

PROMOTING GENDER EQUITABLE OPPORTUNITIES IN AGRICULTURAL VALUE CHAINS



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PROMOTING GENDER EQUITABLE OPPORTUNITIES IN AGRICULTURAL VALUE CHAINS: A HANDBOOK

GREATER ACCESS TO TRADE EXPANSION (GATE) PROJECT
UNDER THE WOMEN IN DEVELOPMENT IQC
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“ Women are the backbone of farming in Africa, just as they are in most of the world. They plant the seeds, they till the fields, they harvest the crops, they bring them to market, they prepare the meals for their families. So to succeed in this work, we must work with women. And so we need a good collaboration to make sure that women are equal partners with men farmers all the way through the process... to enable... farmers who are women to make a contribution that will transform agriculture, add to the gross domestic product of their country, give them more income to educate their children to have a better life. ”

Secretary of State Hillary Clinton in Kenya, August 5, 2009

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INTRODUCTION TO THE HANDBOOK



“Promoting Gender Equitable Opportunities in Agricultural Value Chains: A Handbook” is based on research studies and training programs conducted under the Greater Access to Trade Expansion (GATE) Project. The GATE Project is a five-year (September 2004–September 2009) United States Agency for International Development (USAID) Task Order (TO), funded by the Office of Women in Development (WID) and implemented by Development & Training Services, Inc. (dTS). Over the life of the project, GATE worked with seven USAID Missions to better integrate gender considerations into economic growth and trade-related programs to expand areas of opportunity and mitigate the adverse effects of economic and trade expansion for poor women and men.*

Gender issues fundamentally shape the totality of production, distribution, and consumption within an economy but have often been overlooked in value chain development. From production to processing to disposal, gendered patterns of behavior condition men’s and women’s jobs and tasks, the distribution of resources and benefits derived from income-generating activities in the chain, and the efficiency and competitiveness of value chains in the global market. Although most of the leading international donor agencies adopt value chain approaches as a strategy for enhancing economic growth and reducing poverty, until recently, few have considered how gender issues affect value chain development.

This is beginning to change. Women are now widely acknowledged to contribute to and shape the global economy

* GATE worked in Albania, Bangladesh, Dominican Republic, Kenya, Nigeria, Peru, and South Africa. GATE also implemented one activity in Tanzania. All GATE project documents as well as other gender and trade-related materials are available for download on the USAID Women in Development website at http://www.usaid.gov/our_work/cross-cutting_programs/wid/.

as employees, entrepreneurs, and leaders.* Moreover, a renewed focus on agriculture has been accompanied by a reminder of the high participation rates of women in domestically oriented and commercial food production and of the persistent gender inequalities that hinder progress.** To address this gap, the GATE project developed a participatory training program to enhance practitioners' understanding of how gender roles and relations impact value chains and program outcomes. During 2008-2009, the training program was piloted in Kenya and in Tanzania.† This Handbook is an outgrowth of those experiences.

Building on the growing body of empirical evidence that addressing gender issues in value chains can improve program outcomes, this Handbook presents a practical process for practitioners on how gender issues can inform the design, implementation, and monitoring of USAID value chain programs. Influenced by some of the leading USAID value chain development approaches, the Handbook provides a methodology for analyzing how gender issues constrain or support the ability of these programs to achieve their goals.

Agriculture includes the science and practice of activity related to food, feed, and fiber production, processing, marketing, distribution, utilization, and trade and includes family and consumer sciences, nutrition, food science and engineering, agricultural economics and other social sciences, forestry, wildlife, fisheries, aquaculture, floriculture, veterinary medicine, and other environmental and natural resources sciences.

A **value chain** describes the full sequence of activities (functions) required to bring a product or service from conception, through the intermediary of production, transformation, marketing, and delivery to final consumers.

PURPOSE OF THE HANDBOOK

This Handbook presents the “Integrating Gender Issues into Agricultural Value Chains” (INGIA-VC) approach. It was developed to bring together concepts from different technical areas in development, specifically gender, agriculture, microenterprise development, and value chains. Written by gender practitioners, it provides readers with an understanding of agricultural value chains from a gender perspective. The Handbook helps practitioners become familiar with:

- ✳ How gender issues affect agricultural value chains.
- ✳ A process for analyzing gender issues in agricultural value chains.
- ✳ Strategies for addressing gender issues in agricultural value chains.

Who should use the Handbook?

The Handbook covers conceptual and practical issues for addressing gender in agricultural value chains. Because it brings together several different technical areas, it has multiple audiences from gender, agriculture, or value chain backgrounds. The Handbook was primarily written for a USAID audience, including staff located in Bureaus or Missions, and USAID implementing partner organizations.

Other non-USAID readers may also find it useful as they approach the subject of gender and value chains, but they should be aware that the particular content provided in the Handbook reflects the specific interests of USAID and therefore may not encompass the full range of issues of interest to them.

* See Shipman and Kay, *Womenomics*; Catalyst, “The Bottom Line”; and (The) Economist. “A Guide to Womenomics.”

** Other researchers that have been working on the intersection of gender and value chain development include Agri-poor Focus, “Gender in Value Chains: Emerging Lessons and Questions”; Mayoux and Mackie, “Making the Strongest Links: A Practical Guide to Mainstreaming Gender Analysis in Value Chain Development”; and IFAD, “Gender and Poverty Targeting in Market Linkage Operations: A Sourcebook.”

† The East African trainings were called “INGIA-VC,” where INGIA is an acronym for “Integrating Gender Issues in Agricultural Value Chains.” In Swahili, “ingia” means “to enter,” and one often enters a farm through a gate. Not only does the GATE project represent the entry point for integrating gender into agricultural value chains, but the training is the process by which attention to gender enters into the program operations. In Kenya, the training was attended by staff members from the Kenya Maize Development Program (KMDP), the Kenya Dairy Sector Competitiveness Program (KDSCP), and the Kenya Horticultural Development Program (KHDP). In Tanzania, the training was attended by staff members from the Smallholder Horticulture Outgrower Promotion (SHOP) Program and the Sustainable Environmental Management through Mariculture Activities (SEMMA) Program. The training reports are available at http://www.usaid.gov/our_work/cross-cutting_programs/wid/.

The writers assume that readers using this Handbook will have some knowledge of gender issues, agriculture, or value chain development. Nonetheless, it places greater emphasis on providing readers formerly unfamiliar with gender issues with a foundation and process for assessing agricultural value chains from a gender perspective. For additional resources on gender, agriculture, or value chains, please see the reference list included in [Annex 1](#).

To assist readers, text boxes provide additional information and guidance. Three types of text boxes are used in the Handbook.

Definitions are provided throughout the text in boxes like this one.

TIPS

Tips, reminders, additional information, and helpful hints are provided in text boxes like this one.

EXAMPLES

Illustrative project descriptions provide readers with real examples of projects that have faced gender issues or addressed them in implementation. This evidence is presented in boxes like this one.

THE GATE PROJECT GENDER AND VALUE CHAIN RESOURCES

The GATE project developed a suite of resources to provide development practitioners with an understanding of and the tools for addressing gender issues in value chain analysis and development programs. These include:

- ✳ Promoting Gender Equitable Opportunities in Agricultural Value Chains: A Handbook
- ✳ Kenya Gender Training Materials: Integrating Gender in Agricultural Value Chains
- ✳ Tanzania Gender Training Materials: Integrating Gender in Agricultural Value Chains
- ✳ Gender and Pro-Poor Value Chain Analysis: Insights from the GATE Project Methodology and Case Studies
- ✳ A Pro-Poor Analysis of the Artichoke Sector in Peru (available in Spanish, with a summary in English)
- ✳ A Pro-Poor Analysis of the Shrimp Sector in Bangladesh

These are available on the USAID Office of Women in Development website, http://www.usaid.gov/our_work/cross-cutting_programs/wid/.

ORGANIZATION OF THE HANDBOOK

The Handbook is divided into two parts.

Part I. Integrating Gender Issues into Value Chain Development. This first part introduces gender issues and their relationship to agricultural value chain development. It also provides a framework for analyzing gender issues. Part I is composed of the following sections:

- ★ Gender Analysis briefly explains this analytical method;
- ★ Gender Dimensions Framework describes one analytical method for analyzing gender issues and for identifying gender-based constraints, which is used throughout this Handbook; and
- ★ Linking Gender Issues to Agricultural Value Chain Development illustrates how gender-based constraints affect the structure and relationships of the value chain.

Part II. A Process for Integrating Gender Issues into Agricultural Value Chains. Part II offers practitioners a five-step process for identifying and evaluating gender-based constraints within agricultural value chains with tools and worksheets for implementing the process.

At the end of the Handbook, readers can find the following resource documents in the annexes:

- ★ Additional Resources on Gender and Agricultural Value Chains
- ★ Illustrative Scope of Work for Conducting Gender Analysis for Agricultural Value Chains
- ★ GATE Value Chain Fact Sheet

OBJECTIVES OF THE INGIA-VC APPROACH

The INGIA-VC approach presented in this Handbook aims to:

1. Enhance the competitiveness of agricultural value chains by reducing inefficiencies that originate from gender-based constraints.
2. Increase the opportunities for women at all levels of the chain.
3. Improve the ability of USAID projects to meet their objectives.

TABLE 1: A PROCESS FOR INTEGRATING GENDER ISSUES INTO AGRICULTURAL VALUE CHAINS

Phase	Purpose
Phase One. Mapping Gender Roles and Relations along the Value Chain	Learn how to identify gender roles and relations along the value chain through data collection efforts
Phase Two. From Gender Inequalities to Gender-based Constraints	Become familiar with a systematic way to identify gender-based constraints
Phase Three. Assessing the Consequences of Gender-based Constraints	Understand how to assess the implications of gender-based constraints on value chains
Phase Four. Taking Actions to Remove Gender-based Constraints	Learn how to determine the most appropriate course of action to remove gender-based constraints
Phase Five. Measuring Success of Actions	Become familiar with ways of measuring the success of actions

UNDERLYING ASSUMPTIONS

The INGIA-VC approach is built on the following underlying assumptions:

1. VALUE CHAINS ARE EMBEDDED IN A SOCIAL CONTEXT

It is widely accepted that social and cultural factors affect the construction of organizational arrangements, transaction costs, bargaining strength, and incentives to cooperate or collude. Building on this understanding, this Handbook assumes that value chains are embedded in a broader social context. Within this broader social context, gender roles and relations guide and determine the behavior of different actors, both as individuals and firms. Value chains reflect the consequences of gender relations from the household to the firm. Understanding the functions and operations of value chain actors cannot be isolated from an examination of how gender roles and relations shape and impact particular behavior within value chains.

★ The Household and Market Interact

A large part of agricultural production among smallholders is conducted within the context of the household; therefore, it is imperative to consider how households differ in their operations from firms and what actions can be taken to support their transformation into enterprising household units. Whether the objective of production is for sale or household consumption, social expectations underpin the gender division of agricultural and household tasks. These social expectations can lead to unequal bargaining power that distort intrahousehold allocation of labor and productive resources and affect agricultural value chain outcomes.

★ Social Institutions Reflect Social Norms

Although the labor market is often perceived as a neutral space in which buyers and sellers interact, hiring practices, labor contracts, managerial directives, systems of job evaluations, professional and business networks, and pay determination structures are all bearers

of gender.¹ The restriction of jobs based on the perceived roles appropriate for men and women, for example, is an important way in which the labor markets reflect gender relations. This often leads to the concentration of men and women in particular sectors or occupations. Furthermore, perceptions that men are the primary income earners and women are secondary income earners, known as the male breadwinner bias, often limit women's earning potential and upward mobility.

★ Legal Frameworks Embody Social Beliefs

Legal and regulatory frameworks embody social beliefs and perceptions about appropriate roles for men and women. Inheritance and ownership laws are clear examples of the codification of beliefs about who has the right to property and particular assets. Although reforms are taking place, many women still lack legal protection and rights to land through inheritance, upon divorce, or when widowed. Regulations sometimes limit the weight of goods carried by men and women and are based on particular beliefs about men's and women's physical strength.

2. VALUE CHAIN DEVELOPMENT AFFECTS GENDER ROLES AND RELATIONS

Value chain development programs aim to achieve systemic change in the behavior within firms and across the chain in ways that promote upgrading and competitiveness. Change within agricultural value chains involves shifting production systems that draw on indigenous or local knowledge to processes that depend on technical knowledge from input suppliers or buyers and meet consumer preferences. Marketing systems move from spot interactions to more dependent and predictable relationships governed by contractual arrangements. These shifts, which can provide small producers with important advantages through increased farm incomes, affect gender roles and relations as well. Gender relations and enterprise conditions are dynamic; they are continually shifting. The discussion below provides examples of changes in gender roles and relations as a result of value chain interventions.

- ★ New Technology and On-Farm Division of Labor.
The introduction of new technology and agricultural

practices can have different effects on men and women. Introducing new technology or new market opportunities changes the on-farm division of labor between men and women. The consequences of these advances can have mixed outcomes for different groups of men and women. For example, conservation agriculture, or minimum tillage agriculture, has the ability to free some women's time from tedious tasks such as weeding, while at the same time displacing work opportunities for landless women who rely on wages they earn as day laborers.²

- ★ High-Value Crops and Control over Resources and Benefits. Increasing attention to high-value crops intensifies control over the resources linked to the crops, such as land and water. Changing the relative importance of crops to households can lead to a shift in the control over these resources. Moreover, it can affect men's or women's relative control over the benefits derived from those crops. As market opportunities improve for crops under women's control, men may begin to encroach on women's activities, limiting their access to land for example.
- ★ Formalization of Transactions and Household Financial Management. In the process of formalizing market linkages, household dynamics may be affected. Participating in contract farming or warehouse receipting programs may require using a bank account.* Individual farmers may open bank accounts in the registered farmer's name, usually the man's. This shift in family practice reduces women's access to income by mediating her access to income through her husband. In some communities, women safeguard the cash from crop sales. They may not have control over its use but will hide the cash and use some of it for household expenditures. As value chains formalize business transactions along the chain, shifts in household financial management practices can occur.

3. GENDER EQUITY AND VALUE CHAIN COMPETITIVENESS ARE MUTUALLY SUPPORTIVE GOALS

The INGIA-VC approach rests on the premise that developing value chains and supporting gender equity are mutually supportive goals. Strong evidence supports considering gender issues in pro-poor economic growth programs. (1) Compelling empirical evidence indicates that gender equality is good for economic growth. Numerous studies have found a correlation between gender equality and economic growth, both in a cross-country comparison and in comparisons over time.³ (2) Other research shows that gender inequalities are costly to the economic and human development of countries around the world, undermining their productivity and human capacity to contribute to the economy. Gender inequalities affect competitiveness by restraining productivity, growth, and output and indirectly hindering trade performance.⁴

Value chain programs, when designed with gender equitable principles, can encompass both competitiveness and gender equity to enhance poverty reduction impacts. This position is informed by an understanding of efficiency and empowerment arguments for promoting gender equality and value chain development for poverty reduction. Addressing gender issues in value chains seeks to identify relationships and actions that enhance value chain efficiency and competitiveness while supporting gender equality goals. Adopting this approach in value chain programs makes it possible for USAID-funded programs to achieve programmatic targets as well as support USAID policy on gender integration. In this way, it identifies leverage points at which value chain interventions generate positive gender outcomes and broader value chain outcomes.

The ADS requires all USAID programs to understand how implementation activities will affect the relative status of men and women.

* Warehouse receipting programs allow farmers to store a percentage of their harvest to wait for a better market price. This avoids flooding the market with the crop, and in collaboration with local banks, farmers can use the receipt for the stored crop as collateral for credit.

CHARACTERISTICS OF GENDER EQUITABLE AND COMPETITIVE AGRICULTURAL VALUE CHAINS

Value chain programs that support gender equity goals:

1. Understand men's and women's roles and relations.

Gender equitable and competitive value chain practitioners understand how men and women participate as economic actors along the value chain and use this information in the design and implementation of their programs. Well-informed practitioners are better able to anticipate and address gender-based constraints and seize opportunities to support gender equality.

2. Foster equitable participation.

Gender equitable and competitive value chain practitioners create the conditions for both men and women to participate in value chain services and activities, from membership in associations to participation in training and public-private dialogues. Project-sponsored activities should insist that men, women, and youth are invited to participate.

3. Address the needs of women.

Women are actively involved in agricultural value chains as unpaid household workers, waged workers, entrepreneurs, and leaders. The constraints facing them may differ from those of men. Gender equitable and competitive value chain practitioners recognize these differences and design activities that meet the needs of both men and women.

4. Support women's economic advancement.

Gender equitable and competitive value chain practitioners consider how to empower women as lead entrepreneurs: setting an example for other women, contributing to upgrading, and leading systemic change in agricultural value chains.

5. Promote gender equitable market-driven solutions.

The private sector can be a catalyst in promoting gender equality goals when it understands the business potential for doing so. Gender equitable and competitive value chain practitioners facilitate understanding of how addressing gender issues in value chain development is “smart business” and support the development of solutions that create equal opportunities for men and women.

6. Design equitable benefit-sharing mechanisms.

Gender equitable and competitive value chain practitioners consider not only men's and women's participation in value chains but also how men and women will benefit from participation. They understand the gender issues in benefit-sharing mechanisms related to the distribution of profits, wages, and non-monetary compensation and ensure that men and women are adequately rewarded for their contributions to the value chain.

7. Include men in defining the “problem” and the solution.

Gender equitable and competitive value chain practitioners include both men and women in identifying the gender issues that constrain their abilities to raise productivity and income and to expand their enterprises. Programs can bring both men and women to the table to clarify their roles in, for example, producer association governance or to define equitable criteria for hiring, promotion, and compensation within firms.

A FRAMEWORK FOR INTEGRATING GENDER ISSUES INTO AGRICULTURAL VALUE CHAINS



Part I of the Handbook describes an approach that helps practitioners:

- ★ Learn about and analyze the gender issues relevant to value chain development programs;
- ★ Identify gender-based constraints that affect efforts to increase agricultural productivity, employment, and entrepreneurship and to strengthen horizontal and vertical linkages and the business enabling environment; and,
- ★ Learn from successful strategies to overcome these constraints.

GENDER ANALYSIS

Value chains are embedded within sociocultural contexts. The gender aspects of agricultural value chain projects are especially complex because market-oriented agriculture among smallholders still relies on farming households and family labor. Building these multifaceted and multipurpose units into sustainable enterprises in the value chain requires careful attention to both social and economic relationships within and outside the household.

Gender analysis is the first step toward understanding the gender issues that are relevant to value chain operations. Gender analysis identifies the gender relations that structure how smallholder

households are organized and how they interact with other firms and economic processes. Ideas about gender relations shape the opportunities that are available to men and women throughout the value chain, by creating or restricting educational and employment options, as well as avenues for starting businesses and establishing needed social and business networks. Gender experts have developed different methodologies consisting of data collection methods and descriptive and analytical tools to illuminate the aspects of gender relations that are relevant in development work.*

Gender analysis leads to the identification of Gender-based Constraints (GbCs). This term is used in gender and development literature to highlight the many disadvantages faced by women in their efforts to engage in the economy. In value chain

discussions, the term “constraint” typically refers to different types of limits that influence the operations or growth of individuals and/or firms. In development projects on economic growth, agriculture, and trade, commonly identified constraints include limited income, legal restrictions, social or ethical considerations, and available technologies.

GbCs can limit men’s and women’s participation in social life, access to resources, time use, mobility, legal rights, or exercise of power. Just as a lack of nutrients affects the growth of plants or livestock, GbCs place limits on men and women based on specific aspects of their gender identities and limit the efficient allocation of labor and skills in ways that restrict overall economic growth.

In this Handbook, GbCs are defined as restrictions on men’s or women’s access to resources or opportunities that are based on their gender roles or responsibilities. The term encompasses both the measurable inequalities that are revealed by sex-disaggregated data collection and gender analysis, as well as the factors that contribute to a specific condition of gender inequality. In Part II of the Handbook, a set of tools guides the reader through the use of the Gender Dimensions Framework to identify GbCs and to develop actions to overcome them.

