the process of gender sensitive participatory agricultural planning and policy formulation.
- How to implement the four phases.
- How to integrate the macro-meso-micro framework approach with the participatory approach.

CONTENTS

- 7.1 Stakeholders in planning and policy formulation
- 7.2 How to promote gender-sensitive participatory planning and policy formulation
- 7.3 Using the macro-meso-micro framework
- 7.4 A holistic approach
- 7.5 Toolkits, exercises and further resources

7.1 STAKEHOLDERS IN PLANNING AND POLICY FORMULATION

Gender-sensitive stakeholders' analysis

Stakeholders are those who affect or are affected by development policies/programmes and projects. In other words they are all those who directly or indirectly stand to gain or lose from a particular development activity. They can be individual men and women, groups of men and women traders or producers for instance, communities, socio-economic groups, policy makers and planners and other governmental and non-governmental staff or organizations. The interests of different stakeholders might conflict while different stakeholders who share the same interests might form partnerships. For example, conflict might arise between pastoralists and crop producers when expansion of cultivated land encroaches on land traditionally used for grazing. A gender-sensitive approach aims to achieve gender balance within and among different stakeholder groups. In assessing conflicts, a gender-sensitive approach takes into account gender differences (within and between categories of stakeholders) in abilities to access resources, participate and have a voice, and respond to incentives.

We can identify three broad types of stakeholder in the context of resource use:

- those who have or need a resource;
- those who are affected by use of a resource by others;
- those who influence decisions about resources.

Gender sensitive approach to participatory planning and policy formulation

Based on the above concepts, “participatory planning and policy formulation” can be defined as: *the process through which all stakeholders are involved in the planning, implementation and monitoring of policies and programmes in a bottom-up approach in which village and community level planning feeds into plans and policies at the district, regional and central level.*

A gender-sensitive approach to participatory planning and policy formulation ensures that “*all stakeholders*” refers to *both* men and women, and men’s and women’s organizations. Stakeholder analysis helps to identify not only the least powerful and least influential groups (e.g. woman-headed households, subsistence producers, landless), but ensures that women’s voices within these groups are heard. Within mixed sex groups, it is women’s voices which are the least likely to be heard and there is need to ensure that their voices are represented in the planning and policy formulation process.

... but not applicable to all policies

This ideal form of participatory planning and policy formulation cannot be applied equally to all policies and institutions. Different policies lend themselves to different degrees of participation and different institutional arrangements for participation. This is particularly true of macroeconomic policies. For example, the macro policy of exchange rate devaluation is not amenable to a participatory approach. If the policy of devaluation was publicly discussed before the devaluation took place this would lead to speculative selling of domestic currency to beat the devaluation, placing strain on the domestic currency and leading to a collapse in its value. Likewise, monetary policies concerned with adjustments in the interest rate are not conducive to a participatory approach. By contrast, fiscal policy aimed at rationalising and/or reducing the expenditure on service provision is particularly suited to a participatory stakeholder approach.

Stakeholder analysis is combined with resources and constraints analysis to highlight the fact that, when planning for change, stakeholders are often asked to invest resources, which involves taking risks. At some point the risk may not be worth the potential outcome for certain stakeholders who will therefore refuse to invest their resources in the programme or project. For instance, in some cases where household food security or children’s well-being may be compromised, women are less likely than their male counterparts to invest time in production for the market; or women have been shown to be more likely to pay for water than their husbands. Hence, identifying and including women as well as men stakeholders helps to ensure that agricultural policies and plans are realistic.

Proposed activities that are based on resources that are not available (women’s time), or require a response from stakeholders facing constraints (women’s weak access to productive resources) or are based on goals that are deeply contentious (expansion of male-managed cash crops) are likely to fail. On the other hand,

identifying existing partnerships and networks, or creating new ones between stakeholders who share common interests, is a good starting point for development planning. By identifying both partnerships and possible conflicts using a participatory stakeholder approach it is possible to identify ways to resolve conflict, reach consensus and build commitment. The ideal form of participatory planning and policy formulation will not be immediately achievable in every country. Moving towards it essentially involves a gradual process as attitudes and capabilities begin to change. Some of the necessary steps in this process are outlined below.

7.2 HOW TO PROMOTE GENDER-SENSITIVE PARTICIPATORY PLANNING AND POLICY FORMULATION

Phased approach to gender-sensitive participatory planning and policy formulation

The process of gender sensitive participatory planning and policy formulation in the agricultural sector can be split into four phases:

- Phase 1: Orientation
- Phase 2: Preliminary stakeholder consultations
- Phase 3: In-depth sub-sectoral reviews
- Phase 4: Formulating policies and plans

The gender disaggregated data collection and gender analysis (Module 6) and capacity building for gender equality (Module 5) activities feed into the first four phases. Completion of phase 4 is followed by budgeting (Module 8) and monitoring and evaluation (Module 9).

The outcomes of the entire process from data collection to monitoring and evaluation should be:

- analysis and understanding of women's role in the agricultural sector;
- improvement in institutional capacities to reduce gender inequalities;
- selection of goals and priority objectives of a policy which benefits rural women as well as rural men;
- preparation of a strategy, including detailed reforms, to benefit women and the least powerful stakeholders which is consistent with the country's overall agricultural policy;
- mobilisation of financial support for the strategy;
- on-going improvement of the strategy.

7.2.1 Phase one: Orientation

This consists of three steps:

- institutional clarification;
- preliminary analysis;
- preparation of a workplan.

Institutional clarification

A lead institution needs to be selected and the most obvious choice is the Ministry responsible for the agricultural sector. However, as addressing the needs of rural women crosses institutional boundaries, it is necessary to identify partners and define the interests and expectations of all these other government structures and to define their mandate and the scope of their activities.

Preliminary analysis

In addition to detailed gender disaggregated data and its use for the in-depth sub-sectoral reviews of Phase Three, a preliminary analysis of the baseline situation is necessary. In addition to using gender analysis to sketch the roles of and constraints facing women in agriculture it should also summarise what has been and is being done to promote gender equality in agriculture, who has undertaken these activities and their outcomes. This is a necessary **precondition** for the formulation of new policies. It helps identify what has been tried in the past, the resources required, the constraints faced and the outcomes. This makes it easier to identify existing priorities and objectives and avoids duplication or the repetition of past mistakes. The analysis should also assess, using the micro-meso-macro framework, how the broader goals of the country's agricultural and macroeconomic policy, such as exchange rate devaluation to promote agricultural exports, are affected by, and affect women's time constraints, gender bias in access to resources and gender bias of public institutions and markets, etc. The results of the preliminary analysis should be presented in the form of a **succinct orientation document**.

Preparation of a workplan

The workplan should state the broad provisional objectives of mainstreaming gender in agricultural policy and provide a plan of work specifying tasks, completion dates and responsibility for tasks.