Gender Analysis is a methodology that both:

- ✱ describes existing gender relations in a particular environment, ranging from within households or firms to a larger scale of community, ethnic group, or nation, and
- ✱ organizes and interprets, in a systematic way, information about gender relations to clarify the importance of gender differences for achieving development objectives.

Gender analysis involves collecting and analyzing sex-disaggregated data and other qualitative and quantitative information on gender issues, including access to and control over assets (tangible and intangible), as well as beliefs, practices, and legal frameworks.

* See Candida March, Ines Smyth, and Maitrayee Mukhopadhyay, *A Guide to Gender-Analysis Frameworks*, London: Oxfam Publishing, 1999; and Suzanne Williams, *Oxfam Gender Training Manual*. London: Oxfam, 1994.



Gender roles are the behaviors, tasks, and responsibilities that are considered appropriate for women and men because of socio-cultural norms and beliefs. They change over time, through individual choices or as a result of social and/or political changes emerging from changed opportunities (more education, different economic environment) or during times of social upheaval (such as disasters, war, and post-conflict situations).

Gender relations are one type of social relations between men and women that are constructed and reinforced by social institutions. They include the routine ways in which men and women interact with each other in social institutions: in sexual relationships, in friendships, in workplaces, and in different sectors of the economy. Gender relations are socially determined, culturally based, and historically specific.

Gender is the social category usually associated with being a man or a woman. It encompasses economic, social, political, and cultural attributes and opportunities as well as roles and responsibilities. Gender is defined differently around the world and those definitions change over time.

Sex refers to biological characteristics that distinguish males and females. These do not change from one culture to another and can be recognized as independent and distinct from one another.

Gender-based constraints refer to restrictions on men's or women's access to resources or opportunities that are based on their gender roles or responsibilities. The term encompasses both the measurable inequalities that are revealed by sex-disaggregated data collection and gender analysis as well as the processes that contribute to a specific condition of gender inequality.

THE GENDER DIMENSIONS FRAMEWORK (GDF)

This Handbook presents a framework for gender analysis* designed to provide guidance to USAID staff and partner organizations, called the Gender Dimensions Framework (GDF).** The GDF offers a structured way to analyze gender relations with the household, the firm, the community, and the

broader economy. It examines four intersecting dimensions of social life:

- ✧ observed practices and patterns of participation,
- ✧ existing patterns of access to productive assets,
- ✧ social beliefs and perceptions, and
- ✧ laws, policies, and institutions.

Although overlapping in real life, these dimensions are conceptually distinct. Working with the GDF

helps illuminate specific areas of gender inequalities that might:

- ✧ be created or exacerbated by existing value chain programs, and/or
- ✧ create inefficiencies in chain operations or open opportunities for more gender equitable interactions between different actors along the chain.

The GDF also underscores that value chains and gender relations both change, either as a result of development interventions or as a product of indirect factors such as market or policy shifts. The descriptions of each of the dimensions in the GDF below draw on examples of typically documented gender inequalities, resulting from gender-based constraints. Included in each description is a box that highlights how the dimension relates to value chains.

POWER: A CROSS-CUTTING DIMENSION

In addition to the four dimensions of practice, assets, beliefs, and laws, the GDF incorporates attention to power as a crosscutting issue. Power is expressed in different ways. The power of a husband to direct how his spouse allocates her labor, for example, is not only wielded by him as an individual but also draws on rights to that power that are accepted in the community, that are part of a system of customary practice, and that are enshrined in statutory law. Women may not have the same access to public positions of power as men do, but they still wield significant authority and influence in the community and in the home.

Power is infused in value chain operations as well, governing the relationships between individual firms and within firms. Men and women have different types and degrees of power to control, to enforce, and to shape the decisions over themselves and others. These differences affect women's and men's opportunities to engage in collective actions or to associate with others; to participate in affairs of the household, community, municipality, and nation; to use individual economic resources; to choose employment; to vote or run for office; or to enter into legal contracts.

* The Gender Dimensions Framework is based on The Domains Framework for Gender Analysis developed by Deborah Rubin and Deborah Caro of Cultural Practice LLC under USAID contracts (the WID IQC and the Health Policy Initiative). It draws on other approaches and was refined specifically for use with USAID programs. Many of the components of this approach are used in training and other materials with a health focus and are available on the Interagency Gender Working Group (IGWG) website, www.igwg.org. The USAID WID website (www.usaid.gov/wid) offers other training materials on gender and additional examples of the domains/dimensions framework.

** It has been refined under the GATE project to address gender integration in value chain work being supported by USAID. Training materials and trip reports on the pilot programs in Kenya and Tanzania that introduced this framework are available at http://www.usaid.gov/our_work/cross-cutting_programs/wid/eg/pubs.html.

PRACTICES AND PARTICIPATION

Ideas about gender shape how people behave: from aspects of dress and personal appearance to the division of labor within family enterprises, to the education opportunities open to them and the kinds of jobs they take as a result. Ideas about gender influence who is allowed to travel to different locations by oneself or in groups, by foot or in a vehicle, and at what times they are allowed to be there. Gender roles influence participation in activities, in meetings, in political processes, in services, and in training courses.

Time

Men and women typically carry out different tasks within the household, on the farm, and in business. Women's contributions to running the household, though essential for getting workers (including themselves) off to work, may be discounted because these contributions are less visible to researchers, policy-makers, or government officials. Time allocation studies show that women's household responsibilities are demanding and that women have a longer workday than men. Women often travel long distances to find firewood and water. When combined with domestic responsibilities, women have less time to participate in community meetings and other social gatherings relative to men. Women in rural Kenya, for example, work approximately three hours more per day than men.⁵

Mobility

An environment that restricts women's mobility reduces their ability to engage in networking opportunities and limits the information available to them.⁶ In addition, spaces where information is exchanged are not necessarily gender neutral. In Albania, market information is often received through networking with colleagues in local coffee shops. These coffee shops are considered male spaces, and women do not comfortably congregate there. Similarly, in rural Uganda, men network in drinking clubs, spaces women are restricted from entering.⁷

Labor participation

Many analyses reveal a high degree of sex segmentation in the labor force across different levels of the value chain, as well as within the occupational categories inside firms. Women are often concentrated in lower-skilled positions in production processes, as well as in relatively lower-skilled positions, such as clerks, in firms engaged in export and marketing. Documenting men's and women's contributions to economic activities makes them visible.

Association participation

As a consequence of the limits on their time, education, and mobility, women are often underrepresented in mixed sex producer associations and business groups. At times, they are not informed about group formation, as the communication mechanisms used to elicit participation and membership may not be those used by women. Women may also be limited to only certain positions of leadership within the organization. Conversely, some groups formed explicitly to benefit women may prohibit or restrict participation by men.

ACCESS TO ASSETS

Gender relations shape access to the resources that are necessary to be a fully active and productive participant in society, including access to both tangible and intangible assets such as land, labor, capital, natural resources, education, employment, and information. Research studies show that a significant global gender gap exists in asset ownership, control, and access.⁸ On average, men have access to more types and higher

PRACTICES AND PARTICIPATION DESCRIBES:

- ✱ Where men and women cluster, their occupations, and the tasks they undertake, which illustrate the distribution of **Employment** along the value chain; and
- ✱ Men's and women's types and levels of participation in institutions such as producer and trade associations, input suppliers, and business development service providers, which form **Horizontal** and **Vertical Linkages**.



levels of assets than women do, or men's rights are more commonly formalized, while women are limited to customary user rights. In other situations, women may be favored in access to certain assets, such as microfinance, and men must rely on other financial tools. Asset inequality has significant implications for agriculture sector growth, as different types of assets can inhibit or promote different agricultural investments.⁹ It is important to examine the types and quantities of assets required to participate in agricultural value chains and the extent to which men and women are able to access and mobilize those resources.

Access to land

Women typically have less access to land. In Montenegro, 3 percent of property is registered in women's names.¹⁰ Ten percent of property in rural Kosovo is registered to women.¹¹ In Tanzania, women own about 19 percent of titled land.¹² Both customary and formal laws limit women's rights to land inheritance or land purchase and constrain women from expanding agricultural production. Gender relations within the household further delimit areas of responsibility for decisions over land use and land management, frequently limiting women's use rights to particular portions of or types of land. In Lushoto, Tanzania, participants in the USAID-funded Smallholder Horticulture Outgrower Promotion Program (SHOP) reported that most households own two types of land for crop production: valley bottom and upland plots. Household members reported that, while both men and

women farm the valley bottom plots in high-value vegetables intended for market, these are more often considered men's plots, and the plots owned independently by women are typically smaller. Upland plots farmed by women are planted in staple grains and grown primarily for home consumption; fruit trees planted on those fields for market are owned by men. This division results in potential inequity in which men own and manage land that earns more income while women manage plots that produce food crops.

Access to information and extension services

Women farmers have historically been excluded from many of the benefits of technical advances in productivity, despite providing the labor for developing country agricultural efforts. One well-studied area of exclusion has been women's lack of access to agricultural extension, which until recently was handled primarily through agricultural research centers and government ministries. An initial study in Kenya in the mid-1970s revealed that women's exclusion from agricultural extension had two components: (1) few women became extension agents and (2) few women farmers met with extension agents.¹³

More frequent interaction with extension agents and on-farm demonstrations is linked to greater adoption of inputs and new technologies. Women's significantly lower rates of interaction with extension agents continue to hinder

their ability to improve agricultural productivity.

Access to education

Boys and girls typically do not have the same educational opportunities. This inequality is recognized in Millennium Development Goal 3 and its objective to achieve gender inequality through increasing education of girls. Studies indicate that disparities in education attainment create unequal access to employment. In rural Tanzania¹⁴ and Zimbabwe,¹⁵ access to nonfarm employment was critically determined by education, age, and gender.¹⁶

Access to education not only influences the fields of study

that men and women pursue but also affects their economic opportunities. Today, women are underrepresented in agricultural science departments in most countries around the world. A 2004 survey of 57 developing countries found that the share of women's enrollment rates in agricultural sciences ranged from 27 percent in sub-Saharan Africa to 41 percent in the Asia-Pacific region.¹⁸

Gender bias in education has a direct effect on economic growth by depressing the quality of human capital. It is a misallocation of human resources.²⁰

ACCESS TO ASSETS, DIFFERENTIATED BY WOMEN AND MEN, DETERMINES:

- ✱ The educational and business skills opportunities available to men and women, which can facilitate access to **Employment** along the value chain;
- ✱ Whether men and women are informed of and able to access technologies that support **On-Farm Productivity**;
- ✱ Men and women's bargaining power in negotiating and managing **Vertical** and **Horizontal** relationships and in advocating for change in the **Business Enabling Environment**.

BELIEFS AND PERCEPTIONS

All societies have belief systems that shape ideas about appropriate roles and responsibilities for men and women. Beliefs guide men's and women's socialization processes and shape general patterns of behavior. For example, it is often expected for girls and boys to learn about different aspects of agricultural production and marketing practices. Associations between women and caregiving shape opportunities for women to learn more about wild foods, medicinal plants, or small-animal health than men. Social beliefs also shape economic opportunities available to men and women. For example, beliefs about the appropriateness of women in managerial roles may restrict women from decision-making positions.

Social beliefs also shape men's and women's access to assets. Despite laws that stipulate equal pay for equal work, a common belief that women are secondary income earners may result in the acceptance and perpetuation of differential wages for men and women. Furthermore, a belief that sons should inherit land may override a law that requires equal inheritance rights indiscriminate of sex.

Beliefs about men and women as economic actors

Women are key actors in farming enterprises, making significant contributions as unpaid family workers. They are the direct users of many inputs and services. Women are frequently independent farm managers, as well as acting farm



BELIEFS AND PERCEPTIONS VERSUS PRACTICES AND PARTICIPATION

Beliefs and practice are often contradictory. Social beliefs may sometimes be at odds with individuals' actions but are used to justify and uphold gender differences. People may say they believe that women are more trustworthy when it comes to repaying loans but still restrict the size of their loans because women have limited collateral. Or a producer association may assert that women are more effective communicators, a quality prized in an association leader, but women may be restricted from leadership positions because they do not own land. Social beliefs and perceptions often guide behavior but do not necessarily determine the actions of individuals.



managers for men who have left the farm to seek wage employment elsewhere or who have full-time employment elsewhere.

Yet in many societies, people assume that only men are the farmers or that only men are the clients of service providers. These beliefs reduce the potential client base for providers, contribute to poor targeting, and interfere in the efficient channeling of goods and services from provider to client. Assumptions about women's lack of competence as farmers also undermine an understanding of the responsibilities women take on as farm managers in many countries.

Women own and manage many informal and formal businesses, but perceptions that their roles are secondary impede their access to a range of opportunities to build social capital and new clients. Perceptions about women business owners affect their interactions with banks, government officials, potential buyers, and peers. In Cambodia, women are often considered to have lower status

than men, which makes it difficult for women business leaders to be taken seriously. Although women manage the day-to-day operations and decision-making in many family enterprises in Vietnam, it is still important that husbands or other men family members are perceived to be the decision-makers.²¹

Beliefs about men and women as association members

Social perceptions about gender roles can limit women's involvement in associations. At the start of an agricultural project in Albania, social attitudes toward women routinely limited their participation in project activities, including their membership in producer associations. Men, in their roles as household heads, were assumed to be primary decision-makers for all the enterprises of farming families. Although women met project criteria for inclusion, and studies revealed they often owned enterprises and/or jointly managed farm enterprises with their husbands, few efforts

were made initially to reach out to them.²²

Beliefs about appropriate work

Beliefs about appropriate work and workplaces for men and women shape the allocation of labor even though they create distortions and inefficiencies in the labor market.²³ Dolan and Sorby argue that beliefs and assumptions about women contribute to the congregation of women into unskilled positions within processing plants. They suggest that the feminization of tasks is rooted in "a number of stylized assumptions that equate production imperatives of quality, consistency and speed with ostensibly 'feminine' traits of dexterity and conscientiousness."²⁴ For example, in packhouses associated with export-oriented high-value horticulture, women were hired to clean, cut, grade, sort, pack, seal, and weigh produce. Men, however, were hired as electricians and mechanics. In Egypt, differences were based on cultural perceptions that linked women's experience

BELIEFS AND PERCEPTIONS AFFECT:

- ✱ The gendered division of labor in the household and on the farm, which facilitates or impedes **On-Farm Productivity**;
- ✱ Ideas about the appropriateness of **Employment** opportunities for men and women;
- ✱ Expectations about men's and women's behavior, which shape their interactions with institutions and govern the **Business Enabling Environment**.

in domestic work (e.g., in food preparation) with the sensitive care that delicate horticultural products like strawberries needed to avoid high losses from bruising, but these were also lower-paid jobs that men did not want.²⁵

Beliefs about legal rights

Some studies suggest that discriminatory beliefs about women lead to differential treatment by regulatory officials. For example, a study in Kenya found that government officials enforce regulations differently for women.²⁶ Gender-based intimidation was a major issue reported in the interaction between women and civil servants. In this case, simply streamlining the licensing and registration processes will not necessarily overcome the constraints women face. While research suggests that women are more likely to register their businesses if procedures are simplified, it is also important to ensure that women are treated fairly by regulation officials.

LAWS, POLICIES, AND INSTITUTIONS

Gender roles influence how people are regarded and treated by formal and informal laws, policies, and institutions. Gender affects rights to legal documents, ownership and inheritance, representation, and due process. Many formal laws and institutional practices outside of the home erect barriers against women. Customary and statutory laws as well as institutional policies often formalize existing beliefs and practices, some of which are discriminatory, but laws can also be used to establish more egalitarian practices.

Legal rights to land

In agriculture, rights to land are critical. Studies highlight the importance of secure property rights for increased agricultural productivity.²⁷ Secure property rights create incentives for agricultural investment and outputs. Furthermore, access to and control over land is a cascading asset, meaning that land is often important for facilitating access to services, goods, and membership in the value chain. For example, land facilitates access to credit and membership in

associations. Many countries now have legal frameworks that afford both men and women equal access to land and property.

In some situations, customary and statutory law treats land access differently; sometimes conflicts exist within statutory law of different types. In Botswana, for example, land laws have not been harmonized with marriage law to facilitate women's landownership.²⁸

In Kenya, the Kenya Registered Land Act (RLA) allows for up to five people to register as owners of a plot of land. Plots are typically registered solely in the name of the head of household. According to the RLA, legislation overrides customary rights unless they are registered. User rights of land are rarely noted on the register; thus, most often the registration gives absolute title to the registered landowner. In other cases, additional legal requirements may constrain women from registering land. For example, in Guatemala, the law allows women to own land. However, one reason few women are legal landowners is that they often lack legal identity cards, which are required to register land.

Legal rights to land are often linked to marital status, where men's and women's rights in marriage are defined differently under the law. The Kenyan Law of Succession, which governs inheritance rights, terminates a widow's inheritance rights if she remarries, but a widower's rights remain intact. In Uganda, although legal provisions permit women to inherit 15 percent of matrimonial property upon the death of her husband, women are often not consulted about the

disposition of family land upon the death of the spouse.²⁹

Legal rights to employment

Employment laws often determine where and when men and women are eligible for work. In the Philippines, laws prohibit women from night work. Women are restricted from industrial undertakings that occur between the hours of ten o'clock at night and six o'clock in the morning.³⁰

Legal rights to services

Institutional policies define who has access to services. For example, agriculture cooperatives or producer associations, which require landownership as the basis for membership, may restrict women who have user rights to land but not ownership over land from becoming full and active members. If associations are the primary mechanism through which smallholders receive inputs, market information, and training services, gender inequalities in membership may impact productivity and market linkages.

Legal rights to credit

Women's lack of access to land and property in their own right or through joint titling and registration remains an obvious factor in countries where legal frameworks allow only a limited set of assets to be used as collateral. Legal frameworks requiring land as collateral for accessing credit actually impose two constraints on women: (1) Women typically do not own land themselves because land titling and property registration practices favor men. (2) Institutional policies may limit the use of nonland assets for collateral.

Where bank options reflect social biases that consider men "heads of household," a married woman may be required to obtain her husband's signature to access finance and credit options. The bank policy is built on the perception that men play a more important role in the household. In essence, the perception that men and women have an unequal position in the household is translated into institutional policy that reinforces the inequality of opportunity to access credit.

LAWS, POLICIES, AND INSTITUTIONS STRUCTURE:

- ✱ Hiring and labor practices that can affect the level and characteristics of men's and women's **Employment**;
- ✱ Men's and women's ability to access due process and to enforce contracts that mediate **Horizontal** and **Vertical** relationships; and
- ✱ How men and women, as producers and entrepreneurs, are treated under the existing **Business Enabling Environment**.

LINKING GENDER RELATIONS TO VALUE CHAIN OPERATIONS

Building on the Gender Dimensions Framework (GDF), this section of the handbook explores and

explains how gender issues impact value chain interventions. The discussion covers three topics common to value chain structure (vertical linkages and support services, horizontal linkages, and business enabling environment) and three topics that reflect critical aspects of the intersection between gender relations and agricultural development (on-farm productivity, employment, and entrepreneurship).

In each section, key GbCs are outlined (Table 2) and strategies (Table 3) to overcome them are discussed. It is not an exhaustive

discussion, but rather an illustration of how gender analysis illuminates challenges practitioners face in building gender equitable and competitive value chains. Nearly all GbCs can be addressed to some degree—if not eliminated—by careful consideration in the design, implementation, and monitoring of gender-sensitive indicators in agricultural value chain programs. The suggested strategies incorporate the characteristics of gender equitable and competitive value chains described in the introduction to the Handbook.



TABLE 2: ILLUSTRATIVE GENDER-BASED CONSTRAINTS

	On-Farm Productivity	Horizontal Linkages	Vertical Linkages	Business Enabling Environment	Employment and Entrepreneurship
Most critical GbCs related to:	Access to assets including: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ★ Land ★ Labor ★ Capital ★ Inputs ★ Technology ★ Information ★ Education 	Active participation including: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ★ Membership ★ Decision-making ★ Leadership in decision making and leadership 	Access to assets including: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ★ Land ★ Labor ★ Capital ★ Inputs ★ Technology ★ Information 	Laws, policies, and institutions <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ★ Formal discrimination in law and policy ★ Cross-sectoral or cross-jurisdictional inconsistencies ★ Unequal enforcement 	Access to assets including: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ★ Land ★ Labor ★ Capital ★ Education ★ Information ★ Training
Illustrative factors that contribute to or exacerbate these constraints include:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ★ Beliefs and perceptions about appropriate women's economic activity (e.g., as farmers or entrepreneurs) ★ Legal and regulatory frameworks related to property ownership and inheritance ★ Beliefs and perceptions about inheritance patterns 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ★ Lack of access to assets, such as land and capital, that facilitate participation and/or leadership ★ Beliefs and perceptions about the capabilities of women to lead 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ★ Beliefs and perceptions about appropriate jobs/tasks for men and women ★ Beliefs and perceptions about appropriateness for women to travel alone, at different times and to different locations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ★ Beliefs and perceptions that discourage women from participating in public fora ★ Beliefs and perceptions of officials with enforcement authority 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ★ Laws regulating employment terms and conditions, credit, and property ownership ★ Beliefs and perceptions about appropriate roles/jobs for women and men



ON-FARM PRODUCTIVITY

Increasing agricultural productivity among smallholder farmers has been the core of most national and multinational development interventions, emphasizing improved efficiency of labor, land, and other inputs, including water, in the production of marketable crops, such as staple food grains, livestock, and high-value fruits and vegetables for domestic, regional, and export markets. For many years, the focus was on men, who, as presumed and predominant heads of households, were the targets of development assistance. Gradually, appreciation for women's roles and responsibilities in agricultural production led to better identification of the gender differences that

affect the adoption and sustainability of agricultural innovations on smallholder farms and solutions to address them. In recent years, as small farmers have become incorporated into global networks of production, processing, and sales, a better understanding is emerging of how gender differences affect productivity in global value chains.

Increased productivity can be achieved in many ways. The application of science and technology to breed higher-yielding or pest- or drought-resistant varieties improves the productivity of labor and of seed. Improving the timing or sequencing of cultivation tasks and the application of pesticides and fertilizers can also raise yields while reducing labor. Costs associated with the use of farm equipment can be recouped by gains from cultivating larger acreage

with fewer hands. Improvements in postharvest storage by using temperature and humidity-controlled units can reduce losses to harvested production.

Improving women's on-farm productivity must address the time-poverty they face in balancing both domestic and agricultural responsibilities. Documenting how women's work in caring for and reproducing the household makes visible the way that value chain-related activities are embedded in and shaped by intrahousehold dynamics. At the same time, GbCs to agriculture productivity are not only the product of the intrahousehold relations that govern household practices but are also a reflection of the inadequacies of public policies that affect how women and men are differentially able to access assets and markets.





ACCESS TO LAND

Ownership, control, and access to land are critical pieces for improving agricultural productivity; when those who work the land also benefit from it, incentives are created to increase yields and provide good stewardship. Land not only benefits agriculture, but landowners also earn more nonfarm self-employment income than the landless.³¹

Legal discrimination and social norms restrict women's abilities to use and own land equally to men. Women are often restricted in their access to land through relationships with men, by marriage or kinship, and have relatively few opportunities to obtain formal ownership of land either independently or jointly. As a result, the gender gap in landownership is significant. Although data are incomplete, reports from countries around the world suggest that women's landownership rates vary from between 2 and 15 percent to 20 and 25 percent only in European countries. As land markets emerge, commercialization and privatization can exacerbate existing gender inequalities in land access. However, if commercialization and privatization are accompanied by more opportunities for women to earn income, then more equitable opportunities for both women and men to obtain land may result.³²

STRATEGIES

Facilitate access to land for women and other disadvantaged groups, for example, by helping producer associations and small businesses negotiate land access from the community or from local government (Box 1).

BOX 1

FACILITATING LAND ACCESS FOR LANDLESS GROUPS

- ✦ In Tanzania, the USAID-funded Smallholders Horticultural Outgrowers Project helped connect a women's group with a local farmer to grow and sell high-value vegetables, including baby corn and green beans. The women leased land from the farmer and received technical assistance from the project.
- ✦ In South Africa, the Marwa Honey Queens, a company that raises bees to produce honey, was established after four enterprising women visited an agricultural show and saw a demonstration on honeybee farming. They obtained a small piece of land from their local Department of Agriculture and were able to garner a larger plot from the local government. They have also convinced the local electrical utility to provide a loan for refurbishing existing buildings into office space. Within a few years, they were able to expand to 500 honeybee hives and purchase a truck and office equipment.

Sources: Tanzania field interviews, April 2009; Rubin, Deborah, Nomtuse Mbere, and Nancy Taggart, "South Africa Gender Assessment." USAID Women in Development Short-Term Technical Assistance and Training Project, Arlington, VA: DevTech Systems, Inc., November 2004, http://www.usaid.gov/our_work/cross-cutting_programs/wid/gender/gender_assessments.html.



ACCESS TO LABOR

Women typically dedicate significant unpaid labor to agricultural income-generating activities, and in many places, they carry the burden of domestic responsibilities as well. Their contribution to producing market and food crops is a critical, often unmeasured, labor input in many value chain programs.

Like land, women's access to labor is often mediated by their relationships with men through marriage and kinship, and they are further constrained in hiring labor by their relatively low incomes. Intrahousehold decision-making plays an important role in defining their rights to call on familial labor and for shaping how women use their own labor. Without access to additional labor, women's time-poverty becomes a significant constraint on productivity.

STRATEGIES

Assist project participants to work out cooperative labor arrangements or to use collective resources to overcome labor constraints.

BOX 2

In different projects in Tanzania, project participants spoke about finding creative ways to overcome some of their labor constraints.

- ✦ A seaweed cultivation project on the coast helped a producer association to get loans from a local bank and to purchase boats to transport their harvests to the shore instead of carrying them in bags on their heads.
- ✦ In a horticultural project, some participants worked on adjacent plots in rotation to help one another meet labor needs. Others cooperated with neighbors who were not project participants, asking them for help at weeding and harvest times when labor was critical and helping them on their village plots at other times.

Source: INGIA-VC Interviews in Tanzania, April 2009.



ACCESS TO WELL-DESIGNED TECHNOLOGY

Technology design that considers gender issues can significantly enhance on-farm productivity among smallholders. A recent intergovernmental report concluded that “a priority task for scientists is to develop technologies that can... reduce the hours of work and increase income per hour of work for women.”³³

Manual treadle pumps, for example, have been introduced for irrigation and have been successfully adopted by women in India where the newly irrigated fields increased yields, women's incomes, and a sense of empowerment.³⁴ Positive results were reported in Kenya and in Zambia, but in Zimbabwe, women reported feeling less comfortable with the pump operation. New technologies need to be carefully adapted, refined, or revised, in light of gender differences, to increase the likelihood of their adoption.³⁵

STRATEGIES

Design innovative technologies that meet women's labor needs, particularly those that ease time constraints and make the work easier.

The following key principles are important for the design of women's farm tools:

- ★ Weight: Tools should not be too heavy
- ★ Maneuverability: Tools should be easy to control
- ★ Durability: Tools should not wear out quickly
- ★ Repairability: Tools should be easy to repair
- ★ Socially acceptable: Tools, when used, should not harm women's reputation
- ★ Cost: Tools should be affordable

Source: IFAD, “What African Women Farmers Look for in Their Agricultural Implements.” January 2007, <http://www.ifad.org/gender/learning/sector/agriculture/74.htm>.



ACCESS TO EXTENSION AND HIGHER-QUALITY INPUTS

Women continue to be disadvantaged in accessing agricultural extension, whether from government or from private sources, and in learning about new methods for cultivation, storage, processing, and new products to grow. Women are a minority of agricultural extension agents, constituting only 15 percent of the world's total, according to the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) estimates.³⁶ Innovative techniques that are easily accessible to both women and men are needed, including expanding agricultural programming on radios, introducing free agricultural information as part of cell phone services, providing transportation and child care to enable women to attend farmer field days, among other options. Linked to difficulties in finding time and transportation, women often avoid using improved inputs because they are sold or distributed in quantities too large for women to manage easily.

STRATEGIES

Use proven communication strategies and appropriate communication channels to reach women as well as men with agricultural information, for example

- ✦ Hold demonstrations on farmer's fields
- ✦ Make information available free of charge
- ✦ Train agricultural extension officers who are men to reach out to women farmers
- ✦ Hire more agricultural extension officers who are women.





ENGAGING FARMERS IN AGRICULTURAL RESEARCH

Participatory research emerged in the 1970s as a productive way to enhance adoption of new crop varieties by smallholders. Bringing women into participatory research efforts ensures that the preferences of these end users are incorporated into the research program.

When research and extension are farmer-led, or when participatory research has a specific empowerment or farmer capacity building element, the process of participating and engaging in research can have a significant effect on farmers' human and social capital, hence creating the basis for sustainable local innovation through enhancing learning capability and knowledge generation in rural communities.³⁷

STRATEGIES

1. **Ensure research and dissemination programs are participatory, including both men and women, and offered at convenient times and locations so that knowledge of key practices will be offered to those most engaged in production, harvest, and storage processes (Box 3).**
2. **In conducting agricultural research, the following gender issues should be considered: access and control over the technology by men and women and potential displacement of women from income-earning work (Box 4).**

BOX 3

FACILITATING WOMEN'S PARTICIPATION IN AGRICULTURAL RESEARCH

Another innovative program has been pioneered by The World Vegetable Center. Its breeding program develops improved seeds for both indigenous and exotic vegetables. In a carefully designed outreach effort, WVC distributes improved seed in conjunction with on-site residential training programs at their Tanzanian research station and in extension visits to women's groups across Africa. Participants in the program are provided with small daily stipends or transportation subsidies. Uptake of the improved seeds has been sufficient to encourage local private seed companies to enter into the supply chain.

Source: The World Vegetable Center, <http://www.avrdc.org/>.

BOX 4

ADDRESSING GENDER ISSUES IN AGRICULTURAL RESEARCH

Participatory breeding efforts have involved women in on-farm trials to identify their preferences for different characteristics such as length of the growing season, cooking qualities, and taste. NERICA (New Rice for Africa) was developed at the African Rice Center with the help of local farmers, including many women, who participated in varietal selection efforts. First, the center planted demonstration plots of the upland rice that sought to incorporate the higher yields of Asian rice varieties with the disease resistance and drought tolerance of indigenous African varieties in village "rice gardens." Farmers were invited to observe the planting and growing process and to sample the harvest, and researchers collected their feedback. In subsequent seasons, farmers, including many women, tested the new varieties. They planted and harvested the test varieties on their own farms, reporting on both its favorable and less desirable characteristics. The feedback of local farmers, including women farmers, has helped to increase the popularity of the NERICA varieties, which is now thought to be planted by over 30,000 farmers in several West African countries.

Source: "The Warda Annual Report 1999." Bamako, Mali: Africa Rice Center, 1999, <http://www.warda.org/publications/AR99menu.htm>.



INCREASING WOMEN'S PRODUCTIVITY INCENTIVES

Intrahousehold dynamics play an important role in determining allocation of and benefits derived from labor inputs and is relevant to addressing gender issues within value chains because women dedicate significant unpaid labor to agricultural income-generating activities, and in many places, they continue to carry the burden of domestic responsibilities. Their contribution to producing market and food crops is a critical, often unmeasured labor input in many value chain programs. Women's significant contributions to agriculture with little or no remuneration create few incentives for them to increase their productivity.

Examples from the field reveal that women's lack of incentives to contribute to agricultural activities can have a direct effect on the volume and quality of the flow of goods in a value chain. As described in **Box 5**, gendered patterns of resource allocation within the household can reduce the supply of raw materials required for processing plants to deliver an adequate supply of goods to their buyers. As the case suggests, the issue is not just relevant to smallholder farms but also to other actors in the chain that are dependent on women's labor.

STRATEGIES

1. Design distribution mechanisms that reward women's unpaid labor.

By working with producers and sellers, value chain programs can design payment schemes that encourage positive change on gender relations and household incomes, while fostering collaboration among chain actors. For example, this could include cash payments and nonmonetary contributions to the household as explained in. Where payment is delivered to bank accounts, it is important to ensure that men and women have access to those accounts, and the project should encourage the use of joint bank accounts or ensure that women have access to an individual account without interference from spouses.

2. Adopt "farming as a family business" approaches.

These approaches aim to foster more cooperative efforts between men and women in planning and managing family farm enterprises to maximize household profits.* Specific topics that should be addressed include:

- ✦ Individual time and task allocation
- ✦ Family management and budgeting
- ✦ Conflict resolution

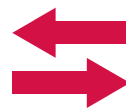
BOX 5

GENDERED PATTERNS OF RESOURCE DISTRIBUTION AFFECT SUPPLY EFFICIENCY

In Eldoret, Kenya, Mace Foods processes African Bird's Eye (ABE) chili for sale in Kenyan and in European markets. Smallholder farms provide Mace Foods with raw material. Women cultivate the chilies in small gardens, while men deliver the crop to the processing plant and collect payment. Shortly after the purchase of the first crop, decreasing supplies of ABE led Mace Foods to inquire about the on-farm production methods to assess any constraints. It found that married women farmers had abandoned chili production because they were not receiving returns for their labor; spouses were often retaining the proceeds and using them for personal expenses. Gendered patterns of household labor and resource distribution jeopardized Mace Foods's ability to meet the buyer's demand. To increase incentives for women to produce chili, Mace Foods, with the USAID Kenya Horticulture Development Program (KHDP), designed a payment system that included both cash and noncash rewards. Mace Foods distributed a pound of sugar, a desirable household commodity, along with the cash payments.

Source: INGIA-VC Interviews in Kenya, September 2008.

* See Bishop-Sambrook and Wonani "The household approach as an effective tool for gender empowerment," "Upgrading Cocoa Farming in Ecuador" Available at <http://www.acdivoca.org/acdivoca/PortalHub.nsf/ID/FeatureEcuadorCocoa>, and "Farming as a Family Business" Available at http://www.usaid.gov/our_work/cross-cutting_programs/wid/snapshot/africa/kenya/kenya_ag_me.html



HORIZONTAL LINKAGES

Improving the competitiveness of agricultural value chains in developing countries relies on increasing efficiency at all levels of the chain. As markets have liberalized and expanded across regional and national boundaries, leading firms have increasingly dominated the agricultural market, setting standards for product quantity, quality, size, and other characteristics. To deal more effectively with these lead firms, and to upgrade their own contributions to value chain operations, many actors are building horizontal linkages to improve their positions within the chain.

Horizontal linkages are defined as:

longer-term cooperative arrangements among firms that involve interdependence, trust and resource pooling in order to jointly accomplish common goals. . . . Inter-firm horizontal linkages can contribute to shared skills and resources and enhance product quality through common production standards. Such linkages also facilitate collective learning and risk sharing while increasing the potential for upgrading and innovation.³⁸

Horizontal linkages include member organizations at each level of the value chain, such as producer associations, cooperatives, and business associations. Horizontal

linkages may encompass both cooperative relationships with other firms at the same stage of the value chain, as well as relationships between firms and other types of organizations.³⁹ These organizations may have broad membership across a subsector, such as the Tanzania Horticulture Association, or more focused membership around a particular niche in the chain, such as an association for high-quality seed suppliers like the Seed Producers Association of Ghana or the Uganda Vanilla Exporters Association. They range in size from small groups of producers in one or several villages to national-level organizations of large firms.

Meeting market demand requires cooperation among farmers as it may be too difficult for individual smallholder farmers to meet large orders or purchase required inputs required to ensure their product

meets appropriate specifications. Globalgap certification allows for smallholder farmers to gain group certification to take advantage of economies of scale that would otherwise preclude individual farmers from accessing export markets. For this reason, horizontal linkages are often promoted through the creation or support of farmer producer groups or associations where economies of scale overcome market failures and increase incentives to buyers and producers to engage in a market relationship.

Successful horizontal linkages provide members of these types of organizations with benefits that are not possible when working as individuals. By establishing either formal or informal groups and working together, associations can respond to the difficulties of doing business, such as lack of access to key markets, high costs

or inadequate supply of inputs or product, or lack of financing. In producer organizations and trade associations, members can often access new or more numerous services from other actors in the value chain, including inputs, credit, and education or training. Costs are reduced through economies of scale. Bargaining power is increased through the power of plurality.⁴⁰

Although all actors in value chains can benefit from improving horizontal linkages, many projects remain focused on the producers with project goals to “strengthen producer associations.” As a result, producer association examples are overrepresented in the discussion following.





EQUITABLE PARTICIPATION AND MEMBERSHIP

One key gender constraint in building horizontal linkages relates to inequitable participation in the associations. Membership criteria sometimes discourage women's active participation, by insisting on a single membership for an entire family in the name of the head of the household or by requiring demonstration of legal land ownership. In one Kenyan dairy producer association, for example, both of these conditions were in force. Even though women were the active managers of dairy production on the family farms, their husbands were the legal association members. When membership criteria limit participation of some potential members, they do not gain the benefits of improving their information about market opportunities and prices, getting extension services, or accessing finance—all of which limit their productivity.

Even with extra support, women remain a minority of owners of agribusiness firms and will typically form a smaller minority in associations that are not targeted to women.

STRATEGIES

- 1. Ensure that information about new associations is announced using communication channels used by both men and women.**
- 2. Ensure that meetings are held at times and in venues that facilitate women's participation.**
- 3. Encourage association membership to be based on output (e.g., liters of milk for sale or baskets of tomatoes) rather than access to factors of production (e.g., legal title to land or registered ownership of animals).**
- 4. Create women-only associations if appropriate to encourage the entry of more women into new economic arenas.**
- 5. Investigate potential barriers to women's entry and continued membership into associations. This information will help determine entry and membership fees at a level and on a payment schedule both women and men can manage.**
- 6. Provide business development services to women within associations.**



SUPPORTING WOMEN'S LEADERSHIP

To strengthen horizontal linkages successfully, members need to share a common purpose. Men and women within and across groups may have different motivations for joining or develop different interests as operations grow and change. Perceptions about men's and women's leadership qualities as well as structural constraints on time and mobility tend to channel men into senior leadership and restrict women to clerical positions. Women members will benefit more broadly from association memberships when they have equal opportunity to participate in group leadership and to set association priorities and policies.

STRATEGIES

1. **Provide training on association governance that establishes gender equitable principles of leadership and decision-making (Box 6).**
2. **Investigate potential barriers to women's leadership positions within associations.**

BOX 6

SETTING QUOTAS FOR SUPPORTING WOMEN'S LEADERSHIP

A coastal zone management project in Tanzania found that women were not actively participating in the village producer associations and environmental management groups and purposefully set out to achieve more gender equitable participation

A meeting was . . . held with both men and women to discuss the lack of participation by the women. The men recognized that when women did not participate, their understanding of the issues would suffer and the men themselves would not benefit from the ideas, experiences, suggestions and help they could get from the women. [The men] perceived the lack of participation by women to be the result of customs and tradition, rather than their own unwillingness to listen to the women, the poor timing of the meetings or the lack of advance notice, as identified by the women themselves. . . . Men and women discussed their different perceptions. The women decided that they would attend the meetings and men promised that they would listen to the women, and that meetings would be held at a time that would be more suitable for women and announced in a better manner. Subsequently women attended many of the meetings (although initially in low numbers); they took seats in the village environmental committees, and participated in the formulation of the fisheries management agreement.

The project helped the village to establish quotas for women's committee membership to reflect the activities on which women worked.

Sources: Van Ingen, T., C. Kawau, and S. Wells. "Gender Equity in Coastal Zone Management: Experiences from Tanga, Tanzania." The World Conservation Union, December 2002.



VERTICAL LINKAGES

The rationale for vertically integrating actions along a value chain is to overcome market failures in credit, information, factors of production, procurement of raw materials, as well as in transaction costs that govern the identification of sellers, and the management, negotiation, and enforcement of the market linkages.⁴¹ Vertical linkages refer to the buyer-seller relationship that link input suppliers, producers, processors, exporters, and other buyers. These range from one-off spot market transactions to contract farming, with value chain development programs focusing on the creation of vertically integrated relationships. The difference in the range of possible linkages is related to the intensity of the relationship between the actors: market transactions between buyers and sellers in spot markets are less

intense than between producers and buyers in contract farming.