7.2.2 Phase two: Preliminary stakeholder consultations

Achieving consensus

The aim of this phase is to achieve consensus on the main gender-based constraints to the achievement of agricultural policies. This means identifying constraints and needs facing rural women and prioritising areas of intervention in light of policy objectives. Many such areas of intervention will be at the sub-sectoral level, e.g. land policy, credit policy, extension policy and this will form the basis of the in-depth studies to be carried out in Phase Three. It is important at this stage to be aware that not everything can be achieved at once and that it is essential to rank priorities using a gender equitable, participatory process. These priorities should reflect the general strategy for the agricultural sector as a whole. For example, consider how the policies designed to promote high yielding improved food crops or irrigated agriculture can be made more gender-sensitive, e.g. take account of gender based constraints and opportunities which have been made clear in earlier phases of the process.

Achieving consensus is a time-consuming process in which a diverse group of men and women stakeholders should be involved in information sharing and dialogue. At this stage detailed policies and interventions will not have been drawn up so it is impossible to identify all stakeholders at the field level. Nevertheless, it is critical at this early stage to ensure that stakeholders with specific knowledge of the

activities and priorities of rural women are represented. Such an approach will not only ensure all stakeholder needs and abilities are taken into account, but also that the stakeholders will enjoy a sense of ownership and responsibility for the process and the policies it yields.

... through the establishment of a Steering and Co-ordinating Committee

One strategy towards this end might be to establish a **Steering and Co-ordinating Committee** chaired by the lead Ministry responsible for agriculture. Such a Committee might include members who are representatives of:

- Relevant central government structures such as the Ministry responsible for Women's or Gender affairs, the Ministry responsible for agriculture, the country's planning and finance Ministries.
- All relevant decentralised government structures such as Regional and District Councils, District Branches of the Ministry of Agriculture and their field staff - ensuring that rural women's interests are specifically represented.
- Key politicians such as the Ministers for Agriculture, Finance and Planning or their representatives.
- Representatives of NGOs, including those which have knowledge of gender issues in rural areas
- Representatives of international aid agencies, ensuring there is at least one gender sector specialist.
- Representatives of men's and women's producers groups and rural organizations such as marketing co-operatives or private traders' organizations.

It is essential that women's voices are represented and legitimised in this process and to ensure that all stakeholders are represented on the Committee without creating a large unwieldy structure. One way to achieve this is to select committee members to liaise closely with the groups and individuals they represent with a two-way flow of information in order to initiate a decentralised participatory procedure.

It should be noted that the Steering Committee structure mentioned above and at certain following points in this module is not something necessarily prescribed or imposed, but that different structures may be appropriate according to specific contexts. The important feature of any structure is that it establishes vertical as well as horizontal linkages.

7.2.3 Phase three: In-depth sub-sectoral reviews

In-depth studies

Phases One and Two of the participatory planning and policy formulation process identified key constraints and priority areas for action. The purpose of Stage Three is to carry out detailed studies of each priority area. These studies will identify the nature of the problem, its causes and possible solutions including their resource implications. Ideally, they should be conducted by multidisciplinary teams, which assess the economic, political, legal and social dimensions of each problem. The team should use a decentralised participatory approach throughout, using a series of focus groups, consultations, meetings, and debates with members of the Steering

Committee (if that is the structure chosen) and the stakeholders they represent. Box 20 gives a brief hypothetical example.

Box 20: In-depth sub-sectoral review of irrigation

In Phases One and Two, Country X has identified irrigation as a priority area for intervention. The macro strategy is to boost agricultural exports through the promotion of irrigated agriculture. Women producers, in female and male-headed rural households, are largely responsible for key food and non-traditional agricultural export crops.

However, Phases One and Two of the sub-sectoral review found there was a disappointing uptake of irrigation facilities. This may be due to the failure to consider gender issues in the development context when designing irrigation projects.

Hence, in Phase Three an in-depth gender analysis of the irrigation sub-sector is needed. This will help identify constraints and the types of policy changes and interventions necessary for the success of the national macro policy.

The SEAGA Irrigation Sector Guide (FAO 2001) provides an excellent template for such a study based on case studies using participatory rural appraisal techniques.

There will be considerable overlap and synergy between the sub-sectors. For example, gender constraints in irrigation, credit markets and land will almost certainly overlap. Irrigation projects, for instance, may fail because women producers in the catchment area do not have security of land tenure and the access to credit, which might be necessary for them to participate. There are thus certain benefits in maintaining a flexible and open approach when conducting sub-sectoral reviews so that the linkages and causal relationships between sub-sectors can be acknowledged and analysed.

7.2.4. Phase four: Formulating policies and programmes

The results of the sub-sector studies should be summarised in a **synthesis document**, which outlines key policies and programmes to achieve policy objectives. This should contain a list of:

**Synthesis
document
with
prioritised
actions**

- prioritised actions;
- a demarcation of responsibilities;
- a time-table for action;
- investments needed;
- related projects already underway;
- projects to be developed; and
- quantifiable objectives

Areas of action should cover social, economic, legal, political and institutional spheres. Prioritised actions may have different time frames: some might be aimed at meeting immediate needs, for example a micro credit project for women in a specific region, others might focus on longer-term needs, for example reforming land legislation to give women better security of tenure. The exact series of actions and interventions will be country specific.

Box 21 provides examples of some of the likely areas for action/intervention. Once the synthesis document has been agreed upon it should function as a document to help mobilise the necessary resources to support the agreed upon policies and programmes.

**Project
design**

Once priority actions and projects have been identified in the synthesis document, line agencies will have responsibility for the detailed design of individual projects which together make up an agriculture sector programme. The SEAGA Field Handbook (FAO, 2001) gives guidance on this at the micro level by showing how to identify and meet village level needs through a participatory approach to project design. Other project design guides for the agricultural sector are reported in the references. It is essential that in the refinement and design of specific projects and interventions stakeholder analysis is conducted. This involves addressing the following questions:

- What do different groups of men and women have at stake?
- Are there gender-based differences among and within stakeholder groups?
- What are the resources and constraints facing different groups of men and women stakeholders?
- What are the potential development benefits of activities which reduce gender inequalities?
- How will potential interventions affect livelihood strategies of different categories of men and women stakeholders?
- How can each group of stakeholders help or hinder proposed change?
- How can conflicts between men and women stakeholders be addressed?
- How can shared priorities/partnerships be exploited for development?

Box 21: Different spheres for action on gender equality

In the **legislative** sphere, revise legislation to improve gender equalities. This may involve:

- formal recognition of men and women as producers and household heads in their own right;
- changes in land laws to improve women's access to, and control and ownership of and responsibility towards land;
- changes to regulations and procedures to improve gender equality in access to financial services;
- changes in laws affecting women's capacity to enter into business contracts;
- formal recognition of women's rights to membership of professional and agricultural organizations and trade unions;
- changes in inheritance laws to strengthen the position of widows.

In the **economic** sphere, improving gender equality in access to resources such as:

- research and extension by redesigning their content and delivery;
- investment goods to meet women's needs as producers, traders and prime carers in the household;
- irrigation by taking account of women's and men's different needs and constraints;
- financial services;
- land including rehabilitated, developed and irrigated land;
- training and technical skills.

In the **institutional** sphere:

- improve women's access to markets and marketing institutions;
- strengthen and legitimise women's voice in rural organizations (e.g. farmer's clubs, marketing co-operatives, irrigation management committees) through the formation of women's groups and/or by strengthening women's role and legitimacy in existing institutions.