The demands of certain markets, such as international or organic markets, create incentives to developing strong vertical linkages between buyers and sellers. These markets are more knowledge intensive and therefore buyers and sellers must collaborate to ensure that products are grown, produced, and processed to meet market requirements and specifications. The action of moving toward more coordinated and predictable markets requires a host of other nonmarket transactions, such as information, knowledge, and financial and business services, to facilitate the linkage and overcome market failures. In some value chains, these support services may be provided through commercial business development firms, while in other cases, these services may be embedded within the buyer-seller transaction.

Because of the prominent role of women as farmers and producers, value chain practitioners often overlook opportunities to enhance women's participation in other market transactions as owners of input supply shops, traders, and sales agents. Yet evidence from different regions reveals that women are participating in market linkages both as buyers and as sellers of goods and services at different points in the chain. In Cambodia, for example, many input supply shops providing livestock feeds to swine producers are women. In many parts of West Africa, women conduct most marketplace-based agriculture trade.⁴² Even in a highly mobility-constrained environment such as Pakistan, women are sales agents.⁴³ Some of the gender-based challenges facing women as employees and entrepreneurs at other levels of the chain are considered under the "Employment" and "Entrepreneurship" sections.





INCREASING ACCESS TO MARKETS

Access to markets is determined by a variety of factors—resource endowments, capital, knowledge, and services, as well as intrahousehold patterns of resource allocation. Increasingly complex vertical relationships require different combinations of tangible and intangible assets. Whereas farmers may adequately meet the demand for vegetables in local markets on small plots of land or by applying few inputs, to produce larger quantities that meet the specifications of more demanding buyers (and end consumers), farmers need more land and credit, as well as knowledge, trust, and networks that can facilitate vertically integrated relationships. Globalgap certification requires a strong asset base of land and water, as well as stable and long-term access to credit to pay for inspections and overhead. Asset inequality affects the different markets in which men and women participate

STRATEGIES

1. Identify gender equitable market opportunities.

Programs can integrate specific criteria in their market selection activities to ensure that decision-making considers gender inequalities (Box 7). Fintrac developed a gender mainstreaming approach to ensure its activities improve women's participation and incomes, as well as empowerment, autonomy, and well-being. Part of its gender mainstreaming guide provides staff with criteria to help them identify "gender-friendly activities" in their selection of crops, enterprises, and technologies. For example, gender-friendly crops include those with the potential to bolster food security, are characterized by low input and risk, and are grown close to home.⁴⁴

2. Target markets in which discriminating consumers or the private sector can be partners in supporting gender equitable business practices, for example, fair trade certification (Box 8).

IDENTIFYING GENDER EQUITABLE MARKET OPPORTUNITIES

Identifying gender equitable market opportunities requires an understanding of the socioeconomic context of agricultural value chains. An assessment of these opportunities will:

- ★ Reveal the presence and absence of women in different parts of the chain, highlighting where women entrepreneurs exist
- ★ Identify opportunities to easily increase employment and income opportunities for women, e.g., informal, domestic crops, microprocessing, or trading
- ★ Assess the gender-based constraints facing women in chains where their presence is low
- ★ Consider upgrading opportunities with potential to affect incomes, as well as improve food security or nutrition, e.g., food-grade milk cans for the informal dairy sector, high-nutrition crops for kitchen gardens

Promoting Gender Equitable and Competitive Agricultural Value Chain is less concerned with targeting women-dominated value chains than with ensuring that women and men have equal opportunities to participate in all value chains. While it may be appropriate in some socioeconomic contexts to target women-dominated value chains, it is just as important to target value chains in which the constraints barring women from entering or upgrading their skills are high relative to men.

BOX 7

THE WOMEN-OWNED AND MANAGED SHEA NUT VALUE CHAIN

Sudanese women have long been the primary guardians of the lulu, or shea nut tree, found in southern Sudan. Building on this role, the Medical Emergency and Development International Committee (MEDIC) supported the development of a women-owned and managed shea nut value chain under the USAID-funded Lulu Livelihoods Program. Women are the core members up and down the chain that produce, process, and market Lulu Life moisturizers, soap, and lotions. The growing attention to the benefits of shea butter within the skin care and cosmetics industry, coupled with women's historically recognized role as keepers of the trees, provided a unique opportunity to build a competitive value chain with women at the center. At the same time, women's responsibility for household food security provided appropriate incentives for them to dedicate time to this lucrative income-generating opportunity. The compelling story of how these conflict-affected women support their families through the income derived from their labor drives the sale of this product in Kenyan and in U.S. markets among discriminating consumers. Between 2004 and 2005, Lulu Life saw its sales in Kenya triple in size, reaching a total of \$19,300 in 2005. Future opportunities focus on expanding market opportunities in natural product sectors and among hotel amenity industries.

Sources: Armstrong, Susan, Gordon Wagner, Kristina Belknap, and Carla Viezee. "Value Chain Framework and the LuLu Livelihoods Program." USAID Accelerated Microenterprise Advancement Project, May 2008, <http://www.microlinks.org>; USAID, "LuLu Harvest Yields Livelihoods," http://www.usaid.gov/stories/sudan/successstory_sudan_lulu.html.

BOX 8

ENGAGING CONSUMERS TO SUPPORT GENDER EQUALITY

Discriminating consumers are increasingly changing the way global production and marketing processes develop. Firms interested in targeting these consumers consider other "bottom line" issues, including the environment, labor conditions, and fair pay. Fair trade schemes often include gender equity as one of their standards in certification programs. The World Fair Trade Organization includes gender equity as one of its principles stating, "Fair Trade means that women's work is properly valued and rewarded." These strategies often allow firms to command a higher value or price for their products and provide greater benefits to their employees. For example, Café Femenino is a women-owned brand of coffee grown in northern Peru and sold in U.S. and Canadian markets as a fair trade product certified by the Fair Trade Labeling Organization (FLO). The 400 women that grow the coffee make about 17 cents more per pound than the average Peruvian coffee farmer. In addition to receiving higher incomes, the women also apportion a percentage of their sales to local infrastructure projects through their Café Femenino Foundation.

Source: Hoagland, Sadie. "Female Coffee Growers Find New Freedoms in Peru," February 5, 2006, <http://www.womensenews.org/article.cfm/dyn/aid/2626/>.



INTEGRATING FINANCIAL AND BUSINESS DEVELOPMENT SERVICES

The efficient provision of financial and business development services requires an understanding of gender issues facing both the client and the service provider.

On the client side, women smallholder farmers often have limited access to information about the services available or the value of those services to their farm. Generally, they also have less access to cash, which translates into lower purchasing power. They also face more severe credit constraints relative to men. The plots and livestock under their control may require different inputs and services than those men require, in terms of both size and type of input or service.

The availability of appropriate services and financial options may be reduced by perceptions about farming that cause service providers to overlook women as potential clients. Men are often considered lead farmers and are targeted for services. Yet women are actively involved in farming as unpaid family workers or as farm managers when men have sought wage employment elsewhere. These women stand to benefit greatly from services tailored to their needs.

However, financial institutions and service providers often lack information about the purchasing power of and inputs required for women farmers. Interviews conducted in Tanzania and

Kenya indicated that men's and women's purchases differed. Men purchased in bulk while women purchased more frequently but in smaller quantities. Differences may be due to differences in size

of plots or purchasing power. Not understanding the needs of men and women results in poor targeting and offering the wrong goods, finances, and services.

STRATEGIES

1. Identify and design inputs, financial products, and business development services tailored to men's and women's needs.

For input suppliers, it is important to capture men's and women's different needs to offer appropriate supplies and to tailor the packaging and pricing of their inputs.⁴⁵ Supplies should be sold in sizes and quantities for the end user. In Malawi and Cameroon, research found that when suppliers reduced the quantities and sold the goods in smaller, easily transportable bags, women increased their purchase and use of the products.⁴⁶

2. Support women entrepreneurs as providers of goods and service.

Women can be engaged as actors beyond the production stage, providing valuable services to men and women producers as input suppliers, veterinarians, and sales agents. Women are already doing so in many places, including Albania, Cambodia, and Kenya, and evidence from Zambia suggests that there may be greater potential for expanding women's opportunities.⁴⁷ In Pakistan, women were trained as sales agents, providing not only market linkage services but also improving the flow of information and services between producers and retailers (Box 9).

3. Encourage the private sector to target women as clients.

THE BUSINESS CASE FOR ADDRESSING WOMEN ENTREPRENEURS' LACK OF ACCESS TO CAPITAL

Identifying gender equitable market opportunities requires an understanding of the socioeconomic context of agricultural value chains. An assessment of these opportunities will:

- ✳ Women entrepreneurs make up a growing and largely unmet and underserved market.
- ✳ Women are reliable customers. In microfinance they have a 95 percent repayment rate.
- ✳ Targeting women customers allows finance institutions to differentiate themselves in the competitive micro-, small, and medium enterprises (MSME) market.

Source: IFC. "Women Entrepreneurs and Access to Finance," November 2006, http://www.ifc.org/ifcext/sustainability.nsf/Content/Gender_Tools_AccesstoFinance.



INCREASING ACCESS TO MARKET INFORMATION SYSTEMS

Farming is increasingly a knowledge-intensive enterprise. Market information about prices, clients, and consumer preferences is critical for integrating smallholder farmers into value chains and enhancing their ability to negotiate prices, increase production, and meet buyer specifications. Information is disseminated and shared through informal social networks and formal market information systems (MIS). These are not gender neutral; men and women face different constraints in accessing different types of MIS.

Gender differences in access to social networks may either facilitate or limit the transfer of knowledge between and among men and women of different classes, ages, and ethnicities. Time, mobility, and space are key features of social networking practices. Time is needed to meet with peers and clients, to converse, and to exchange information. The ability to travel helps expand networking opportunities outside of one's household, private social circle, or village. It is important to support men's and women's access to spaces in which information is exchanged, such as farmer field schools, village markets, or social gatherings.

Developing formal MIS also require consideration of men's and women's

access to information, including a range of different technologies to disseminate information such as radio, Internet, short message service (sms), and television. If the technologies are not free or depend on literacy skills, men and women will likely face differential access.

Other MIS may include organizing market information points for buyers and sellers. In these cases, women's access will be affected by their time and mobility as well as constraints and expectations about appropriate public behavior.

STRATEGIES

Identify and build market information systems that target the information channels used by men and women.

Upgrading or building new market information systems should include both high- and low-technology solutions to ensure that market information is widely available. This may require complementing expansion of information dissemination through websites and sms with the use of men's and women's social networks or men and women sales agents.





FOSTERING TRUST AND COLLABORATION

Trust—although difficult to measure or create—is a key ingredient in forging collaborative relationships that support value chain development and foster systemic change. Trust takes time to build and is easily lost. Social capital fosters trusting relationships by reducing uncertainty about individuals.⁴⁸ Trust is therefore linked to social networking and fosters information dissemination.

Social perceptions about women as farmers, entrepreneurs, and extension officers affect how people act, speak, and behave. Negative stereotypes may lead to mistrust or exclusions, limiting women's ability to participate in and benefit from value chain activities (Box 10).

Positive perceptions of women's capabilities do not always translate into increased participation and opportunities for women. Despite the advantages input suppliers in the Zambia PROFIT project see in women rural sales agents, few women become agents. Agent selection is made by the communities themselves who use other criteria. This suggests that there is an opportunity for increasing women's participation in this section of the chain.⁴⁹ The social capital among women may foster a collaborative relationship between rural sales agents and producers.

STRATEGIES

1. Recruit women market facilitators, loan officers, or sales agents.
2. Promote gender equitable market facilitation.

BOX 9

ENGAGING WOMEN AS MARKET FACILITATORS

The “Behind the Veil” project implemented in Pakistan between 2002 and 2004 aimed to develop a value chain that linked homebound rural embroiderers to high-value urban markets. Because of the severe mobility constraints facing the women rural embroiderers, they often had imperfect information about the prices, quality, and design valued by urban consumers. In an effort to improve the efficiency along this chain and empower the women rural embroiderers, Mennonite Economic Development Associates (MEDA) and its partner the Entrepreneurship Community Development Institute (ECDI) promoted the integration of women sales agents who provided the vital link between the embroiderers and urban retailers. Because their interaction with the homebound rural embroiderers was socially acceptable, they were able to build a relationship with embroiderers and provide them with critical market information.

Source: McVay, Mary and Alex Snelgrove. “Program Design for Value Chain Initiatives.” Lancaster, PA: Mennonite Economic Development Associates, December 2007.

PRINCIPLES OF GENDER EQUITABLE MARKET FACILITATION

Increasingly, value chain programs are adopting market facilitation approaches to strengthen vertical linkages. Market facilitators can act as “gender equity” facilitators to ensure that, as they build vertical relationships along the chain, they support gender equity goals.

Gender equitable market facilitators should:

- ✧ Approach men and women as equal actors in the value chain.
- ✧ Understand different constraints facing men and women in building vertical relationships, e.g.,
 - Asset level
 - Time and mobility
 - Education and knowledge
 - Discriminatory beliefs
 - Information channels and networks
- ✧ Promote targeting of women as clients and recipients of goods and services.
- ✧ Mentor women leaders.

GENDER PERCEPTIONS CREATE DISINCENTIVES TO BUILDING COLLABORATIVE MARKET RELATIONSHIPS

The Mtazamo Vegetable Growers (MVG) is working with Kilimo Impact Tanzania (KIT) in Arusha, Tanzania, to provide high-value vegetables to Home Grown, a Kenya-based horticulture export company. MVG is an all-women producer group that leases land, acquires inputs, and accesses export markets through KIT. The MVG Executive Board has one employee, a manager whose tasks include overseeing the bank account, distributing payments, and monitoring input use. The relationship between the all-women executive board and KIT has been difficult for both parties. Interviews with the manager, a local association-building service provider and the commercial farmer, revealed a widely held perception that the women of the executive board lacked the capacity and were reluctant to fulfill their obligations as leaders of the executive board. However, the women expressed confidence in their ability to perform their functions if trained properly and uncertainty about the long-term sustainability of the arrangement with KIT. The interviews revealed conflicting perceptions about the production arrangement linking MVG and KIT. Miscommunication between the two parties created distrust. Moreover, the gender relations embedded in the arrangement clouded the ability to judge a proper course of action. The majority of the managers, project staff, and supervisors were men. While both parties were committed to maintaining the relationship in the long term, the perception of the women's lack of capacity held by the managers, supervisors, and project staff led them to believe that in the future mixed-sex groups would be more appropriate partners.

Source: INGIA-VC Interviews in Tanzania, April 2009.



BUSINESS ENABLING ENVIRONMENT

Interest in understanding the extent to which the business environment facilitates or constrains micro- and small-enterprise growth is growing. The business enabling environment includes norms and customs, laws, regulations, policies, international trade agreements, and public infrastructure that affect the movement of a product or service along the value chain.⁵⁰ Research suggests that addressing the following regulations has significant impact on small-firm growth: starting and closing a business, dealing with licenses, employee hiring and firing decisions, exporting and importing of goods, paying taxes, protecting investors, and obtaining credit.⁵¹ Improving the business enabling environment does not mean simply changing laws. It requires successful policy reform, which includes addressing the implementation of the laws, regulatory burdens, business relations, and incentives that affect business decisions.⁵² Identifying policy reforms that matter to value chain participants is essential for developing a successful policy reform strategy.

Policies and institutions mediate men's and women's access to economic opportunities. Men and women are often differentially treated and affected by formal and informal laws, policies, and regulations.

To address gender-related policy impediments effectively, it is important to identify these differences in specific locations.



REFORMING BUSINESS REGISTRATION AND LICENSING REQUIREMENTS

There is evidence that registered businesses are more likely to grow than unregistered, informal businesses.

Registration seems to be an epoch in the lifestyle of informal firms and is crucial for firm graduation. This finding leads to the conclusion that informality imposes major penalties on firms with uncertain legal status that reduces access to credit and public services such as electricity, telephone and water, all of which are important for improved performance and graduation.⁵³

While women are highly active as micro- and small entrepreneurs, they are less likely than men to have formal, registered businesses. For example, while women in Cambodia represent 55 percent of business owners, most of their businesses are informal. In Mexico, women represent 30 percent of all business owners but own only 14 percent of all formal businesses.

Formalization is an important step in enterprise growth. Men and women often face different constraints in this process. Studies indicate that

the following factors often inhibit the ability of women to register their businesses more than men:

- ✧ **Time-Poverty.** Women entrepreneurs often combine household duties with their business activities. Relative to men, women tend to be more “time-poor.” If licensing procedures are cumbersome, women may face greater difficulties formalizing their businesses.
- ✧ **Cost.** High registration and licensing fees may restrict cash-constrained women from formalizing their businesses.⁵⁴
- ✧ **Discriminatory Laws.** Women and men are often treated differently under the law. For example, formal laws that require married women to gain their husbands' permission before starting a business may impede their ability to register these businesses.⁵⁵
- ✧ **Access to Information.** Men, on average, have higher literacy and education rates than women, making it easier for them to find information about business regulations. Men are often able to socialize with government officials outside of work to gain greater understanding of business requirements. In Cambodia, business regulations are privileged knowledge for government staff or offered to the public in ways less accessible to women. Summaries are published in the Royal Gazette or on the Internet; few women have access to either of these sources of information.

STRATEGIES

1. Identify and address policies and procedures that adversely affect either men or women.

A gender analysis of policies and procedures is required to understand how men and women are differentially affected by the legal and regulatory environment. The Government of Uganda commissioned a Regulatory Cost Survey in 2004. The study revealed that the trade license procedures were negatively affecting women. Only women with the financial resources required to hire a lawyer successfully fulfilled the procedures. On the basis of the study's results, Uganda simplified the procedures and witnessed a significant increase in women formalizing their businesses.⁵⁶

2. Pay attention to gender differences in cost, time, and required information when streamlining the registration process (Box 11).

3. Design dissemination strategies that use both men's and women's information channels.

Ensure that registration and licensing procedures and advertisements are placed in public sources, particularly those that women have access to, such as radio, newspapers, local and regional commerce associations, women's organizations, and the Internet. Women entrepreneurs in Vietnam, for example, suggested that disseminating information related to laws, policies, and potential changes through business associations as well as public media would increase women's access to information.

4. Promote the development of business assistance programs and partnerships that assist women entrepreneurs.

Projects can encourage assistance programs and partnerships that facilitate women's access to business-related services, such as registration and license applications (Box 12).

BOX 11

THE GOVERNMENT OF RWANDA FACILITATES WOMEN'S BUSINESS REGISTRATION

The government of Rwanda is taking important steps to facilitate women's business registration. These include appropriate opening hours that accommodate women's schedules; hiring women staff in the registration offices; awareness campaign for women that addresses why and how to register; and registration cost recovery program to help encourage cash-constrained women to register their businesses.

Source: IFC. "Voices of Women Entrepreneurs in Rwanda," October 2008, [http://www.ifc.org/ifcext/sustainability.nsf/AttachmentsByTitle/p_Gender_VoicesofWomenEntrepreneurs_Rwanda/\\$FILE/7024English_Final.pdf](http://www.ifc.org/ifcext/sustainability.nsf/AttachmentsByTitle/p_Gender_VoicesofWomenEntrepreneurs_Rwanda/$FILE/7024English_Final.pdf).

BOX 12

EGYPT'S "ONE-STOP-SHOP"

The Women Business Development Center (WBDC), established under the umbrella of the National Council for Women, launched a "One-Stop-Shop" that provides women entrepreneurs with tools to establish, run, and grow small and medium enterprises. The services provided through WBDC include:

- ✦ Training
- ✦ Business counseling
- ✦ Assisting women in developing e-marketing websites
- ✦ Online information for SMEs
- ✦ IT support
- ✦ Workshops related to business registration and licensing

Source: National Council for Women. "The Women Business Development Center," http://www.ncwegypt.com/english/prog_wbdc.jsp.



STRENGTHEN PUBLIC-PRIVATE SECTOR COORDINATION

Public-private dialogue (PPD) is increasingly regarded as a key component for effective policy reform.⁵⁷ Through PPDs, reforms are defined, policy proposals are adopted, and trust between the public and private sector is built. Public and private actors work together to establish a shared vision and common set of priorities. While PPD is a promising practice for promoting reform, women are often underrepresented in such forums. Studies highlight that women's lack of participation in public-private dialogues is often because of social norms, mobility restrictions, and underrepresentation in associations. Social norms and expectations that discourage women from mixing freely with men often limit women's participation in public-private dialogue.⁵⁸ Public-private partnerships often emerge when either the government reaches out to business associations or when associations lobby public institutions. Associations provide a vehicle for voicing concerns and perspectives on policy issues. Where women's participation in associations is low, they may have greater difficulty engaging in PPDs.

Facilitating opportunities for both men and women to participate in PPDs is important for ensuring that a broad range of constituencies are engaged and represented.

STRATEGIES

1. **Take into consideration women's time and mobility constraints when designing PPD activities (Box 13).**
2. **Ensure women's business needs are included in PPD agendas.**

Women and men often possess different business needs and priorities. Ensuring proportional representation will create greater balance and potentially address a broader set of interests (Box 14).

BOX 13

INCREASING WOMEN'S PARTICIPATION IN PPD

To address the constraint of women's limited participation in public-private dialogue in Afghanistan, UNIFEM supported the establishment of the Afghan Women's Business Council. Women entrepreneurs now have a channel through which to voice their concerns. The South African government launched a women entrepreneur's network to enable women to collectively lobby the government on policy and legislation issues.

Source: World Bank. "Gender and Development Briefing Notes: Private Sector Development & Gender," January 2007, http://siteresources.worldbank.org/INTGENDER/Resources/Gender_PSD_Feb07.pdf.

BOX 14

MONITORING WOMEN'S ENGAGEMENT IN PPD

The Africa Public-Private Dialogue used the questions below to monitor the extent to which women were engaged in their PPD efforts.

1. How many men/women are in the institutions, committees, and decision-making bodies through which the PPD work is done?
2. Have women's business constraints been presented and discussed?
3. Are women's business issues on the PPD agenda?
4. What actions are the PPD team taking to address gender issues in its work?

Source: Africa Public-Private Dialogue, http://www.publicprivatedialogue.org/workshop%202008/Africa_PPD_2008_material_requested_from_participants.pdf.



EMPLOYMENT

Agriculture remains highly labor intensive in many developing countries. Both production for home consumption and commercial farming across the value chain rely on the use of unpaid, paid, permanent, seasonal, and temporary workers. One aim of addressing gender issues in value chains is to increase the level and quality of men's and women's participation throughout the chain, not only in production but also in underrepresented occupations among all actors.



IMPROVING THE CONDITIONS OF WORK ENVIRONMENTS

An increased level of women's employment, primarily in temporary and informal positions, characterizes the expanding agro-export production. Women benefit from paid employment with increased economic independence, improved bargaining power within the household, and personal empowerment. To promote more gender equitable employment opportunities, value chain development should look not only at the number of women's jobs along the chain but also the quality of those jobs.

In the agricultural sector, many women's terms of employment are insecure, marked by short-term contracts with limited social protection. Women often work long hours under high pressure in unhealthy conditions. Studies suggest that women experience more precarious employment conditions because of their limited assets, limited involvement in organizations and associations, and lack of protection and benefits. As a result of the lack of protection and benefits, including limits on overtime, rest days, sick leave, and maternity leave, women's health and well-being is often compromised and leads to high turnover, costing firms in training and management.⁵⁹

STRATEGIES

1. Encourage sector-wide development of codes of conduct or employment standards.

There is recognition that gender equitable policies and practices are not only good for women, they are good for business. Projects can encourage their private sector partners to adopt codes of conduct that facilitate healthy and successful work environments for women. Such efforts may include financial assistance programs for schooling, transportation to and from work, guidelines on occupational safety, pay equity policies, on-site health clinics, and maternity leave (Box 15).⁶⁰

2. Encourage formal laws that promote gender equity in the workplace (Box 16).

BOX 15

UNDP SUPPORT EQUALITY SEAL

In Costa Rica, the UNDP supported the development of the Equality Seal (labor certification on gender equality). It is a voluntary certification process (ISO standards) for the private sector that verifies that a company is meeting standards that promote workplace equality for women and men. Fresquita Vegetales is a certified enterprise in Costa Rica that promotes gender equality in recruitment, remuneration, training opportunities, and labor rights. It provides medical services and has policies on sexual harassment and work-family balance, such as maternity leave and flexible schedules for pregnant and breast-feeding workers. A recent evaluation of Fresquita Vegetales provides evidence that the Equality Seal has increased labor productivity and a work environment free from discrimination and gender inequality.

Source: Ad Melkert. "Gender and Millennium Development Goals," October 2008, <http://content.undp.org/go/newsroom/2008/october/ad-melkert-on-gender-and-millennium-development-goals-mdgs.en?src=print>

BOX 16

IMPROVING WORKING CONDITIONS FOR MEN AND WOMEN THROUGH THE LEGAL FRAMEWORK

- ✳ South Africa: The Employment Equity Act (1998) provides for protection of all workers, including agricultural laborers, against discrimination based on gender, sex, pregnancy, marital status, and family responsibilities.
- ✳ Cambodia: Labor Law Article 186 states that enterprises with at least 100 women are required to provide day-care centers or pay child-care fees, provide one hour of paid time off for breast-feeding mothers, and provide nursing rooms at or near the workplace.

Source: Better Factories Cambodia. "Providing Support to Working Mothers," September 2007, <http://www.betterfactories.org>; World Bank, FAO, and IFAD. Gender in Agriculture Sourcebook. Washington, DC: World Bank, 2009, <http://worldbank.org/genderinag>.



INCREASING EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITIES

Even though women comprise a large percentage of agricultural laborers, improving the productivity and efficiency of agricultural value chains will not automatically benefit women. The agricultural sector is characterized by high levels of sex segmentation. Women are often hired for labor-intensive, low-waged, seasonal tasks, while men occupy the majority of permanent jobs, as well as management positions.⁶¹ The literature suggests several factors that perpetuate occupational sex segmentation, including beliefs and perceptions, lack of access to education, and lack of access to training and skills development.

The clustering of women in low-entry, low-return activities limits their opportunities to acquire new skills.⁶² In agro-industries, formal training is often provided to permanent workers who tend to be men (e.g., in management or in the operation of machinery). Temporary women workers typically gain skills on the job through repetitive task performance.⁶³ As such, women are less able than men to increase their wages and move into supervisory and managerial positions. Reduced employment opportunities for women may reduce the average ability of the workforce; therefore, leading to lower economic growth.

STRATEGIES

Partner with the private sector to upgrade women's workforce skills.

Projects can address women's limited employment opportunities by working with the private sector to design programs and activities that equip women for technical and managerial positions. Promising practices include designing firm-specific or sector-wide skills development programs for women and establishing formal mentoring schemes with tracks for promotion. Additional principles for advancing women's employment opportunities are found in Calvert Investments Women's Principles.

CALVERT INVESTMENTS WOMEN'S PRINCIPLES

Calvert Investments established seven core principles to provide companies with a set of goals they can aspire to and measure their progress against in achieving greater gender equity. The seven principles include:

1. Employment and Compensation (e.g., fair wages and elimination of discrimination)
2. Work-Life Balance and Career Development (e.g., support access to child care and provide professional development opportunities)
3. Health, Safety, and Freedom from Violence (e.g., prohibit and prevent violence, eliminate unsafe work environments, provide leave time for medical care)
4. Management and Governance (e.g., proactive efforts to recruit women for managerial positions and proactive efforts to ensure women's participation in decision-making bodies)
5. Business, Supply Chain, and Marketing Practices (e.g., encourage women's entrepreneurship and respect dignity of women in sales and advertising materials)
6. Civic and Community Engagement (e.g., encourage women in nontraditional fields and respect employees' voluntary freedom of association)
7. Transparency and Accountability (e.g., publicize commitments to gender equality, establish benchmarks, and conduct periodic self-evaluations)

Source: Calvert Investments. "Calvert Women's Principles," March 5, 2009, <http://www.calvert.com/womensPrinciples.html>.



ENTREPRENEURSHIP

A focus on women's critical roles as producers and agricultural wagedworkers has sometimes been at the expense of supporting women agribusiness entrepreneurs. Women entrepreneurs produce, manage businesses and households, hire workers, earn income, borrow and save, and provide a range of services for businesses in agricultural value chains. They are a significant entrepreneurial force as owners of farms, input supply stores, service delivery businesses, and export firms whose contributions to local,

national, and global economies are far reaching. Globally, women lead roughly 38 percent of all registered small businesses (Box 17).⁶⁴

The enterprising playing field is not equal. Women-owned businesses, despite their strengths, face different constraints from men-owned businesses in growing and expanding their enterprises. Value chain programs can help to overcome the barriers women face in starting their businesses, accessing credit, and networking. The result will identify and foster women-owned businesses into becoming lead firms and employers at multiple levels of the value chain.

Women entrepreneurs are not an undifferentiated mass; a number of factors mediate their access to the

productive resources that facilitate their entry into value chains as entrepreneurs. Like men, women who have initial endowments of land and financial capital are better poised to enter markets than their less asset-wealthy competitors. Women entrepreneurs with little more than their labor to sell are likely to cluster in the informal economy, in small production units that are unregistered and where they may not pay taxes on income, labor, or capital. These smaller women entrepreneurs face different sets of opportunities and constraints scaling up their economic activities and entering new markets.

Little sex-disaggregated data on entrepreneurship in agriculture is available, except in micro-food processing and trading. Women are often concentrated in small-scale, retail trading but are less represented as intermediaries or wholesalers (Box 18).⁶⁵ Within this sector, women trade particular commodities, for example, products that are highly perishable. In eastern Guinea, small-scale women traders specialize in products with high levels of seasonality, while men are more often wholesalers, trading in a larger range of products.⁶⁶

Donors in recent years are looking more carefully at women entrepreneurs. The IFC's Gender Program, for example, highlights their presence in many sectors and countries and underscores the persistent gender-based constraints they face. In addition to the constraints already discussed in other sections, this section focuses on access to start-up capital, perceptions about women in business, and women's time-poverty and mobility constraints.

BOX 17

WOMEN'S ENTREPRENEURSHIP: A GLOBAL SNAPSHOT

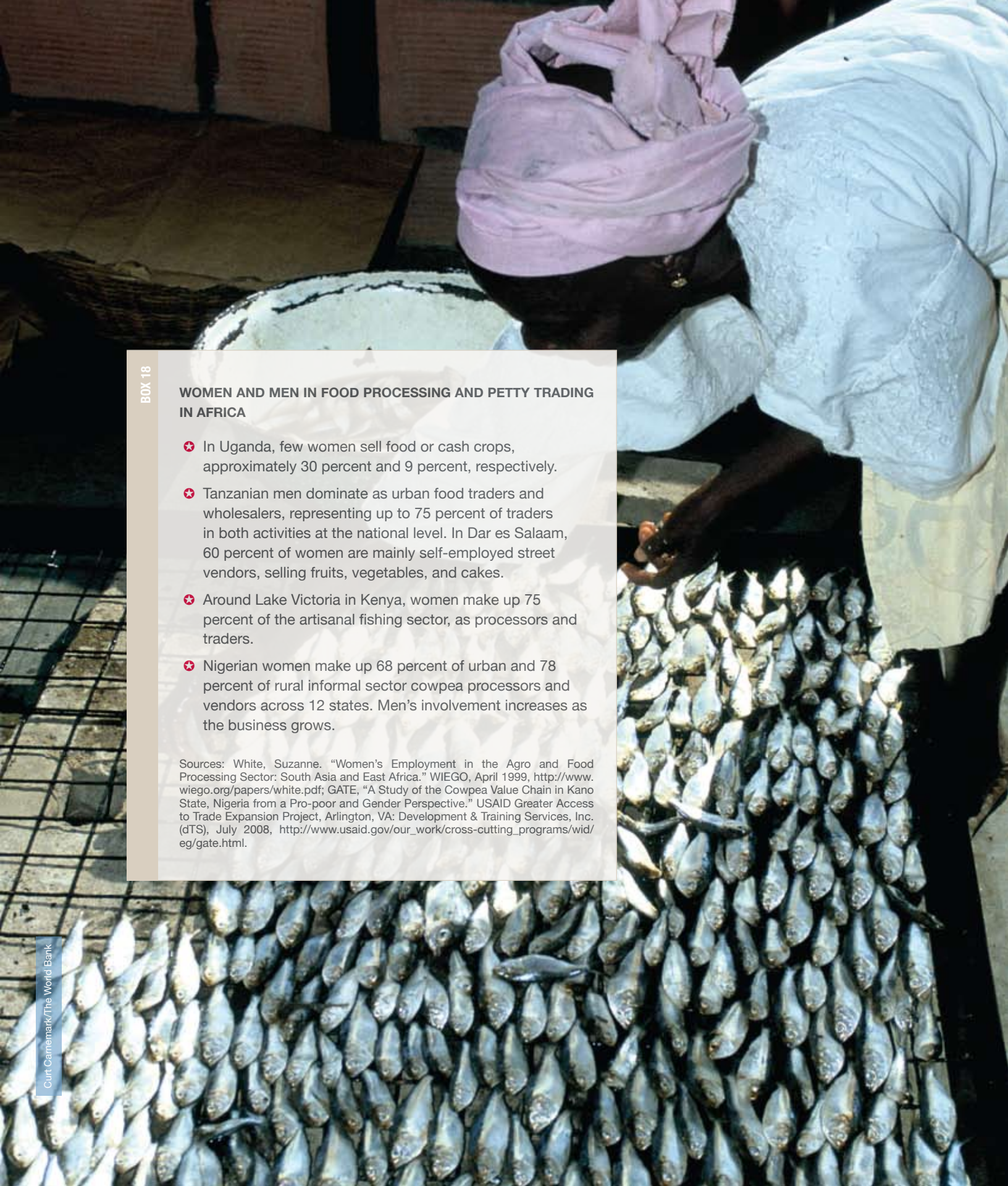
- ✱ In Swaziland, women own 70 percent of micro-, small, and medium enterprises.
- ✱ Sixty-four percent of firms employing 10 people or more in Russia are owned by women.
- ✱ Women-owned businesses make up roughly 16 percent of all enterprises in Vietnam, not including jointly owned enterprises.
- ✱ In Rwanda, women make up 58 percent of informal businesses and 40 percent of formally registered businesses.
- ✱ In Latin America, rough estimates suggest women own between one-quarter and one-third of all micro-, small, and medium enterprises.
- ✱ In 2004, women-owned businesses accounted for 47 percent of small enterprises in Canada.
- ✱ In China, 17 percent of the women-owned small businesses employ more than 1,000 people

Sources: Gammage et al., "Enhancing Women's Access to Markets"; IFC, "Voice of Women Entrepreneurs in Rwanda"; Weeks and Seiler, "Women's Entrepreneurship in Latin America: An Exploration of

WOMEN AND MEN IN FOOD PROCESSING AND PETTY TRADING IN AFRICA

- ★ In Uganda, few women sell food or cash crops, approximately 30 percent and 9 percent, respectively.
- ★ Tanzanian men dominate as urban food traders and wholesalers, representing up to 75 percent of traders in both activities at the national level. In Dar es Salaam, 60 percent of women are mainly self-employed street vendors, selling fruits, vegetables, and cakes.
- ★ Around Lake Victoria in Kenya, women make up 75 percent of the artisanal fishing sector, as processors and traders.
- ★ Nigerian women make up 68 percent of urban and 78 percent of rural informal sector cowpea processors and vendors across 12 states. Men's involvement increases as the business grows.

Sources: White, Suzanne. "Women's Employment in the Agro and Food Processing Sector: South Asia and East Africa." WIEGO, April 1999, <http://www.wiego.org/papers/white.pdf>; GATE, "A Study of the Cowpea Value Chain in Kano State, Nigeria from a Pro-poor and Gender Perspective." USAID Greater Access to Trade Expansion Project, Arlington, VA: Development & Training Services, Inc. (dTS), July 2008, http://www.usaid.gov/our_work/cross-cutting_programs/wid/eg/gate.html.





INCREASE FINANCIAL OPTIONS FOR WOMEN ENTREPRENEURS

Entrepreneurs require access to capital not only for initial investments to start businesses but also ongoing access to capital to operate and expand their businesses. Although, in theory, a range of finance options exists for men and women entrepreneurs, from microfinance institutions to formal banking institutions, in practice, the ability to access the different options present particular challenges. Moreover, credit institutions are often wary of lending to agricultural enterprises because of their perceived volatility and risk. Credit remains the leading constraint facing women entrepreneurs worldwide.⁶⁷

Women need different types of credit. Microfinance institutions, Savings and Credit Cooperative Organizations (SACCOs), other revolving capital funds, and moneylenders address women's immediate credit shortages. But interest rates are high, the amounts that can be accessed are often small, and the consequences for default can be dangerous, particularly with moneylenders.

Women entrepreneurs who have expanded beyond the financing available through these schemes face critical unmet financial needs. Many women rely on personal funds for their investment needs. In Tunisia, 71 percent of women exporters' financing came from their own funds or was borrowed from family and

STRATEGIES

Encourage financial institutions to target women and design “women-friendly” financial products, for example, non-collateral-based lending, asset leasing, or embedded financial services in buyer contracts.

Reforming collateral-based loan policies and practices has become a part of many policy agendas. Romania and the Slovak Republic have both successfully undertaken reforms. As a result, in Romania, the volume of credit increased by 50 percent, while in the Slovak Republic, 70 percent of new business credit was issued with nonland collateral (neither disaggregated by sex).⁷⁰

friends.⁶⁸ Evidence from Cambodia, Kenya, and Tanzania also suggests that women entrepreneurs resort to self-financing as a strategy to overcome capital constraints.⁶⁹ This is the result of different legal policies and practices that make women ineligible or hinder their access to finance. Where collateral-based loans are prevalent, access to an asset such as land is necessary. Women's relative lack of access to land will make it more difficult for them to access credit than men. In other scenarios, bank options may reflect social biases that consider men “heads of household” and require a married woman to obtain her husband's signature to access finance.

These features of banking policies and practices may be overlooked if practitioners fail to consider how both men and women access credit. Expanding financing options without addressing the factors that mediate women's access to credit may increase the range of finance options, but it will not do so in equitable ways that benefit both men and women.



PROMOTING WOMEN ENTREPRENEURS

Although women are present in many informal and formal businesses, perceptions about them in business impede their access to a range of opportunities to meet new clients and build effective relationships with other actors along the chain. Negotiating a legitimate space of leadership, whether it is within a firm or with other firms, remains a critical challenge to women business leaders in developed and developing countries. As one Kenya woman explained, “It is difficult to be a woman who manages men because you have to be extra hard and extra tough. A woman’s words are dismissed.” A survey of women corporate executives in the United States conducted in 2004 found that women felt the leading barriers to their advancement were due to lack of access to informal networking opportunities, gender-based stereotypes, and lack of role models.⁷¹

At the same time, women’s lack of self-esteem and confidence in their own skills also contributes to these perceptions. In Bosnia Herzegovina, 34 percent of women in a 2002 survey of women entrepreneurs stated they were unsure whether they had the appropriate skills to be businesswomen.⁷²

STRATEGIES

1. Recognize the achievement of women business leaders.

Working with the private sector, business associations and women’s business associations, develop an awards program to highlight the efforts of exceptional women business leaders. This will raise the profile of women in business and contribute to increasing the confidence of other women, as well as change the perceptions of men about women in business. Such programs already exist in many countries and are sponsored by leading private sector firms.

2. Foster opportunities for women to connect with other women entrepreneurs to create stronger horizontal and vertical linkages among businesswomen and help increase networking opportunities.