In the **political** sphere:

- strengthen gender-equality in decision-making at all levels from grassroots community groups to central government Ministries, for example through training projects to develop women's participatory and decision making skills and to improve the gender-sensitivity of men's management skills;
- strengthen women's participation in decision-making in ongoing development programmes and projects;
- sensitise politicians to the need for gender mainstreaming.

**Monitoring
the
implement-
ation of
policies**

Policy implementation will involve overall co-ordination by the Steering Committee chaired by the Ministry of Agriculture. Its role at this stage will be to:

- ensure co-ordination between all implementing parties and assign responsibilities between different government structures and NGOs;
- ensure exchange of information between all parties;
- facilitate the revision and passage of legislation and ensuring that all parties concerned apply the relevant measures (it is essential that the study, revision and modification of regulations and laws be carried out early in the work plan);
- monitor the implementation of policy to ensure timetables are met;
- ensure transparency of actions and decisions.

Box 22 provides an example of mainstreaming gender in a participatory planning process in Costa Rica.

More on monitoring policies can be found in FAO (2003).

Box 22: Gender and participation in agricultural development planning: A case study from Costa Rica

Women play an important role in Costa Rican agriculture, producing basic grains for food security, carrying out harvesting and post harvesting activities on other crops and providing paid labour in non-traditional export crops.

In 1996 the project “Support to Women in Rural Areas within the Framework of a Gender Approach” was launched in Costa Rica with FAO support. Its objective was to incorporate gender dimensions into the current sector policy, programmes and activities which focused on modernization, commercialisation and decentralization, and to identify and remove the constraints to women’s participation in the agricultural reform process. A Gender Unit in the Mixed Farming and Sector Planning Executive served as the lead institution in the project and a Steering Committee, namely the Gender Planning Committee, was formed.

A key component of the project was *training of human resources* at all levels. This involved three types of training: sensitising participants regarding gender inequalities; providing a series of tools to help incorporate gender into development projects; and training on how to devise development strategies from a gender perspective. The generation of gender disaggregated data supported the training component.

The second key component was the *strengthening of grassroots groups and training of women leaders*. Through participatory diagnosis women in the pilot area used grassroots groups to identify their problems, needs, resources and potential. Each Canton group in the pilot area then prepared an action plan and these plans were synthesized into priority actions and funding requirements with the help of a facilitator.

The third key component was to *incorporate gender policies* into the overall guidelines for the agricultural sector. Over 30 documents were revised including the National Development Plan and the Strategic Guidelines for Agriculture. This process drew upon the outcomes of the other two components of the project and was highly participatory, involving workshops and consultation with farming groups and associations, regional technical personnel, government ministries, NGOs, municipal officials, extension workers and grassroots groups. An outcome of this component was the preparation of strategic guidelines to incorporate a gender approach into sector policy.

Source: FAO (1997).

7.3 USING THE MACRO-MESO-MICRO FRAMEWORK

In addition to the sub-sectoral studies, the formulation of policies and plans should draw upon the macro-meso-micro framework. As shown in Module 2, macro policies can fail or have unintended effects if the meso and micro development context is ignored when devising policy. Two approaches can be taken to correct this:

- interventions can be devised at the sub-sectoral level to address gender constraints and needs in a manner that improves the sector's response to macro policies such as devaluation, trade liberalisation or market privatisation;
- the macro level policies themselves can be revised.

The latter option may seem radical but it is sometimes necessary and the Steering and Co-ordinating Committee should be mindful of this. For example, if a policy of output market privatisation is being pursued, possibly through the dismantling of a state marketing board, this may have unintended effects. Private traders may fail to fill the marketing gap in remote areas populated by resource-poor producers (many of whom will be women) or, more generally, may be reluctant to deal with women producers. This may have negative effects in terms of poverty, regional balance or food security. Although it would not be sensible to abandon completely the privatisation programme and return to a monopsonistic (single buyer) and often inefficient state marketing system, the liberalisation policy may need to be modified. A more gradualist approach to privatisation may be needed, with a state presence maintained whilst finance and transport facilities are developed for private traders, infrastructure is developed in remote areas and legal and social barriers to women's participation in private agricultural markets are modified.

Although mainstreaming gender in agricultural planning and policy usually takes place within a given macro policy context, it is sometimes necessary to reconsider these macro policies in view of the development context. It is important to remember that although agricultural liberalisation and privatisation policies often focus on maximizing economic efficiency, policy makers usually have other objectives, including poverty alleviation, food security, regional balance and promoting the participation of marginalized groups. Moreover, these objectives are rarely independent.

7.4 A HOLISTIC APPROACH

Although we have discussed the requirements of mainstreaming gender in agricultural planning and policy formulation it is important to realise that what happens in the agricultural sector is influenced by, and itself influences, policies and events outside of agriculture. The Steering Committee should focus its efforts on agriculture but it might also need to lobby other government ministries and organizations to obtain changes in other related areas such as:

- improvements in girls and women's education and technical training;

- promotion of off-farm income generating activities for women and marginalized groups;
- improved access to social services, particularly rural health care;
- recognition of the interdependence of the productive and domestic spheres by addressing the needs of the unpaid domestic economy in social policy and in physical infrastructure;
- improved provision of rural infrastructure to meet the market and domestic needs of women, especially transport.

7.5 TOOLKITS, EXERCISES AND FURTHER RESOURCES

7.5.1 Tools and exercises

The SEAGA Intermediate and Field Training Manuals contain tools and exercises on stakeholder analysis on resources and constraints analysis and stakeholder conflict and partnership which can be adapted to the macro level.

7.5.2 Resources

FAO (1995), Development Policy and Strategy for the Benefit of Rural Women, on which much of Section 2 is based, discusses in more detail how to mainstream gender issues into agricultural policy and planning. It is divided into three parts: analysis of the situation; operational guidelines; and a useful list of “dos and don’ts”.

FAO (1999), Participation and Information: The Key to Gender-responsive Agricultural Policy, provides a brief introduction to the nature of agricultural planning and how to make it both more participatory and more gender responsive.

Sen, G. (2000), “Gender Mainstreaming in Finance Ministries”, *World Development*, Vol. 28, No. 7, pp. 1379-1390. This paper shows three possible entry points for incorporating gender in the work of Ministries of Finance: (i) macroeconomic management, including the annual government budget; (ii) structural reforms, including liberalisation, privatisation and de-regulation and; (iii) micro-credit in the context of financial liberalisation. Sen’s work introduces valuable arguments for mainstreaming gender into macro-level policy in the agricultural sector.

Gender and Development: Plan of Action, (2002-2007), outlines FAO’s own plan of action to integrate women into all its development activities.

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FAO (1986). *Guide for Training in the Formulation of Agricultural and Rural Investment Projects*.