This might include organizing or supporting the participation of women in existing trade fairs aimed specifically at addressing women entrepreneurs’ needs, creating networking opportunities with peers, and connecting them to suppliers and buyers. In 2009, Ghana hosted the 4th Global Women Entrepreneurs Trade Fair and Investment Forum to create a platform for African women entrepreneurs in agribusiness to connect with and foster trade and cooperation with global counterparts.⁷³

TABLE 3: GENDER EQUITABLE STRATEGIES

	ON-FARM PRODUCTIVITY	HORIZONTAL LINKAGES	VERTICAL LINKAGES	BUSINESS ENABLING ENVIRONMENT	EMPLOYMENT	ENTREPRENEURSHIP
Foster equitable participation	Use proven communication strategies and appropriate communication channels to reach women, as well as men with agricultural information.	Ensure that information about new associations is announced through communication channels used by both men and women.	Identify gender equitable market opportunities.	Take into consideration women's time and mobility constraints when designing (public-private dialogue) PPD activities.	Partner with private sector to upgrade women's workforce skills.	
		Ensure that meetings are held at times and venues that facilitate women's participation.		Design dissemination strategies that use both men's and women's information channels.		
	Ensure research and dissemination programs are participatory, including both men and women, and offered at convenient times and locations so that knowledge of key practices will be offered to those most engaged in production, harvest, and storage processes.	Encourage association membership based on output (e.g., liters of milk for sale or baskets of tomatoes) rather than access to factors of production (e.g., legal title to land or registered ownership of animals).				
		Investigate potential barriers to women's entry and continued membership into associations.				

TABLE 3: GENDER EQUITABLE STRATEGIES (CONT.)

	ON-FARM PRODUCTIVITY	HORIZONTAL LINKAGES	VERTICAL LINKAGES	BUSINESS ENABLING ENVIRONMENT	EMPLOYMENT	ENTREPRENEURSHIP
Address the needs of women	Assist project participants to work out cooperative labor arrangements or to use collective resources to overcome labor constraints.	Create women-only associations if appropriate.	Identify and build market information systems that target the information channels used by men and women.	Pay attention to gender differences in cost, time, and information required when streamlining registration process.	Encourage sector-wide development of codes of conduct or employment standards.	Encourage financial institutions to target women and design “women-friendly” financial products, e.g., non-collateral-based lending, asset leasing, or embedded financial services in buyer contracts.
	Design innovative technologies that meet women’s labor needs, particularly those that ease time constraints.		Identify and design inputs, financial products, and business development services tailored to men’s and women’s needs.	Identify and address policies and processes procedures that adversely affect either men or women.		
	In conducting agricultural research, access and control over the technology by men and women, and potential displacement of women from income-earning work, should be considered.	Provide business development services to women within associations.	Promote gender equitable market facilitation.	Ensure women’s business needs are included in PPD agendas. Promote the development of business assistance programs and partnerships that assist women entrepreneurs.		

TABLE 3: GENDER EQUITABLE STRATEGIES (CONT.)

	ON-FARM PRODUCTIVITY	HORIZONTAL LINKAGES	VERTICAL LINKAGES	BUSINESS ENABLING ENVIRONMENT	EMPLOYMENT	ENTREPRENEURSHIP
Support women's economic advancement	Facilitate access to land for women and other disadvantaged groups.	Provide training on association governance that establishes gender equitable principles of leadership and decision-making.	Target markets where discriminating consumers or the private sector can be partners in supporting gender equitable business practices, e.g., fair trade.		Partner with private sector to upgrade women's workforce skills.	Foster opportunities for women to connect with other women entrepreneurs to create stronger horizontal and vertical linkages among businesswomen and to increase networking opportunities.
	Design distribution mechanisms that reward women's unpaid labor.					
	Adopt "farming as a family business" approaches.	Investigate potential barriers to women's leadership positions within associations.	Encourage private sector to target women as clients.			
			Support women entrepreneurs as providers of goods and services.			
			Recruit women market facilitators.			
			Promote gender equitable market facilitation.			
						Recognize the achievement of women business leaders and widely disseminate information about successful women entrepreneurs to help increase the confidence of other women as well as change the perceptions of men.



A PROCESS FOR INTEGRATING GENDER ISSUES INTO AGRICULTURAL VALUE CHAINS



HOW TO USE THE INGIA-VC PROCESS

The INGIA-VC process is designed to be used in the sequence presented in this Handbook. It can be used alongside other research design methods to inform the identification of beneficiaries, the design of activities, and the development of indicators. Individual sections can also be used at different moments of the project cycle to take stock of project advances and troubleshoot recurring challenges.

The INGIA-VC process starts with a gender analysis of the value chain. It uses the Gender Dimensions Framework (GDF), presented previously as an organizing and analytical framework during the initial phases of the process. The latter phases of the process, beginning with Phase Three, link the findings from the gender analysis to value chain development. [Table 4](#) provides a summary of the phases, the worksheets, and their purpose.

The INGIA-VC process is most useful when led by a gender expert familiar with analyzing gender issues in agriculture, value chains, and understanding the country context. The process is enriched when it draws on gender-related information from other gender analyses or, ideally, analyses already completed by the project.

Here, the INGIA-VC uses a case study about the fictional country of Twanya to illustrate how the process works. Information about Twanya mirrors the types of information typically encountered about gender relations in agriculture and about the organizations that structure production and marketing activities.

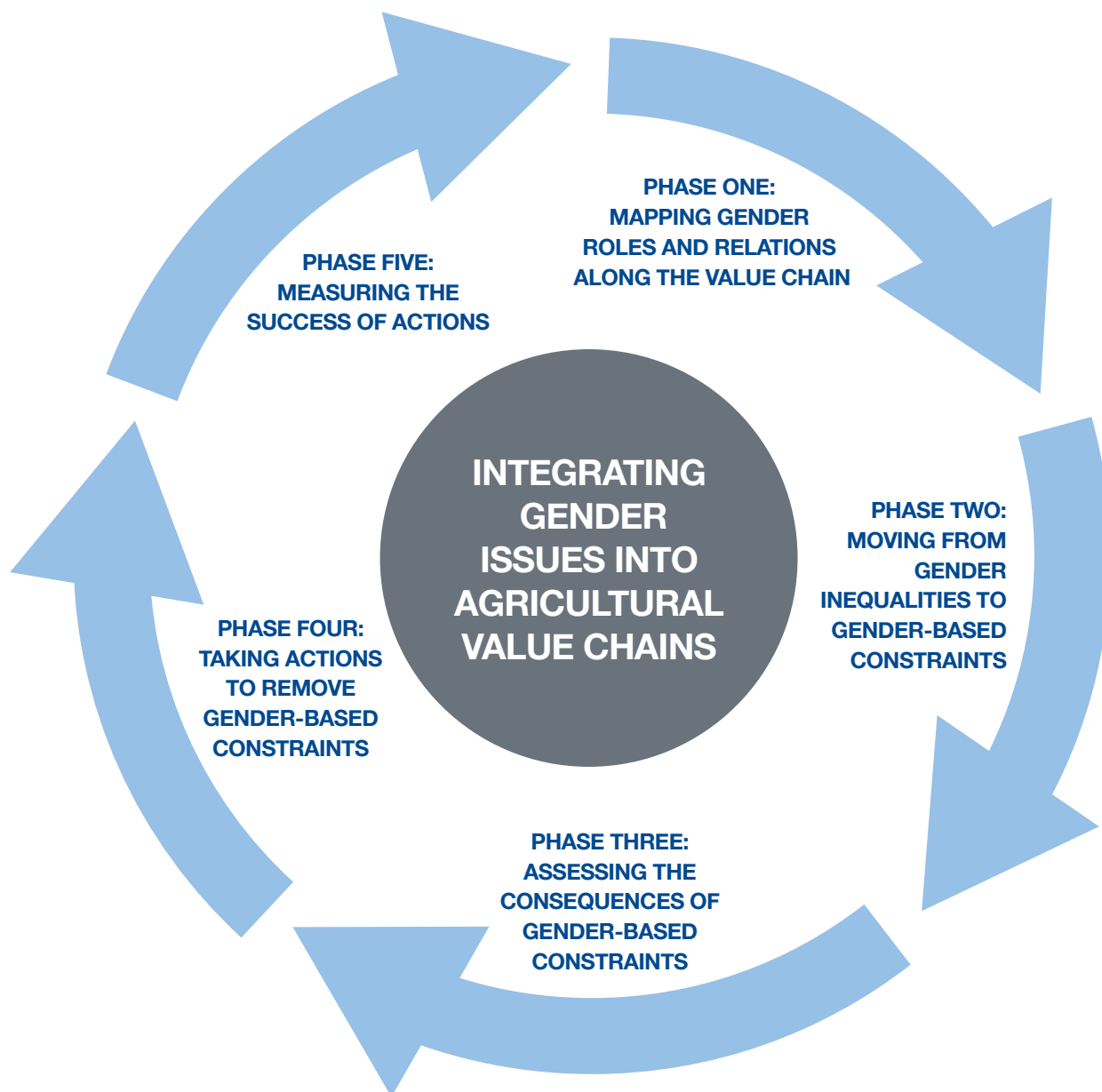


TABLE 4: SUMMARY OF INGIA-VC PROCESS

PHASE	USES...	TO INFORM THIS TOOL OR WORKSHEET...	AND HELP PRACTITIONERS
Phase One. Mapping Gender Roles and Relations along the Value Chain	Existing national/regional background and project documents and completed surveys and survey analyses	Organizing gender-related information	Organize data on gender roles and responsibilities using the Gender Dimensions Framework.
	**In the Handbook, this information comes from the case study		
	Data on sex segmentation in the value chain.	Organizational map of the value chain.	Understand the sex-segmented character of the value chain.
	Other gender-related information.	INGIA-VC interview guide.	Collect data on the factors that shape outcomes for men and women in value chains
	Supplementary field interviews.	Organizing gender-related information from INGIA-VC interview guide.	Identify areas of gender inequalities as a guide to identifying gender-based constraints.
Phase Two. From Gender Inequalities to Gender-based Constraints	Phase One Worksheet: Organizing gender-related information from INGIA-VC interview guide.	From observed inequalities to gender-based constraint statements.	Identify areas of gender inequalities as a guide to identifying gender-based constraints.
Phase Three. Assessing the Consequences of Gender-based Constraints	Gender-based constraint statements.	Assessing the consequences of gender-based constraints.	Think through the implications of the gender-based constraint at multiple levels and assess the constraints that will lead to win-win outcomes through their removal.
Phase Four. Taking Actions to Remove Gender-based Constraints	Phase Two Worksheet: From observed inequalities to gender-based constraint statements.	Developing indicators to measure success.	Develop indicators to measure success of actions to remove gender-based constraints.
Phase Five. Measuring Success of Actions	Actions from Phase Four.	Developing indicators to measure success.	Develop indicators to measure success of actions to remove gender-based constraints.
	Indicators and targets from monitoring and evaluation systems and from Phase Five Worksheet: Developing indicators to measure success.	Plotting success diagrams.	Illustrate advancement toward gender equality outcomes.

ENHANCING THE AGRICULTURE SECTOR THROUGH TRADE (EAST) PROJECT IN TWANYA: A CASE STUDY

COUNTRY BACKGROUND

“Twanya” is a fictitious African nation of approximately 27 million people. Classified as a “low-income” country by the World Bank, it has a mostly tropical climate, with many good water sources. It also offers microclimates suitable for cultivating a wide range of agricultural products. Agriculture, primarily from smallholder production, provides nearly one-half of the country’s gross domestic product (GDP), and a significant proportion of GDP is earned from smallholder production. The economy has grown erratically over the last decade; the current GDP growth rate is 2.8 percent. Per capita GDP is just under US\$1,300 per year. Inadequate infrastructure, low agriculture productivity, poor export performance, and weak governance have negatively affected the country’s economic performance.

PROJECT INFORMATION

The new agricultural competitiveness project in Twanya, Enhancing the Agriculture Sector through Trade (EAST), will support the development of the horticulture subsector, from production to processing to building market linkages. The project builds on previous activities, including a market analysis, which identified key fruits and vegetable crops for expansion. The program components include:

1. Increase productivity of targeted horticulture commodities
2. Strengthen trade and producer associations
3. Increase employment in horticultural production and processing
4. Increase agriculture trade in domestic, regional, and international markets

A new component of this project is greater emphasis on gender issues than in the past. The donor pronounced that the project's effectiveness will be linked to implementing the institution's ability to identify and address gender-related issues while also raising productivity and incomes. The donor country's operational plan has identified gender as a crosscutting theme, but unfortunately, the plan did not provide details about implementation strategies. Although no gender assessment was carried out before the design of the EAST project, in the course of its design and implementation, project staff found the information presented below from published reports and project documents.

AGRICULTURAL PRACTICES IN TWANYA

Gender relations in Twanya are neither extremely unequal nor completely egalitarian. There are differences in men's and women's opportunities and responsibilities. The population is 80 percent rural, and most people are expected to marry and live on the small farms that supply their food and livelihoods. Although collaborative decision-making is increasing, especially among the younger generation, it is still customary for women to defer to men on a range of issues and in many public settings. Women have smaller social networks outside their villages and generally have lower levels of education.

Small Producers

Smallholder farms draw primarily on household labor. Men and women in Twanya are both involved in agricultural production, processing, and marketing, but their roles and responsibilities are different. Family members provide the majority of labor required on smallholder farms. Women provide most of the day-to-day labor (e.g., planting, transplanting, weeding, and harvesting) on household fields and small gardens that supply the family with food (staple grains and local vegetables). The surplus is sold in the domestic market. Women work on plots that produce an increasing proportion of vegetables destined for the small but growing export market. They also raise poultry. Women and young girls have added responsibilities for child care and other domestic work, such as food preparation and cleaning; this is considered "women's work." Men work on the farms and are especially involved in land clearing and plowing. Hired labor supplements household labor on the farm, especially for weeding and harvesting. Many men own herds of cattle that are grazed on common lands. Some men have wage jobs, either as casual labor or in salaried positions, depending on their education and skills. Women carry their produce to market on their heads or hire men with carts or bicycles to assist them; men generally have their own transport or hire trucks to transport their produce. Men are more likely to handle crop sales and to share with their wives only a portion of the proceeds.

Title to most agricultural land is held in men's names. Twanya laws stipulate that children should inherit equally and that women may own land in their own names. However, women seldom inherit on an equal basis with their brothers. Women lack cash to buy their own land, or they lack access to capital to expand their current landholdings. This is in part the result of banks requiring spouses to cosign loans. It is still rare for an unmarried (single, divorced, or widowed) woman to obtain capital. Women's holdings are smaller than those owned by men. In addition, fields for staple foods and for higher-value crops are located in different locations. Women are expected to marry and gain access to land through their husbands, but a growing number of younger couples are registering their land in the names of both husbands and wives. Women operate approximately one-third of all agriculture enterprises but receive less than 10 percent of agriculture extension services.

Twanya has built many rural schools, and both girls and boys attend in equal proportions. Young women are usually less likely than young men to continue their education at the postsecondary level, as it is believed that boys should receive preference in education. Girls are required to leave primary or secondary school if they become pregnant. Among those who do continue, women are underrepresented in the fields of agricultural science, veterinary medicine, and engineering. In addition, customary laws and social attitudes further restrict women's opportunities to work outside the home after marriage.

Input Suppliers

Seventy percent of input supply shops are owned by men. Within the supply shops, men and women are hired for different tasks. Few women possess the qualifications and certifications required to work in technical positions, such as agro-vet agents and extension workers. Women typically occupy positions in accounting and sales; men are hired as drivers, porters, and extension agents. Although women are physically capable of undertaking the tasks as porters, most people—men and women, employers and workers—believe it is “inappropriate” for women to load trucks because women will be more easily injured by the heavy work.

Input suppliers report that men’s and women’s purchasing patterns and use of inputs differ. Men are typically owners of large-scale farms, while women possess small gardens. Their purchases differ by scale. Even though women purchase fewer inputs, on average, shop owners say they display more interest in learning the proper use of the inputs bought. Women are perceived as more likely than men to follow instructions provided by agro-vet agents.

Producer Associations

The vast majority of smallholder farmers receive inputs, market information, and training services through producer associations. In some cases, anyone who meets the membership requirements may join an association, for example, by showing title to agricultural land, by owning livestock, or by paying dues and registration fees. In other cases, membership is limited to heads of households who can meet these conditions. Among married couples in rural Twanya, women and their adult children may sit in on meetings, but each household is allowed only one vote, usually given to the man as head of the household. It is commonplace for only the registered member (individual or household) to be permitted to establish an account or to receive training or other services.

Women’s participation in producer associations varies greatly throughout the country, depending on the specific requirements for membership, their interest in the crops targeted, and other issues related to scheduling and location of meetings. Although women are active members, they are not frequently elected to executive leadership positions.

Processors

Sex-segmented employment patterns are common in processing factories. Men dominate management and technical positions and fill the jobs that require operating heavy machinery or handling heavy loads. Women occupy low-skilled and lower-paid positions in the field and in packinghouses or on the assembly lines. Women are perceived as more adept at postharvest handling. There are cultural beliefs that link the sensitive care that horticultural products require with women’s domestic work. Labor laws also restrict women’s nighttime work hours and the weight of loads they may carry. Lower skill levels, lack of experience, and social conditions limit employment opportunities for women in senior management and technical positions in processing firms. It is believed that women are incapable of managing men. In addition, perceptions concerning the appropriateness of heavy lifting and machinery operation limit women’s opportunities in processing plants. Reports indicate that sexual harassment of women is common.

Some processors notice that there is a difference in the quality of products supplied by men and by women, particularly of fresh fruits and vegetables. Men are thought to be more careless than women in storage transporting, resulting in contamination or bruising.

Transporters

The majority of transportation companies are owned by men. Over 90 percent of drivers are also men. Women do drive small cars, but it is uncommon for a woman to drive large trucks, although those who have attended the National Service Driving School are capable of driving them as well as men.

Transporters often hire young men to pack and load the fruits and vegetables. They do not like to hire young women because the transporters have to do much of their work at night, and young women are not usually permitted to work outside of their homes at night. Women do work for transport firms in office positions.

Exporters

Of the 272 exporting firms that opened in the country in the past three years, only 12 percent were owned by women. Of these 33 firms, 27 were started by married women whose husbands had professional positions in business, law, academics, or government. This is in part the result of banks requiring spouses to cosign loans for start-up capital. It is still rare for an unmarried woman (single, divorced, or widowed) to obtain the capital and to have the business knowledge to start her own export firm.

Few women are involved in horticultural product export firms except as low-skilled workers and clerical staff. Women with computer training are hired for data input positions.

INDICATORS AND TARGETS

To measure whether the objectives of the EAST project in Twanya are being met, the following indicators are used:

Impact Indicators

INDICATOR	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Number of producer organizations, trade and business associations, and community-based organizations assisted as a result of USG interventions	5	10	15	25	40
Number of agriculture-related firms benefiting directly from USG assistance (sex-disaggregated)	10	20	30	40	50
Number of individuals who have received short-term agricultural productivity training with USG assistance (sex-disaggregated)	50	200	300	500	700
Number of producers or traders trained in the use of market information for strategic planning, farm management, and business decision-making (sex-disaggregated)	50	100	200	300	300

Illustrative Outcome Indicators

INDICATOR	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Percentage change in production of targeted agricultural commodities as a result of U.S. Government (USG) assistance	+2%	+5%	+10%	+15%	+20%
Percentage change in domestic sales of targeted agricultural commodities as a result of USG assistance	+5%	+10%	+15%	+25%	+35%
Percentage change in export sales of targeted agricultural commodities as a result of USG assistance	+10%	+20%	+30%	+40%	+50%
Percentage change in annual household income as a result of USG assistance	+5%	+10%	+15%	+25%	+35%
Percentage change in employment rate in client firms as a result of USG assistance	+5%	+10%	+15%	+20%	+25%

RESULTS

The Twanya EAST project has been operating for one year. Thus far, it has made the following progress in its objectives:

Increase productivity of targeted horticultural commodities

Households have increased production of high-value vegetables on their farms by 15 percent based on yield measurements obtained at the farm gate. Sales of vegetables to the producer associations, however, have increased by only 5 percent. Gross household incomes, as measured by product sales, have also increased by 15 percent, but higher costs of fuel and fertilizer cut into farm profits.