Other Projects guides for investment projects can be found in the FAO Web page: <http://www.fao.org/tc/tci/resource.htm>

III. How to Incorporate Socio-Economic and Gender Analysis into Agricultural Policy and Practice

Module 8

How to Improve Budgeting to Incorporate Gender Concerns

MODULE 8

HOW TO IMPROVE BUDGETING TO INCORPORATE GENDER CONCERNS

PURPOSE

In this Module you will learn:

- How to conduct a gender sensitive policy-strategy-programme appraisal.
- How to produce gender aware budget statements.
- How to carry out a beneficiary assessment of service delivery.
- About public expenditure benefit incidence analysis and public revenue incidence analysis.
- How to analyse the impact of the budget on time use.
- The importance of public expenditure reviews.

CONTENTS

- 8.1 Introduction
- 8.2 Gender-sensitive policy appraisal
- 8.3 Gender aware budget statements
- 8.4 Beneficiary assessments of service delivery
- 8.5 Public expenditure benefit incidence analysis
- 8.6 Public revenue incidence analysis
- 8.7 Analysis of the impact of the budget on time use
- 8.8 Public expenditure review
- 8.9 Resources

8.1 INTRODUCTION

Improving the effectiveness and efficiency of resources to agriculture involves strengthening the links between policy priorities, budgets, implementation and monitoring of policy outcomes. The process of integrating gender into budgeting can facilitate mainstreaming, strengthen accountability mechanisms and provide useful information for the evaluation and monitoring of agricultural programmes.

Gender aware budget analysis

The budget process provides a potential focal point for ensuring that general commitments to supporting gender equity are matched by adequate finance to achieve such commitments. It is also important that appropriate gender-specific financial indicators are incorporated into the monitoring process so that expenditure, output and outcomes for gender equity can be consistently and periodically tracked.

It takes time to build up a data base and the expertise to undertake gender aware budget analysis. Tools for gender analysis of budgets have been implemented in a number of countries. These include South Africa, Australia, Sri Lanka, Barbados, St. Kitts and Nevis and Fiji under the Commonwealth Gender Budget Initiative. Nigeria and Bangladesh have also undertaken gender-sensitive budget initiatives and information on these can be found through the UNDP and/or UNIFEM Web sites listed at the end of this Module.

Expenditure devoted to capacity building in the sector should specifically incorporate items to fund the effective use of these tools (See Module 5).

Although the tools presented in this Module have been adapted to take into consideration the concerns and priorities of policy makers and planners, they will require further refinements to take account of particular country circumstances. Furthermore, the choice of the most appropriate tools is best made through consultation between local technical staff, gender specialists and men and women stakeholders. The different tools make use of different types of expertise and data and are relevant at different stages of the policy process. The rest of this Module introduces seven tools that can be used to help incorporate gender into the budgeting process.

8.2 GENDER-SENSITIVE POLICY APPRAISAL

The Gender-Sensitive Policy Appraisal tool aims to answer the question: how is the agricultural strategy, its projects and programmes, and associated resource allocations likely to reduce or increase gender inequalities in the agricultural sector?

It is especially important that the Gender-Sensitive Policy Appraisal is completed at the formulation stages of the policy process. It is advisable that government policy and operational staff and FAO counterparts consult with stakeholder groups which have a good understanding of gender issues in the country/region. In particular, women producers' and traders organizations and gender-sensitive NGOs can provide useful feedback on the effects of agricultural policies on gender inequalities.

To reduce the time and resources needed, the Appraisal can form a substantial component of the Baseline Gender Analysis (Module 6) and the formulation of a National Agricultural Strategy Report (Module 7).

Gender sensitive policy appraisal consists of three steps:

<p>Evaluate</p> <p><i>... how agricultural sector policies and programmes impact on gender equality</i></p>	<p>Step One: Evaluate <i>how</i> the agricultural sector policies, strategies and programmes with their patterns of resource allocations are likely to reduce or increase gender equalities in agriculture e.g., through changes in:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ access to productive resources; ▪ time women spend collecting water, fuel, in transporting self/goods/children; ▪ men’s and women’s rights to access and use of land; ▪ productivity/ time spent in weeding, food processing, etc.; ▪ production of food crops.
<p><i>... integration of gender equality objectives in policy</i></p>	<p>Step Two: Evaluate how gender equality objectives are integrated into policy, sector strategies, programmes and projects, and what are the associated resource allocations needed for gender equality in:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ policy assistance, sector and sub-sector reviews and capacity building; ▪ investments in agriculture and the rural sector; ▪ special programmes such as the Programme for Food Security; ▪ resource mobilisation and gender inclusion in project cycle; ▪ assisting and strengthening collaboration with civil society organizations specialised in gender and aimed at rural women.
<p><i>... contribution of gender equality priorities and budget allocations to objectives</i></p>	<p>Step Three: Identify how gender equality priorities and associated budget allocations are expected to contribute to overall programme objectives such as:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ increased agricultural productivity and growth; ▪ food security; ▪ rural poverty alleviation.

8.3 GENDER AWARE BUDGET STATEMENTS

A Gender Aware Budget Statement allows to look retrospectively at how expenditure has contributed to increasing and/or reducing gender inequalities. It can provide useful information for the Baseline Gender Analysis (See Module 6). It can also provide indicators that can be extracted to be used in the monitoring process (See Module 9).

<p>Has public expenditure contributed to increase or reduce gender inequality?</p>	<p>The Gender Aware Budget Statement can take the form of a summary report by government which evaluates the extent to which gender and equity objectives in agriculture have been achieved. The report can include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ a summary statement from all line directors/project managers on the extent to which the gender objectives, as set out in the operational plans, were achieved; ▪ a list of expenditure on priority outputs;
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- a summary discussion of programme outcomes specifically related to gender priorities for agriculture.

The list of outputs might include the following items of expenditure, given as a percentage of the total budget and disaggregated by gender:

- training of women and agricultural extension workers;
- research into male and female -managed crops;
- subsidized credit to poor women and men producers;
- training on gender sensitisation of line/project managers/service delivery personnel;
- expenditure on irrigation for female-managed and male-managed crops;
- expenditure on male-defined priorities; on female-defined priorities (this can be identified from participatory Beneficiary Assessments).

A list of gender priority outcomes may include the following:

- gender equity in rules governing land ownership/use and property rights-gender balance in land ownership/use and property rights;
- increased output; productivity in men's crops and women's crops;
- gender equality in time burdens of men and women in rural areas;
- gender equality in nutritional outcomes within households;
- gender equality in participation in stakeholder groups;
- improved gender equality in numbers of female and male agricultural extension workers; Ministry of Agriculture managers; researchers in agricultural institutes.

8.4 BENEFICIARY ASSESSMENTS OF SERVICE DELIVERY

Are budget allocations and outputs consistent with women's and men's priorities?

Beneficiary Assessments of Service Delivery assesses the views of women and men on the extent to which budget allocations and associated outputs are consistent with their priorities. For instance, it may seek the views of women and men stakeholders on whether current delivery of extension services, research, marketing institutions and infrastructure, information, support for rural households etc. meet their needs and are consistent with their priorities. Questions can focus on the overall priorities for public spending or on the details of the operation of particular public services.

Field and micro level beneficiary assessments can be used in this process. This may require managers and administrators in field offices to channel information to the centralised policy units. It is important to ensure the views of men *and* women, especially among the poorest households, are sought. The SEAGA Field Handbook gives guidance on conducting household surveys and focus group discussions for this purpose.

Sources of data and information that might be used for a Beneficiary Assessment of Service Delivery might include:

- survey data such as the agricultural census;
- small surveys;
- gender disaggregated data bases;
- focus group qualitative needs assessments.

8.5 PUBLIC EXPENDITURE BENEFIT INCIDENCE ANALYSIS

How is public expenditure distributed across different populations?

Public Expenditure Benefit Incidence Analysis calculates the distribution of public expenditure across different populations: e.g. rural women and men; urban women and men. It can help to assess the extent to which different categories of men and women benefit from public expenditure.

In practice, estimating expenditure and men's and women's use of, or benefit from, a given service is complicated and data-intensive. Where there are particular types of public expenditure for which it would be useful to have gender disaggregated benefits incidence, it should be recommended that this data be included in the Agricultural Census.

Public expenditure incidence can be calculated by estimating the expenditure on a given service or set of services over the financial year and dividing it by beneficiaries of the service. Beneficiaries might consist of different stakeholders or users of the service. They may also include employees or workers financed by the public. For instance, public sector incidence analysis of expenditure within the Ministry of Agriculture is likely to show a far higher distribution towards urban men than rural women, particularly when salary differentials are taken into account.

When conducting a public expenditure benefit incidence analysis some of the issues that need to be addressed can be revealed by doing this simple exercise:

- is there a Women in Development (WID) programme in your country? If so, estimate beneficiary incidence according to employment in the projects (expenditure per employee, taking account of gender differences in salaries and wages) and service or investment beneficiaries (taking account of number of men and women, boys and girls who are likely to benefit from the project expenditure). (If no WID programme exists, try this exercise using another programme);
- consider how you would estimate benefits incidence for expenditure on other programme items;
- what useful information can be obtained from such estimates?
- consider the strengths and limitations of this exercise.

Assessing beneficiary incidence needs to take into account:

- expenditure;
- utilisation;
- need.

The first stage is to analyse expenditure for a given output, say agricultural extension. The next stage is to estimate the number of beneficiaries that have made use of the services provided. This needs to be disaggregated by sex in order to estimate the gender patterns in the distribution of public expenditure. Alternatively, one could estimate expenditure on services known to be of most value to women (research on women's crops for instance) and compare it to expenditure on services known to be of most value to men (research on men's crops for instance).

Once the calculations have been made, the results need to be analysed and interpreted. For instance, in view of the huge literacy gap between men and women and many rural areas:

- gender equitable outcomes on education need a larger share of expenditure going to girls' education than boys, at least temporarily, in order for the literacy of girls to catch up to that of boys;
- if expenditure on education going to boys is equal to that of girls, one could say that the pattern of expenditure was maintaining gender inequalities in that the gap was not being narrowed;
- if expenditure on boys is higher than on girls, then the pattern of expenditure is increasing gender inequalities.

The UNDP and Commonwealth Secretariat web sites offer practical guidance on conducting pro-poor, gender-sensitive Beneficiary Incidence Analysis. See Resources listed at the end of this chapter.

8.6 PUBLIC REVENUE INCIDENCE ANALYSIS

How are the revenues and other form of cost recovery distributed between men and women?

Public Revenue Incidence Analysis is a tool which measures the distribution (e.g. by gender) of the burden of government revenue raising strategies. Taxation, user charges and other forms of cost recovery can have different impacts on men and women and men and women within different regions.

The analysis needs to focus on two types of data:

- gender differences in the **price elasticity of demand*** for certain services in different regions (which determines the incidence of a tax);
- the distribution of the burden of payment between men and women across regions.

8.7 ANALYSIS OF THE IMPACT OF THE BUDGET ON TIME USE

How do different public resource allocations impact time use in the households?

Analysis of the impact of the budget on time use is helpful for inter-sectoral programmes or to analyse the overall effects of budget changes. Changes in government resource allocation have impacts on the way in which time is spent in households. Evaluation of the net effects on time use can help to identify areas where policies in one sector (health for example) are linked to and can have positive spillover effects or trade-offs in another sector (such as agriculture) (UNIFEM, 2000).

Cuts in some forms of public expenditure are likely to increase the amount of time that women have to spend in unpaid care work for their families and communities in order to make up for lost public services. For instance, evidence shows that cuts in health expenditure tend to increase men's and especially women's time looking after sick children and reduces the time men and especially women are able to spend in cash crop production. When cuts are proposed, the question should be asked: is this likely to increase the time that men and women spend on unpaid domestic activities? This type of analysis requires intra-household time use data. Use of case study material can be helpful.

8.8 PUBLIC EXPENDITURE REVIEW

Gender analysis in public expenditure review

In some countries, gender concerns are being integrated into the Public Expenditure Review (PER) process to raise awareness of gender issues within the public sector and to broaden the base of participation in the budgetary process while, at the same time, strengthening the management and accountability of public expenditure. This is rather ambitious, nevertheless, it represents a way to raise awareness of budget allocations and improve the transparency of public expenditure. The budget process provides a forum to raise issues of public resource allocation in ways that can be accessible to men's and women's producers and traders organizations and men and women from community organizations, which are normally excluded from discussions of public expenditure. As a mechanism of accountability, it has the potential to be used in supporting advocacy for better agricultural services and good governance.

8.9 RESOURCES

This module draws on the work of Budlender, Sharp and Allen (1998); Elson (1999) and UNIFEM (2000) listed in the references at the end of the Module. The Commonwealth Secretariat and the UNDP and UNIFEM Web sites offer practical guidance on implementing gender-sensitive budget practices.

8.9.1 Further resources

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Demery, L. *et al.* (1995), *The Incidence of Social Spending in Ghana*, PSP Discussion Paper No.82, World Bank, Washington, DC.

Commonwealth Secretariat: The Commonwealth Secretariat has a portfolio of resources on gender and budgets, gender mainstreaming and the integration of gender into macroeconomic activities: contact www.thecommonwealth.org and click on “gender”.

Sen, G. (2000), “Gender Mainstreaming in Finance Ministries”, *World Development*, Vol. 28, No. 7, pp. 1379-1390. This paper shows three possible entry points for incorporating gender in the work of Ministries of Finance: (i) macroeconomic management, including the annual government budget; (ii) structural reforms, including liberalisation, privatisation and de-regulation and; (iii) micro-credit in the context of financial liberalisation. Sen’s work introduces valuable arguments for mainstreaming gender into macro-level policy in the agricultural sector.

Stotsky, J. (1996) *Gender Bias in Tax Systems*, IMF Fiscal Affairs Department, *IMF Working Paper WP/96/99*, September. Provides a description of direct and indirect gender-bias in systems of taxation.

UNDP: The UNDP (United Nations Development Fund) Web sites provides resources, country-specific studies and practical guidance on gender-sensitive, pro-poor budgets as well as helpful links to related studies and analytical reports. This can be found at various locations of the UNDP Web sites:

Home page: www.undp.org From here link to Poverty, then to Gender
www.sdn.undp.org/genderlinks
www.undp.org/poverty

UNIFEM: The UNIFEM Web sites contains practical and analytical resources on gender-sensitive budgets. Chapter 5 of *Progress of the World’s Women* “Accountability for the Progress of Women: Women Demanding Action” contains useful information on gender budgets. This is available on-line from the Home Page: www.undp.unifem.org
or directly to: <http://www.undp.org/unifem/progressww/2000/chap5.pdf>.