Strengthen trade and producer associations

Four new producer associations have been established and four older associations have been reorganized. The largest association has 60 members; the smallest, 22 (see table below). Membership is organized by household, with membership listed by household head (a man or a woman, as appropriate). Membership in the producer associations formed by the project is open to heads of households. Eight different training sessions were offered to the members.

Joining the association requires payment of the Twanya equivalent of US\$50 and the verification of land title to at least 1.5 acres. In three of the old associations, women have been elected as secretaries or treasurers. No women hold leadership positions in the new associations.

Increase employment in horticultural production and processing

ASSOCIATION	TOTAL MEMBERSHIP	MEN	WOMEN
A (old)	60	40	20
B (old)	28	12	16
C (old)	33	30	3
D (old)	48	24	24
E (new)	22	18	4
F (new)	36	24	12
G (new)	41	30	11
H (new)	38	26	12

Among the firms assisted by the project, 90 new jobs have been created. Ten of these have been new managerial positions. Another 50 people were hired to accept the loads of vegetables brought to the factories by the suppliers, moving and weighing the heavy baskets and sacks of produce: 30 on day shifts and 20 on night shifts. Five people were hired into clerical positions. The remaining 35 people were hired on the shop floor to grade and pack the vegetables.

SUPPLEMENTARY INTERVIEW DATA

The Twanya EAST project team realized that many questions about gender roles and responsibilities remained unanswered. Therefore, they conducted field interviews to identify the responsibilities of different actors in the value chain and how gender differences affected their work. The following vignettes are based on excerpts from these field interviews.

An Input Supplier: Martin Amayo is the owner of Farm Medicine Experts Ltd., a small family-owned company that sells pesticides, fertilizer, seeds, and some farm equipment. He regularly employs a staff of eight to ten people. Mr. Amayo employs women as both counter sales staff and as his traveling sales agents to interact with the public. He says the women are good at selling, and he believes that he can trust women with the cash used in the sales transactions. He said that in his experience, the women who are qualified for the sales clerk position are more willing to stay in the job than are men. The men, he says, generally have higher qualifications, and as a result, they ask for more pay or quickly try to take better jobs. He hires men as porters and as his warehouse manager. He says that men are better in those positions “because of the work involved; you have to carry boxes and it is physical work.” Furthermore, in Twanya, labor regulations restrict the loads that women are allowed to carry to 20 kilograms. Although a trolley is available to move the very heavy or bulky packages, the trolley is difficult to move when it is fully loaded at 50 kg. Mr. Amayo notes that it might be possible to identify a way to let women work as porters, but there are so many men willing to do this work that it is not worthwhile for him to invest in alternative technologies to hire women in those positions.

A Business Service Provider: Anna Onyango is a single mother of two young children who provides artificial insemination (AI) services to local farmers. After completing secondary school, Anna trained in AI and received a certificate. Her brother helped her to pay for the course and to purchase her initial supplies. Anna is self-employed and likes her job because it is not full time but still provides a good income. She faces challenges, however, with some aspects of the job, particularly transport and the hours. She has to be ready to go to the farmers' homesteads when the cows are ovulating, which sometimes means traveling at night, when she does not always feel safe. She has been able to buy her own pickup truck, but she does not like to drive it alone at night.



A Business Service Provider: Martha Malia provides seedlings of horticultural plants to farmers in her area. She started her nursery about six years ago in her backyard, but it has grown to encompass four greenhouses with plants in different stages of growth. Martha is a recent widow in her late forties with several grown children. She used to teach in a primary school in a nearby town and lives on land that her husband inherited from his father. They built a house together on it, and she was given rights to the surrounding land for her garden. Her eldest son inherited the bulk of the property on his father's death but left her in control of her house and gardens. She thought of the nursery while she was still teaching as a way to earn some extra money, and she attended several training sessions with a local nongovernmental organization (NGO) on preparing seedlings: learning about the disease-resistant varieties that grow well in the area and that have a taste that people like. She employs four women to care for the seedlings and an accountant to handle the finances. One obstacle to expanding the business further is that she does not have her own truck; she depends on people to come to her garden to collect their seedlings. She would like to have a truck to transport seedlings to others who don't have transport of their own.

A Producer: "My biggest problem is finding good labor," says George Maticho. He and his wife have invested in high-value horticultural crop production and, after a few good seasons, have expanded their acreage. But at their current level of production, they can no longer handle the labor requirements for all phases of the production cycle. Mr. Maticho says that the specialty crops require precise applications of fertilizers and pesticides and that he has run into problems using the available local people. They are not educated and have made errors in application that has hurt his yields. Sometimes, he says, they are not available when he needs them, and timing of applications is critical. He finds women to be more willing to listen to instructions and to be more reliable workers, but there are few women workers available as most are already involved in the agricultural and domestic work on their own homesteads. Mr. Maticho is at that difficult point in growing his business: he is not yet able to get sufficient credit to hire a permanent labor force, but his business is too large to handle the labor requirements on his own.



A Producer: Mrs. Oluko is a maize farmer. She farms her maize on her husband's land, about 1.5 acres. She gets up early in the morning, around 5:30 a.m., to milk her cows and then heads to her maize farm to work. She carries out most of the work, including sowing, planting, weeding, fertilizing, and harvesting. She uses hand tools, although the land is prepared using a tractor hired by her husband. She is sometimes helped by her adult daughter, who lives at home. In her community, it is customary for husbands to make decisions about land use and cropping choices. She says that, in general, husbands will talk over their decisions with their wives but that, in the end, it is the man's decision. Sometimes, if the wives don't agree, they might argue a bit with their husbands. When there is more love in the relationship, she says, the relationship is more consultative, especially among the younger generation, but she and her husband are in their fifties, and what he wants is what happens. She keeps half of the total harvest for use by the household. Mrs. Oluko says that she is discouraged from getting involved in the marketing. Her husband says that because she is less experienced dealing with the buyers, she may get cheated by them, and he insists on talking to the buyers who visit the farm or on taking the maize to the local market or the warehouse. Mrs. Oluko doesn't always know exactly how much her husband sells the maize for, although she does have a pretty good idea of the market price from listening to the radio and talking with her friends.

A Producer: Monica Kubadi is an unmarried woman in her early twenties. She recently returned home from completing a short training course, offered by a local NGO, on growing indigenous vegetables for the local market. She is excited about following up on the NGOs recommendations for using improved seeds sold by a seed company in town. She talks to the seed sales agents about appropriate cultivation techniques and market opportunities. She is still living at home with her parents and working on the family farm. Although she only completed primary school, she is an avid learner and has a dream of becoming a successful businesswoman. On a small parcel of land, hardly a tenth of an acre that her father allows her to use as her own, she has been growing indigenous vegetables and carrying them to town for sale, sometimes by foot and sometimes by bus. However, the amount of land she has is not sufficient for expanding her business, and according to customary laws in her region, unmarried women are discouraged from owning land. Her father says that unmarried women should not own land because they will have to leave it when they marry. The by-laws of the producer association that was set up to encourage farmers to link to new markets and that offers additional training and credit options does not allow unmarried women to join on their own. Her father already represents the family in the association. Unfortunately, the association only allows registered members to attend training on productivity and marketing. Monica's father does not necessarily attend the training that Monica is interested in, and even when he does attend, he may not convey the information accurately.

A Producer: Enos Tangawizi is a young unmarried man in his early twenties. He completed primary school but did not continue his education beyond that. As the only son in his family, he will inherit his father's lands, and he is now responsible for working the farm alongside his 43-year-old father. The two of them grow primarily food crops—maize and local beans—but Enos has recently been experimenting with some other horticultural products. His father has allowed him to use two acres on which to plant string beans. Enos's sister and mother work in the fields with him. Enos typically gets up at around 6:30 a.m. and goes to work in his fields for several hours. He returns to his home at lunchtime and eats lunch prepared by his younger sister. He would only cook for himself if he were living alone. "Cooking is women's work. They are responsible for feeding of the rest of us," he says. His father also joined the horticultural producer's association, and Enos is representing the household there. Enos knows he will not have full control over his father's lands until he inherits the plots after his father's death. If his string bean venture is successful, he will have to either ask his father to use more of the family's lands or to purchase other fields within a reasonable traveling distance, but he has no other reliable source of income for that purchase, apart from the profits of his string beans. Currently, he sells the string beans through the association to an exporter. The proceeds are paid to him directly, and he, in turn, gives a portion of the proceeds to his mother and his sister. The association does offer loans for land purchases. He wants to build his string bean business, but he feels constrained by his situation.

A Transporter: Mr. Chabanga is a retired civil servant, now in his fifties. He owns two pickup trucks that he purchased secondhand using his savings and credit opportunities associated with his government job. He uses his trucks to transport fruits to the capital city from smallholder farms a few hours away. He started the business when a friend of his from another town suggested it, pointing out the piles of fruits along the road waiting for transport. Mr. Chabanga now has established relationships with 40 reliable smallholders from whom he regularly collects fruits. He is now hoping to expand his business. Mr. Chabanga drives one truck himself or calls on one of his nephews, who has a secondary school education. Sometimes he also hires another driver. His son now assists him in managing other aspects of the business, including the accounts, after first spending several years traveling with his father to learn the business “from the ground up.” His unmarried daughter, who recently completed a certificate in agronomy, also wants to get involved in his business, but Mr. Chabanga is reluctant to allow her to travel. He is concerned about her reputation and her physical safety, being out on the road, unmarried, and always having to interact with strangers. His wife, a primary school teacher, believes that times have changed and that he is being old-fashioned. She wants her daughter to be exposed to all aspects of the business so that she can go to work for one of the large agricultural exporting companies. He and his wife are currently arguing about their daughter’s future in the business.

A Processor: The supervisor at the processing plant, Mr. Frederick Masawe was enthusiastic about the better quality of milk that was provided by the women suppliers. He explained that women are careful about sending only fresh milk from the morning collection. Men, however, “are too greedy, and they will combine milk from the night before with the morning milk, and some of it will be spoiled. Then we have to throw out the whole batch,” he says. He would like to get milk from more women, but it is hard for him to get women to attend the quality control trainings he holds monthly at the plant. “Women can’t get into town easily, in light of their other responsibilities, so they don’t attend the trainings.”

A Processor: Mrs. Mkingamkono is a married woman in her forties with a college degree in business. She is married to a lawyer. She lives in a large town in central Twanya, which is home to a branch of the national university. Mrs. Mkingamkono started making pineapple and orange juice in her kitchen at home when her children were small, and she employed a nephew to sell it at the market by the cup and by the bottle. She earned a reputation for producing a safe and clean product, and over the years, her business grew as she began to sell to neighbors for their parties and to one or two restaurants. At first, she had bought her supplies in the market, but she soon realized that she could purchase the raw materials at a lower price by buying directly from the producers around town. She made connections with a man who made deliveries for a shop in town to his branch stores in the surrounding areas, and he brought back fruit from several growers on his return trips and delivered them to her home. When her children were in secondary school, she decided to find a shop with a warehouse and expand her business. The local bank where her husband had maintained a personal account for many years, however, was unwilling to give her a loan independently of her husband. She was asked to get her husband to cosign the loan and to put up the plot of land they owned just outside of town as collateral. Mrs. Mkingamkono now employs 40 people in her business. Despite her own business success, she hired a man as her senior manager because she believes it is easier for him to work with both the men and women employees. She admits that she doesn’t know whether her employees who are men would have trouble with a woman manager, but she thinks they might. She also employs men as drivers and to operate the canning and packing machinery. She employs both women and men to accept the fruit deliveries, to sort and clean them, and to run the juicing machines. Men and women performing the same jobs receive the same salaries, but each job has a different scale of remuneration. Sorters and machinery operators are paid the most; cleaners the least.



PROCESS

PHASE ONE: MAPPING GENDER ROLES AND RELATIONS ALONG THE VALUE CHAIN

Phase One of the INGIA-VC process includes (1) mapping men's and women's participation and benefits along the chain and (2) identifying the factors that shape current gender roles and relations in value chain operations. The process of mapping the value chain, in this Handbook, refers to the assembly and collection of gender-related data relevant to the value chain, as well as the organization and presentation of that data. This mapping process includes both quantitative and qualitative data collection. The quantitative-engendered mapping exercise helps practitioners determine labor allocation, returns, and ownership along the chain. The qualitative mapping exercise complements the quantitative data by collecting data on the factors that shape particular outcomes for men and women along the chain. Quantitative and qualitative data collection efforts should use both primary and secondary sources. Secondary sources, such as project documents, company records, or easily available government records, often contain useful information on the location of, and the nature and returns to, men and women throughout the value chain. Information on gender differences, however, is often unavailable in existing secondary sources. Interviews with key informants and focus group discussions can provide needed detail to inform the gendered value chain analysis.

QUANTITATIVE DATA COLLECTION

MAPPING QUANTITATIVE GENDER INFORMATION

Mapping helps practitioners understand men's and women's differing levels of participation and returns in value chains. At a minimum, a value chain map should disaggregate participants by sex. A value chain mapping exercise can also show much more, by illustrating known gender roles and relationships as a starting point and then identifying the location and extent of gender inequalities along the chain.

RELATING PHASE ONE TO OTHER PROJECT DATA COLLECTION EFFORTS

The data collection methods and principles outlined in Phase One can be applied to other data collection efforts in the project cycle.

- ✦ Baseline assessments. Finding out where men and women are located in project target areas and what they do, will facilitate the establishment of realistic targets, by sex, for projects.
- ✦ Gender assessments. The INGIA-VC process is a type of gender assessment that can be conducted to complement the quantitative data by revealing gender-based constraints and providing information for the design of activities. This process can be modified and conducted at a midpoint in the project to capture advances and recurring challenges.
- ✦ Ongoing technical assistance. The interview guide provides a range of questions that can be used periodically with different actors to gain insights into how gender issues may pose challenges or create opportunities for improving relations along the value chain.

STEP 1. IDENTIFY KEY GROUPS OF ACTORS IN THE VALUE CHAIN

The first step to examining gender relationships in value chains is to identify key groups of actors in the value chain and, more specifically, to determine where women and men are located throughout the chain. Interviews with stakeholders are often necessary to identify the relative participation and location of men and women throughout the chain. For example, through interviews with men and women farmers, practitioners can collect data on the gender division of labor, including production, marketing, and selling.

STEP 2. MEASURE SEX SEGMENTATION ALONG THE VALUE CHAIN

Men and women are typically not evenly distributed through the value chain. Not only do men and women often undertake different tasks, but there is often also sex segmentation in terms of wages and ownership. By collecting data on the locations of men and women in the value chain, on their labor returns, and on ownership/management rates, areas of inequality can be identified. The following types of data should be collected:

1. **Labor Allocation:** A preliminary analysis of participation includes a simple breakdown of the number of workers in various organization units by sex.
2. **Labor Categories:** To move beyond the level of participation to understand the quality of men's and women's participation, it is also important to clearly disaggregate each labor category of actor and institution by sex. Particularly in processing and labor-intensive production industries, different categories of labor and management should be disaggregated. In some industries, specific labor categories are highly gender segregated. For example, in the Bangladesh shrimp sector, men and women are clustered in different activities. Women and girls constitute 40 percent of all fry catchers and 62 percent of all processing plant workers. Few women are intermediaries. In addition, women are absent from several groups of actors, which limits their ability to economically gain from the sector.
3. **Labor Returns:** The occupations that men and women hold have implications for the benefits they receive. In the examples above, the better-paying jobs are overwhelmingly held by men.⁷⁴ At the same time, studies indicate examples of wage discrimination in which men and women occupy the same positions but are not paid equally. Sex-disaggregated data should be collected across organizations and within occupational categories.
4. **Ownership and Management:** Data on the sex of the owner(s) and manager(s) of enterprises along the chain should be collected.

SEX-DISAGGREGATED OR GENDER-DISAGGREGATED DATA

Sex and gender are distinct concepts. The difference in meaning is often blurred in discussions about sex-disaggregated data and gender-disaggregated data.

Sex-disaggregated data refer to the collection of data by physical attributes of the individual. Disaggregating data by sex (i.e., in categories of males and females) permits valid cross-country comparisons.

Gender-disaggregated data refer to the results of a gender analysis of sex-disaggregated data to explain differences and determine the effect of activities on gender relations.

Source: "Agricultural Censuses and Gender: Lessons Learned from Africa" (Rome: FAO, 2005, pg. vi). Available at http://www.fao.org/sd/dim_pe1/docs/pe1_051003d1_en.

TIPS FOR GAINING A “COMPLETE” PICTURE

- ✦ Examine sex segmentation upstream and downstream. In some global value chains, women are clustered in production or processing activities depending on the nature of the value chain (e.g., horticulture). It is important to capture both the absence of men and women as well as their presence. The absence of men or women at any level of the value chain should serve as a red flag for project staff to explore gender-based barriers to entry.
- ✦ Map men’s and women’s participation in support services. It is important to map actors that add value as well as services along the value chain. In an agricultural value chain, agricultural extension agents may not add value directly but are integral to improving the competitiveness of the value chain. The absence of women agricultural extension workers may be a significant constraint to upgrading an agricultural product because women producers may not receive productivity-raising technology from men extension workers because of social restrictions, limits on women’s mobility, or other factors.



STEP 3. ORGANIZE AND PRESENT THE DATA

Value chain maps can be presented in multiple ways. A common value chain mapping convention first identifies the functions in a value chain and then aligns the various actors (or operators) by function. In other cases, identifying actors is more appropriate. **Figure 1** shows a simplified value chain map in the agricultural sector that distinguishes between function and actors.

There is no common method for denoting engendered relations in a value chain map. The approach taken may depend on the data collected. Where sex segregation is strong or complete, separate shapes or colors can indicate where men and women dominate. **Figure 2** provides an example in which color and size highlight the relations and relative importance of different male and female actors in the production of honey in Ethiopia. In **Figure 3**, the Twanya EAST project value chain map uses a different color to indicate a higher proportion of women. In some cases, if the flow of value added differs significantly between men and women actors, separate shapes will highlight these relations more easily.

Once a preliminary value chain map has been sketched out, more precise information on the participation of men and women in the chain can be entered. The map may need to be modified if the gender analysis indicates that there are significant subgroups of actors. For example, in **Figure 2**, women honey producers use a different technology and produce a different product from the honey than the men, so these actors are separated out. In some cases, a separate value chain map should be developed.