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III. How to Incorporate Socio-Economic and Gender Analysis into Agricultural Policy and Practice

Module 9

How to Improve the Monitoring and Evaluation of Gender Components of Agricultural Programmes?

MODULE 9

HOW TO IMPROVE THE MONITORING AND EVALUATION OF GENDER COMPONENTS OF AGRICULTURAL PROGRAMMES?

PURPOSE

In this Module you will learn:

- The purpose of monitoring and evaluation (M&E).
- How to monitor gender objectives in agricultural programmes by linking inputs to outputs, impacts, outcomes and programme goals.
- The types of quantitative and qualitative indicators necessary for the above process.
- How to build support for better monitoring and evaluation.

CONTENTS

- 9.1 Introduction
- 9.2 Monitoring gender objectives in agricultural programmes
- 9.3 Evaluation
- 9.4 Building support for better monitoring and evaluation
- 9.5 Exercises

9.1 INTRODUCTION

Monitoring and evaluation are mechanisms that serve several purposes. Among them are:

Why monitoring and evaluation

- strengthening accountability to ensure that programmes and the policies that support them are implemented effectively and resources are allocated appropriately;
- providing feedback into the policy process to refine policy and implementation to improve its effectiveness, efficiency, sustainability and equity.

The monitoring and evaluation of the gender components of agricultural programmes at the macro level should be complemented by a gender-sensitive approach to management of the day to day activities of agricultural organizations at the field and intermediate levels. This module focuses on the monitoring and

evaluation of gender objectives which have been identified in the programme documents.

9.2 MONITORING GENDER OBJECTIVES IN AGRICULTURAL PROGRAMMES

A central characteristic of gender mainstreaming has been the “evaporation problem” where gender-sensitive strategy and policy statements evaporate by the time they get to the operational stage of a project or programme. There are no simple solutions to this problem. However, an important first step is to link policy and strategies with clearly identifiable:

- inputs;
- outputs;
- resource allocations;
- expected outcomes and their relationship to policy goals.

Figure 1 provides a schematic representation of this process. The components of this process should be reported along with all other programme elements (an agricultural programme is a set of projects designed to achieve the goals of the sector strategy).

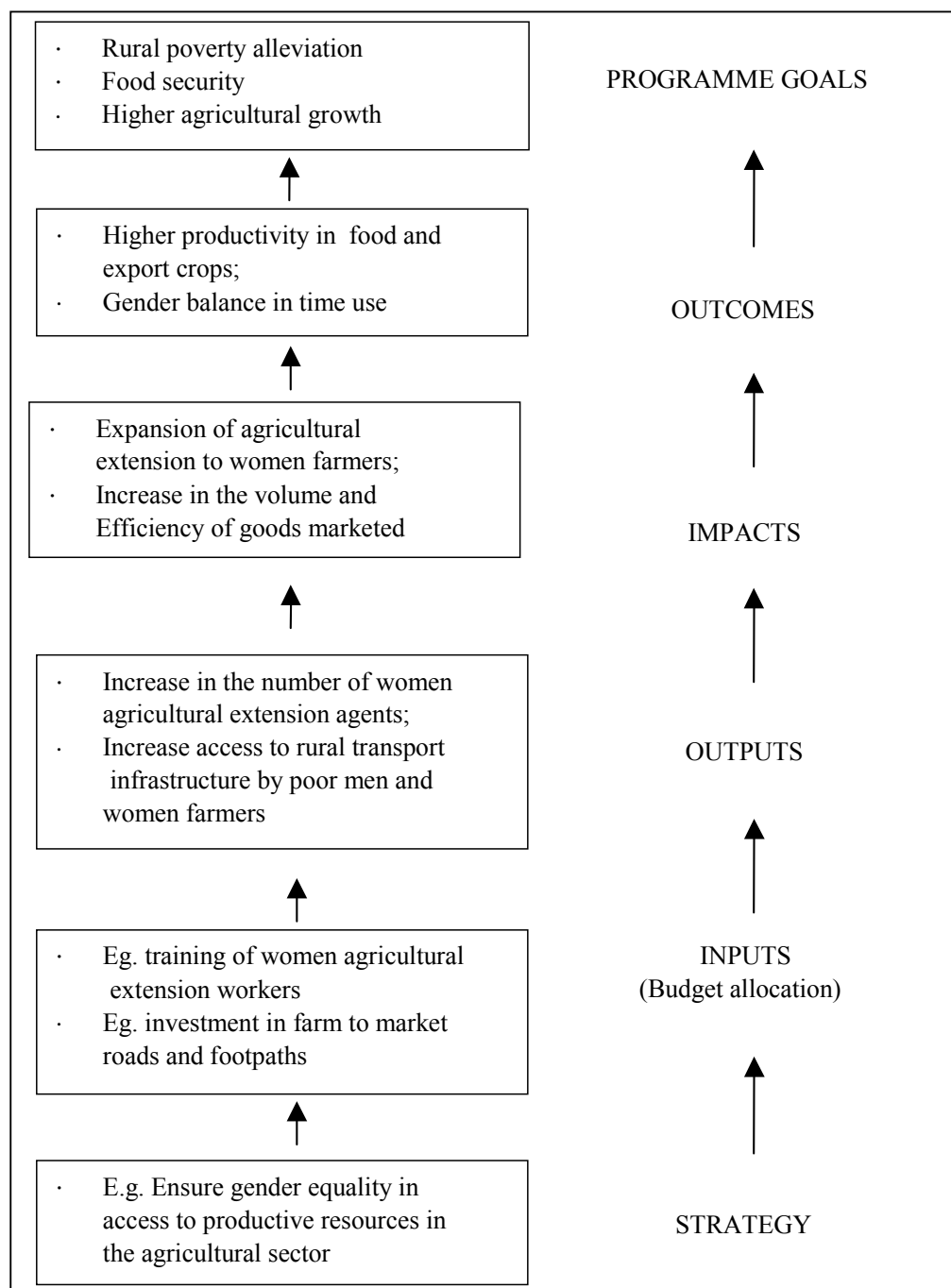
Monitoring an agricultural programme requires the development of a system of **gender-aware budgeting**, with gender-sensitive specification of the expected outputs and impacts (See Module 8). This requires the use of gender-sensitive performance indicators in the financial and management information system.

It is important to make explicit expectations about the **links** from:

- inputs (training; investment);
- to outputs (more women agricultural extension agents; better transport systems);
- to impacts (expansion of agricultural extension to women producers; increase in the volume and efficiency of goods marketed);
- to outcomes (higher productivity in agriculture; higher farmer incomes);
- leading to programme objectives: rural poverty alleviation; food security; agricultural growth.

Figure 1 provides examples of indicators to be used to monitor different stages of the programme cycle. Expectations about the linkages between strategy, inputs, outputs and impacts can be formulated on the basis of field level experiences which draw upon the knowledge and viewpoints of a variety of institutional stakeholders, including local gender-aware research institutes and women’s farming, trading and community organizations. There will be a need for adjustment if expected outputs and impacts do not materialise.

Figure 3: Monitoring the policy process



It is important to identify indicators to track and monitor the different stages of a programme.

The indicators should include **qualitative as well as quantitative indicators**.⁴

Throughput or activity indicators reflect delivery of resources such as numbers of footpaths improved/constructed, women agricultural extension workers trained, women market traders involved in stakeholder consultations, etc.

Outcome and impact indicators are also needed to reveal how effective expenditure on gender-related outputs has been in meeting agricultural programme goals. Gender sensitive outcomes may include a range of agriculture-related as well as other sectoral indicators, depending on the particular constraints identified in the Institutional Analysis and the Baseline Gender Analysis. These may include:

- time spent in transport activities by men and women, broken down by key activities (getting to and from field to marketing outlet, water and fuel collection);
- asset accumulation by men and women producers;
- the effect of agricultural interventions on men's and women's time spent directly in cultivating food and/or export crops (e.g. has the intervention enabled women and men to devote more time to export production; subsistence food production; household and community caring and "productive" activities?).

Gender sensitive monitoring indicators

Many outcome and impact indicators are long term, and progress towards these goals can only be measured at the end of the life of a programme. Some examples of gender sensitive monitoring indicators at each stage are given below (CIDA, 1996 pp. 88-90):

- inputs: targets for numbers of women and men trained;
- process: numbers of women and men participating in decision making at different levels;
- output: changes in composition of services/investment; changes in men's and women's participation in delivery and use of services; in participation in markets;
- outcomes: qualitative changes in gender balance in time use; indicators of physical mobility; geographic information system showing men's and women's participation in markets, inside/outside village; in export markets; indicators of household and national food security.

Sources for indicators

The above monitoring indicators can be derived from a variety of sources such as:

- report of the Baseline Gender Analysis (Module 6)
- institutional Assessments and Capacity Building (Module 5)
- budget tools (Module 8)

⁴ CIDA (1996) provides guidelines for the identification of gender-aware indicators which "feel the pulse of the programme" as it moves towards meeting its objectives and which are most appropriate for monitoring its different stages. The guidelines emphasise the *process* of policy formulation and capacity building in agricultural sector development.

These can be integrated into the monitoring of, e.g.,

- progress in the overall national strategy for agriculture;
- progress in sub-sectoral programmes;
- progress in special programmes and individual projects.

The following should be in place in order to strengthen gender sensitive monitoring and evaluation:

***Necessary
components
for gender
sensitive
M&E***

- identification of women's and men's priorities in agriculture (producers, traders, retailers, wholesalers, etc) (See Module 6 on Baseline Gender analysis);
- development of a financial system linking these priorities to expenditure (See Module 8 on Budgets);
- a management system which tracks impacts as well as outputs and is capable of responding to programme failure (See Module 5 on Institutional Analysis and Capacity Building).

Gender sensitive monitoring and evaluation can be achieved where systems of gender-aware accountability are embedded in the government's management structure. This might include a gender focal point in the Planning Department, Ministry of Finance and the Ministry of Agriculture and relevant agricultural sub-sector departments.

If the monitoring process is linked to the budget cycle in order to review progress and determine budgets for the following year, gender-aware financial and management indicators need to be in place and form part of the annual evaluation.

Field staff should also be aware of the gender priorities of the agricultural programme and their importance in the monitoring exercise.

9.3 EVALUATION

Evaluation of programmes and projects, including those with a gender dimension, often focuses solely on inputs and outputs with little attention given to impacts. Evaluation is likely to centre on evidence of the ability of an agricultural programme to become financially sustainable (often through the use of cost recovery mechanisms and commercialisation and public/private partnerships and privatisation of activities) so that the budget deficit does not become unmanageable.

However, evaluation should also consider evidence as to whether gender gaps in access to and control of resources and control over income have been reduced. It is important to ensure that cost recovery mechanisms and privatisation of services do

not increase gender gaps in the distribution of costs and benefits (See Module 8 on Budget Tools).

The focus on particular gender components of a programme should not allow gender analysts to lose sight of the need to evaluate the efficiency and gender implications of sector institutions as a whole. Even the most well specified and adequately financed gender programmes may not achieve desired results. For example, studies of the transfer of funds from the Ministry of Finance to primary schools in Tanzania and Uganda both revealed major leakages (not necessarily illegal) so that only a trickle of the funds allocated for the schools actually reached them (Therkildsen *et al*, 1999). If women and girls are in general more reliant on public expenditure than men and boys (or vice versa) then expenditure cuts are likely to have gender differentiated effects. Such findings cannot be gained from an analysis of budgets alone but requires a deep understanding of the internal workings of organizations and their relations to other organizations and stakeholders.

9.4 BUILDING SUPPORT FOR BETTER MONITORING AND EVALUATION

Constituency building among power brokers is needed to strengthen the integration of gender into the monitoring and evaluation process. Clear mechanisms and guidelines need to be sanctioned by management staff across and within sector institutions. The support of local stakeholders, including local bureaucracies, NGOs and private sector representatives is needed to ensure adequate effective monitoring and evaluation of the implementation of gender programmes (Therkildsen, *et al.*, 1999).

Such support is more likely to be generated if there is meaningful stakeholder ownership of the policy and programme formulation process from the beginning (see section 7.2.ii). This can be facilitated when the needs, constraints and priorities of key stakeholders are considered in the process so that:

- policies and programmes reflect the priorities, constraints and opportunities of poor rural men and women primary stakeholders (the ultimate beneficiaries);
- the needs, constraints and priorities of local bureaucracies, NGOs and private sector representatives are included in the consultation process.

Consulting stakeholders enables local mechanisms of accountability to be built into the national monitoring process. This, in turn, can help to strengthen ownership of public programmes and facilitate cooperation of those bodies most able to help with monitoring and evaluation.

9.5 EXERCISES

Provide a Gender Analysis of Policy Goals and Public Expenditure in Sudan

Below is a brief summary of the Gender Based Development Context, Policy Goals and Programme Budget for Sudan.

Gender based development context

In Sudan, women are the backbone of the rural labour force (FAO, 1997, Executive Summary, p. 24).

Productive and domestic activities (SNA and non-SNA):

- women account for 50 - 80% of the rural agricultural labour force;
- women producers account for 49% of producers in the irrigated areas (which in the past have been prioritised in agricultural policy) and 57% of producers in the rain-fed areas (which in the past have been neglected in agricultural policy);
- women engage in food processing and off-farm income generating activities;
- home gardens are women's monopoly;
- women play a major role in the use, preservation and management of biodiversity;
- food processing in the household is highly labour intensive and is generally a women's job;
- women are responsible for collecting firewood and water for household use.

Agricultural outcomes – food production:

The level of aggregate per capita food supplies has barely kept pace with total energy requirements and conceals wide regional and household disparities.

Policy goals:

1. faster agricultural growth rates and expansion of staple food production;
2. enhanced household food security;
3. the promotion of traditional agriculture and a shift in policy priorities from irrigated to rain fed areas to make optimum use of agricultural resources;
4. the promotion of environmentally sound practices;
5. the promotion of grassroots participation, including producers and their associations as well as other private sector agents and NGOs with special emphasis on getting active participation from women's groups and associations.

Gender aware policy analysis

Consider the following:

- how would you integrate a gender perspective into the five policy goals listed above?
- identify possible gender-based constraints to the achievement of policy goals 1-5;
- identify possible ways to reduce the gender-based constraints to policy goals 1-5;
- how intra-household entitlements to food might affect prospects for food security among poor communities;
- how might gender differences in entitlement to assets and other resources influence the potential of the agricultural strategy to reduce poverty and promote rural development?

Refer to Budget Allocations Summarised in Box 23

- attempt to apply Budget Tools 1 - 7 (Module 9). What other information is needed to undertake gender-sensitive budget analysis?
- to what extent is it possible to identify resources allocated to reduce gender-based constraints to the achievement of programme goals?
- in view of the development context, consider how you would allocate resources so that gender priorities are mainstreamed in the agricultural programme;
- consider how you would allocate outputs (activities) and resources (monetary or otherwise) to reduce gender-based constraints to the achievement of policy goals.
- consider ways to improve the transparency of budgeting.

Box 23: Budget: Sudan's national agricultural, livestock and irrigation programme

	Number of projects	Total Cost (\$US m)	% of Total Budget	Cost per project (\$US m)
Strategic planning, policy analysis and institutions	7	10.92	13%	1.56
Crop production and protection	26	26.60	32%	1.02
Livestock and fisheries	26	18.87	23%	0.73
Agricultural marketing and credit	6	9.85	11%	0.76
Women in development	8	0.93	1%	0.12
Natural resources development and the environment	15	14.60	17%	0.97

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Therkildsen, O., Engberg-Pedersen, P. and Boesen, J. (1999). *Sector Support: From Policy Making to Implementation Processes*, an issue paper from the CDR, Centre for Development Research Copenhagen, August.

GLOSSARY

Balance of payments A summary statement of a nation's financial transactions with the rest of the world.

Cross-price elasticity of supply This measures the responsiveness in the supply of one good to the change in the price of another. For example, if millet prices fall producers may respond by reducing millet production and increasing maize production and the cross price elasticity measures the extent of this response. The cross-price elasticity of supply of maize to millet is thus the percentage change in the quantity of maize produced in response to a one percent change in the price of millet.

Devaluation A lowering in the value of one country's currency in terms of all other currencies. In domestic currency terms this has the effect of increasing import prices. Prices received for domestic exports remain constant in domestic currency terms but exports become more competitive abroad: that is, their prices fall in terms of other currencies. Thus devaluation usually improves the devaluing country's trade balance.

Efficiency Efficiency reflects the optimum use of scarce resources. Efficiency in production occurs when factors of production are combined in the least cost manner to maximise output. Efficiency in consumption occurs where expenditures are allocated to maximise consumer satisfaction or utility. This Handbook's concern with efficiency refers to the ways in which gender relations, gender based norms, and gender imbalances affect the performance, priorities and outcomes of agricultural policies.

Equality The OECD-DAC definition of gender equality is "... equal enjoyment by women and men of socially valued goods, opportunities, resources and rewards. Gender equality does not mean that men and women become the same, but that their opportunities and life chances are equal. The emphasis on gender equality and women's empowerment does not presume a particular model of gender equality for all societies and cultures, but reflects a concern that women and men have equal opportunities to make choices about what gender equality means and work in partnership to achieve it."

Equity Fairness in the treatment of men and women of all ages; equity concerns the justice or fairness of the way that goods and services are divided between different members of society.

Fiscal policy	Policies concerning the quantity and allocation of government expenditure and the sources of government revenue.
Food security	Physical and economic access by all people at all times to sufficient, safe and nutritious foods to meet their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life.
Gender-sensitive statistics	Data which reflects sex disaggregated information on production, employment, access to and use of public and private resources, expenditure. Gender-sensitive statistics include data which is not normally collected in national accounts or for policy purposes, such as sex disaggregated data on time use in unpaid household and community activities.
Gender-inequality	The reverse of equality – see above.
Gross Domestic Product (GDP)	The total final output of goods and services produced by the country's economy, within the country's territory, by residents and non-residents regardless of its allocation between domestic and foreign claims.
Inequality	The reverse of equality – see above
Institutions	Humanly devised constraints that shape human interaction. In consequence they determine incentives in human exchange, whether political, social or economic. Institutions consist of both formal and informal rules. Examples of formal rules are laws, statutes, international agreements and contracts. Examples of informal rules are social conventions and codes of behaviour.
Institutional analysis	The analysis of institutions and organizations in a society.
Macro-meso-micro framework	<p>The <i>macro</i> level of the economy refers to the “big picture” where decisions are made at an economy-wide level. It consists of the formal, marketed economy as measured by Gross Domestic Product (GDP) plus, at least in the definition used here, the unpaid domestic economy which often goes unmeasured.</p> <p>The <i>meso</i> level of an economy consists of markets and economic and social infrastructure (roads, irrigation, education, health and other social services) as well as the institutional rules and norms that guide the behaviour of public and private sector organizations. Drawing on institutional economics, the term ‘meso’ thus is now generally used to denote the intermediary role of markets in transmitting signals and allocating resources. In this context, markets are seen as embedded in social relations and thus as ‘bearers’ of gender.</p>

The *micro* level of the economy consists of households and firms and the individuals that constitute these organizations. The macro-meso-micro framework looks at the interrelations between these three levels of analysis.

Monetary policy Activities of the central bank designed to influence financial variables such as the money supply and rate of interest.

Price elasticity of demand The change in the quantity of a good demanded in response to a one percent change in that good's price.

Organizations Groups of individuals bound by some common purpose to achieve specific objectives. There are close interactions between institutions and organizations because the type of organizations which evolve are strongly influenced by the institutions that exist e.g. the joint stock company or limited liability company could not exist without supporting legislation i.e. "institutions". Equally, the organizations in existence influence how the institutional framework develops.

Policies Policies are a statement of objectives and the method of achieving these objectives (policy instruments) by government, political party, business concern etc. Some examples of government policy in the agricultural sector might be achieving food security, promoting export crops or reducing deforestation. Policy instruments include fiscal policy, monetary policy, price policy and legislative controls such as controls on land rents.

Programmes An investment programme consists of a discrete set of complementary projects at the national, regional or district level.

Projects A project is a discrete investment of public or private funds in a given activity. In the agricultural sector this might consist of a rural road building project, a small producer credit project or an irrigation project.

Stakeholders Those who affect or are affected by development policies/ programmes and projects. In other words they are all those who directly or indirectly stand to gain or lose from a particular development activity. They can be individual men and women, groups of men and women traders or producers for instance, communities, socio-economic groups, policy makers and planners and other governmental and non-governmental staff or organizations.

Strategies A strategy consists of a vision of what something, such as the agricultural sector, should look like in the future plus a plan or road map showing how to fulfil that vision.

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