FIGURE 1: CONCEPTUAL VALUE CHAIN MAPPING

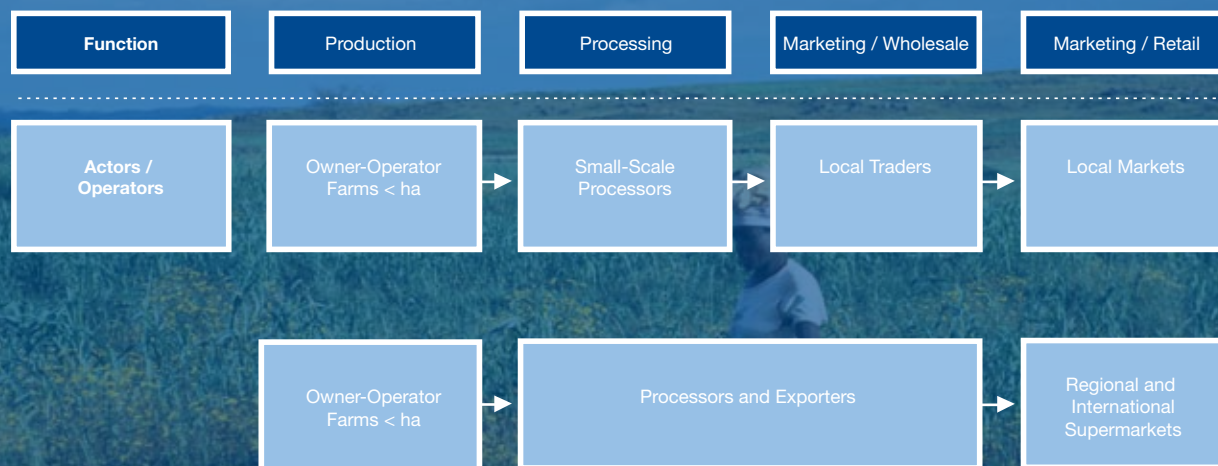


FIGURE 2: HONEY PRODUCTION IN ETHIOPIA

KEY

line thickness = power/
value/income levels

* = Main blockages

female →
male →

size = numbers

```

graph LR
    subgraph Inputs
        direction TB
        H1[hive production]
        H2[protective clothing]
    end
    subgraph Production
        direction TB
        P1[PRODUCTION honey]
    end
    subgraph Traders
        direction TB
        T1[TRADERS honey]
    end
    subgraph Processing
        direction TB
        P2[PROCESSING packaging]
    end
    subgraph Marketing
        direction TB
        M1[MARKETING finished products]
    end
    subgraph ExportMarket
        direction TB
        EM([Honey export market])
    end

    Inputs --> Production
    Production --> Traders
    Traders --> Processing
    Processing --> Marketing
    Marketing --> ExportMarket

    P1 --> T1
    T1 --> P2
    P2 --> M1
    M1 --> EM

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TWANYA EAST PROJECT QUANTITATIVE MAPPING EXERCISE

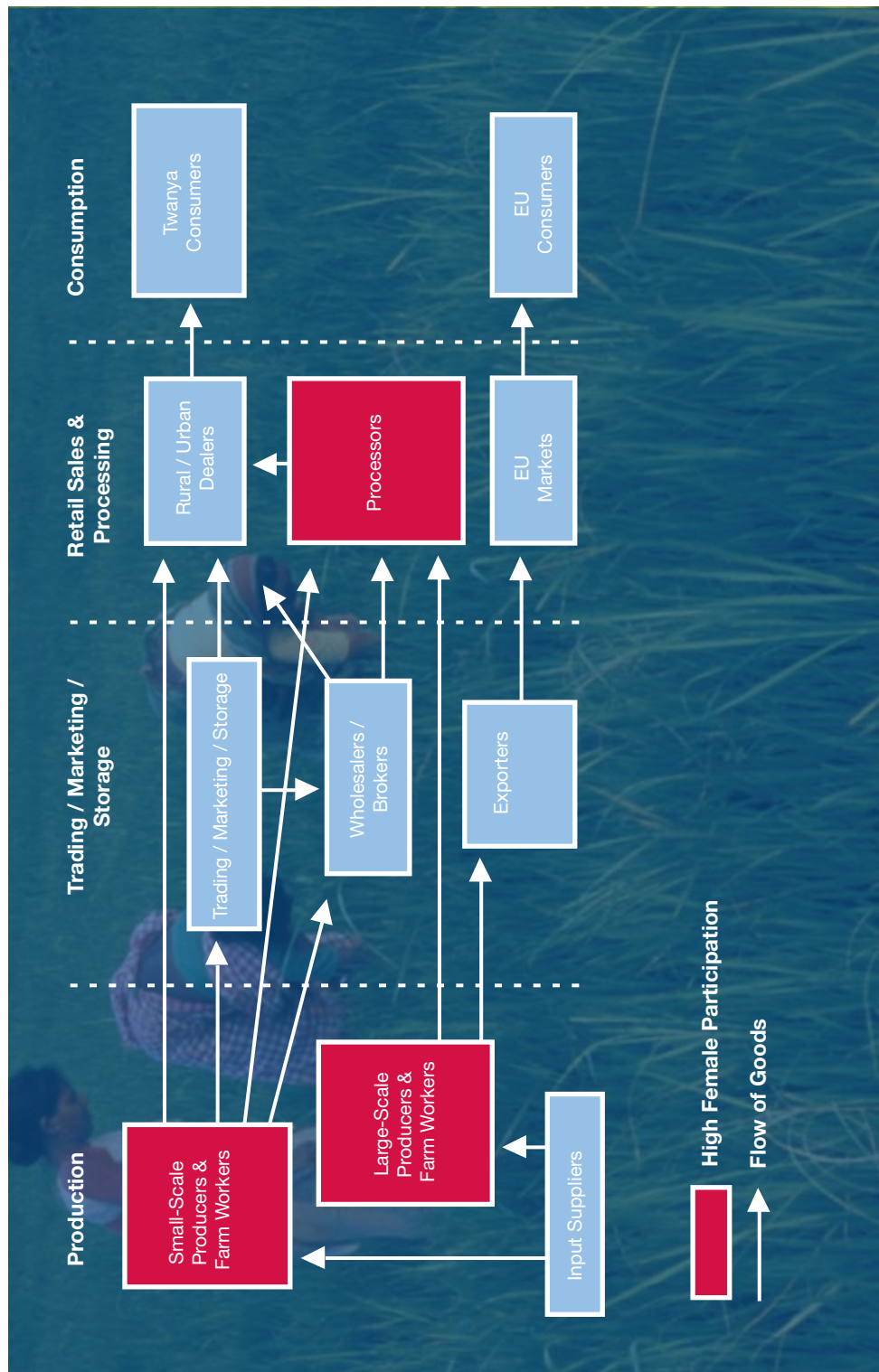
Table 5 summarizes the data on sex segmentation collected by the Twanya EAST project on the passion fruit value chain. The data were culled from baseline surveys and initial market assessments. An initial analysis of the data revealed that women represent 39 percent of all employees along the chain. However, their participation varies greatly among the different actors. For example, women comprise 80 percent of workers on large-scale farms and 73 percent of all workers in processing plants. In contrast, women are greatly underrepresented as rural purchasing agents and wholesalers/brokers. In addition, the data revealed a high level of informality. Of the women employed in the chain, 81 percent of women's jobs are classified as informal. Further, there exists a disparity in men's and women's wages. Women earn an average of 29 percent less than men along the chain.

The Twanya EAST project decided to map women's participation along the chain based on their initial findings. The categories of actors in yellow indicate a high presence of women. This helped the team to visualize women's presence and absence along the chain. The map will be updated as new information is made available.

TABLE 5. OWNERSHIP, EMPLOYMENT, AND WAGES IN THE PASSION FRUIT VALUE CHAIN

	% F Owner	Male Employee	Female Employee	Total	% F	% Informal	F/M Wages
Input Suppliers	.30	142	88	221	0.36	—	0.56
Producers	.15	6,890	5,265	12,155	0.43	0.82	0.98
Small and Medium-Sized	.15	1,923	711	2,634	0.27	0.85	0.88
Large	.00	1,704	6,816	8,521	0.80	0.82	0.53
Rural Purchasing Agents	.01	58	3	61	0.05	0.93	0.69
Wholesalers/Brokers	.03	79	6	85	0.07	0.79	0.73
Processors	.05	2,737	6,054	8,294	0.73	0.64	0.58
Total	.09	13,533	18,943.62	32,476	0.39	0.81	0.71

FIGURE 3: PASSION FRUIT VALUE CHAIN IN TWANYA



QUALITATIVE MAPPING

Through collecting sex-disaggregated data, men’s and women’s overall participation in the value chain is better understood. The data help to measure various areas of sex segmentation. In the case of the Twanya EAST project, project staff learned that there is labor market, wage, and ownership segmentation along the passion fruit chain. The quantitative data alone, however, do not explain the current gender roles and relations nor how they might impede value chain efficiency, program objectives, or women’s empowerment. Qualitative data are required to understand the factors that produce particular outcomes for men and women. It also clarifies how current gender roles and relations affect and are affected by value chain operations.

STEP 1. IDENTIFY GENDER ROLES AND RELATIONS

Qualitative information about gender roles, responsibilities, and relationships are found in a range of materials, from academic studies, in-depth surveys, project reports, and people with their own sometimes accurate and sometimes inaccurate ideas about appropriate behaviors for men and women. It can be difficult to know what to do with the wealth of information available. The Gender Dimensions Framework is a tool to organize the data about gender.

In the Phase One Worksheet, “Organizing Gender-Related Information,” the information presented in the case study narrative is organized according to each of the dimension categories. It is the first step in understanding gender relations in countries or communities where the project will be implemented or where it already works to understand how those relations influence men’s and women’s participation in operating existing value chains or that need to be addressed before organizing new ones. After organizing the data given in the narrative, the worksheet provides space to raise questions about the implications of the data given. Is additional data needed on any point? Are there points on which the data presented disagree? The questions raised in the last column of Phase One Worksheet can be included later during interviews with actors along the value chain or by seeking additional background data from government sources or other published materials.

PHASE ONE WORKSHEET: ORGANIZING GENDER-RELATED INFORMATION FROM INTERVIEWS

DIMENSION	INFORMATION ABOUT WOMEN	INFORMATION ABOUT MEN	QUESTIONS
PRACTICES AND PARTICIPATION	<ul style="list-style-type: none">✦ On the farm, women perform labor-intensive tasks, such as planting, transplanting, weeding, and harvesting vegetables and fruits.✦ Women and girls do most of the household work (e.g., child care, food preparation, cleaning).✦ Power differentials: Women do a disproportional amount of household work. Young women are not permitted to work outside of their homes at night.	<ul style="list-style-type: none">✦ On the farm, men typically provide labor for field preparation.✦ Men are more commonly elected as producer association leaders.✦ Men own the vast majority of export firms.✦ Men handle crop sales.	

DIMENSION	INFORMATION ABOUT WOMEN	INFORMATION ABOUT MEN	QUESTIONS
ACCESS TO KEY PRODUCTIVE ASSETS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ★ Married women have small gardens on which they grow vegetables. ★ Married women can sell the vegetables from their gardens in local markets. ★ Some women earn income through work in agro-vet shops in counter sales and in agricultural processing plants in entry-level positions. ★ Women have little access to agricultural extension services. ★ Women typically need to have husbands cosign loans. ★ Girls typically receive less education than boys and are underrepresented in most technical agricultural fields. ★ Power differentials: Married women need to get husbands to cosign loans for start-up or operating capital. The proportion of firms owned by men suggests this is harder for women than for men. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ★ Men own larger farms than women. ★ Men own cattle. ★ Some men have wage jobs; they are hired as porters, drivers, and to run heavy equipment. Men are also preferred for management jobs in processing plants. ★ Men receive the bulk of agricultural extension services. ★ Men go farther in school than women and are better represented in technical disciplines related to agriculture. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ★ What are the other sources of income for men and for women? Who contributes more labor and more income to the household? Who controls that income? ★ Need more information on landownership. How do unmarried adults get access to land? ★ Why are agricultural extension services more accessible to men? ★ Why do women refrain from studying agriculture? How successful are the women who do?
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ★ It is perceived as inappropriate for women to load trucks or work as porters. ★ Women are perceived as more capable than men at performing jobs that need “sensitive care.” ★ Women prefer not to drive at night. ★ It is believed that women managers cannot manage men well in processing plants. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ★ Men are perceived as less likely to follow instructions provided by an agro-vet agent than women. ★ Boys should receive preference in (higher) education. ★ Young men in urban areas are thought to be hard workers while those in rural areas are thought to be lazy. ★ Power differentials: Men expect women and younger men (sons) to defer to them on key decisions regarding the household. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ★ Would women take on “heavier” jobs if there were better tools available?
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ★ Legislation stipulates equal inheritance rights for children, indiscriminate of sex. Yet women seldom inherit on an equal basis with their brothers. ★ Girls who become pregnant must leave primary or secondary school. ★ Banks ask spouses to cosign loan documents. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ★ Legislation stipulates equal inheritance rights for children, indiscriminate of sex. ★ Banks typically ask spouses to cosign loan documents. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ★ Do statutory laws on marriage and inheritance refer to customary laws? Which takes precedence in which situations?

PHASE ONE WORKSHEET: ORGANIZING GENDER-RELATED INFORMATION FROM INTERVIEWS (CONT.)

DIMENSION	INFORMATION ABOUT WOMEN	INFORMATION ABOUT MEN	QUESTIONS
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✳ It is perceived as inappropriate for women to load trucks or work as porters. ✳ Women are perceived as more capable than men at performing jobs that need “sensitive care.” ✳ Women prefer not to drive at night. ✳ It is believed that women managers cannot manage men well in processing plants. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✳ Men are perceived as less likely to follow instructions provided by an agro-vet agent than women. ✳ Boys should receive preference in (higher) education. ✳ Young men in urban areas are thought to be hard workers while those in rural areas are thought to be lazy. ✳ Power differentials: Men expect women and younger men (sons) to defer to them on key decisions regarding the household. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✳ Would women take on “heavier” jobs if there were better tools available?
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In addition to reviewing secondary data, practitioners should also conduct in-depth individual or group interviews with actors along the chain. The interviews should explore men’s and women’s roles, the relationships between men and women, and the institutional structures that support men and women. Existing project data should be used to formulate the qualitative data exercise. In the case of the Twanya EAST project, the initial mapping exercise revealed various types of segmentation that need further examination, including factors affecting women’s limited ownership along the chain, occupational segregation, and wage disparity.

The INGIA-VC interview guide was developed based on the Gender Dimensions Framework. Using the framework, questions are posed about access to assets, perceptions and beliefs, practices and participation, and laws, policies, and institutions related to value chain operations. The questions are tailored for each actor in the chain. The chart below provides examples of the types of questions asked of producers and processors. Supplementary data from the Twanya EAST project is given in the Supplementary Interview Data following the case study.

TABLE 6: SAMPLE QUESTIONS FROM THE INGIA-VC INTERVIEW GUIDE

ACTOR IN THE CHAIN	ACCESS TO ASSETS	PERCEPTIONS AND BELIEFS	PRACTICES AND PARTICIPATION	LAWS, POLICIES, REGULATORY INSTITUTIONS
Producers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ★ How did you obtain your land? ★ How do you get information on new farming practices? ★ How do you get information on market prices? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ★ Are there aspects of production that are hard for you because you are a woman/man? ★ Are there aspects of production that men/women are discouraged from doing? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ★ Who makes decisions about the farm enterprise? ★ Who makes decisions about what crops to produce? ★ Who negotiates sales? ★ Who receives income from the sale? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ★ Are there laws or policies that make it hard for you to run your farm as a business?
Processors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ★ How did you raise the initial funds to purchase/obtain the business? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ★ Do you believe that men or women are better suited to particular jobs in your business? ★ Do you believe that there are differences in the supply or quality of the product that you receive from men or women? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ★ What kind of jobs do men and women do in the plant/factory? ★ With whom do you negotiate your sales contract (man/woman)? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ★ Are there laws or policies that prohibit men or women from performing particular jobs in the plant/factory?

STEP 2. ORGANIZING THE DATA

Data collected in the interviews need to be organized to make sense. First, separate the information collected from women or about women from information collected by men or about men. Men and women have different assets, undertake different tasks, and receive different benefits from their participation in the chain. Organizing the data should help identify these differences.

Second, beliefs and perceptions inform common understandings of what is appropriate for men and women. Note how particular outcomes (i.e., access to assets or responsibility for tasks) are informed by beliefs and social expectations.

Third, often data reveal contradictions. For example, interviewees may express a belief that women are “more trustworthy” when it comes to repaying loans. However, that belief may or may not result in women actually receiving more or larger loans. Women’s lack of collateral may override a belief about their collective “trustworthiness.” It is important to note these contradictions.

The Phase One worksheet “Organizing Gender-Related Information from Interviews” provides an example of how to organize the data from the field interviews. The organization is only suggestive; each project is likely to develop its own worksheets to highlight the information most important for the activities they are supporting. The information in the chart is culled from the data collected by the Twanya EAST project, including information from the case study narrative and supplementary interviews.

PHASE ONE WORKSHEET: ORGANIZING GENDER-RELATED INFORMATION FROM INTERVIEWS

ACTOR IN THE VALUE CHAIN: PRODUCERS	DATA ABOUT MEN	DATA ABOUT WOMEN	BELIEFS ABOUT MEN AND WOMEN RELATED TO DATA REPORTED IN PREVIOUS TWO COLUMNS	OBSERVATIONS OR OTHER DATA TO CONFIRM OR CONTRADICT REPORTED DATA
Description of daily activities on the farm from morning to dinner.	6:00 a.m.: wakes up, milks cow, goes to town for supplies 8:00 a.m.–2:00 p.m.: works on farm 2:00 p.m.: eats lunch 3:00 p.m.–4:00 p.m.: works on farm	5:00 a.m.: wakes up, cleans the house, works on the farm 10:00 a.m.: feeds livestock, weeds 12:00 p.m.: prepares lunch 1:00 p.m.: rests 2:00 p.m.–5:00 p.m.: feeds livestock, works on the farm 6:00 p.m.: prepares dinner	Response from men: “Cooking is women’s work”	Some husbands interviewed reported preparing their own midday meals because their wives were working in the fields. Another young man said he would cook for himself if he were living alone.
How did you obtain your land? Who makes decisions about the use of land?	He inherited the land from his father. He makes decisions about the use of land.	Farms on her husband’s plot. She consults her husband before making decisions about how to use the land (1st woman). Farms on her father’s land, but she can decide what to grow (2nd woman).	Men’s response: Unmarried women should not own land because they will have to leave it when they marry.	Census data confirm low rates of women’s landownership.
How do you raise cash when you need it?	He is also a milk vendor. Sales from milk are used to purchase inputs for the farm.	She sells a chicken when she needs cash.		Agricultural surveys show that only 3% of agricultural households access credit. Women are more likely to borrow from families and friends; men from cooperatives.

Continued - PHASE ONE WORKSHEET: ORGANIZING GENDER-RELATED INFORMATION FROM INTERVIEWS

ACTOR IN THE VALUE CHAIN: PRODUCERS	DATA ABOUT MEN	DATA ABOUT WOMEN	BELIEFS ABOUT MEN AND WOMEN RELATED TO DATA REPORTED IN PREVIOUS TWO COLUMNS	OBSERVATIONS OR OTHER DATA TO CONFIRM OR CONTRADICT REPORTED DATA
How do you find labor?	Hires casual laborers for clearing and plowing. Men are hired for both tasks.	Initially hired boys, but now employs women exclusively	<p>Woman's response: Boys have greater economic opportunities than women. They are unwilling to receive lower wages.</p> <p>Man's response: More men are looking for jobs. They feel pressure to be "breadwinners" for their family.</p> <p>2nd man's response: Women are more willing to listen to instructions and to be more reliable workers.</p>	
<p>How do you get reliable information on new farming practices?</p> <p>Who makes decisions about the choice of crops (or varieties) to produce?</p> <p>Who makes decisions about the technology used?</p>	<p>From the association and friends (1st man).</p> <p>He makes decisions about crops and technology (2nd man).</p>	<p>Her husband receives information from the producer association. She is not a member of the association and is not able to attend meetings/trainings.</p> <p>She and her husband make decisions together.</p> <p>Her husband. He has greater knowledge of new technologies and production techniques (2nd woman's response).</p>	<p>Man's response: Men have many "outdoor" activities, so it's easier for men to get information than women.</p>	<p>Women reported listening to the radio and talking with their friends to get agricultural information. They were also aware of it being available on their cell phones but felt that it cost too much money to use. Many had access to cell phones and would use them to get market information if there were no cost.</p> <p>Younger couples reported making decisions more collaboratively; older women deferred to their husbands.</p>
<p>How do you get your product to your buyer?</p> <p>Who negotiates with buyers?</p>	<p>He uses a bike to take his products to market (1st man).</p> <p>He negotiates with the buyers (1st man).</p>	<p>Her husband transports the products to market (1st woman).</p> <p>When she sells locally, she transports the vegetables in a basket on her head (3rd woman).</p>	<p>Woman's response: Marketing is perceived as a man's task because it involves transporting and interacting with men.</p> <p>Man's response: Negotiating with buyers is done by men. "Women might get cheated."</p> <p>Women don't have time to go to the market given their household responsibilities. Plus, most women in this area don't ride bikes. That is the primary way in which products are transported to market.</p>	<p>Observations in the village and town markets showed that market sellers of vegetables and smaller quantities of fruits were women. Sellers with larger quantities and those who sold grains were mostly men.</p>

Continued - PHASE ONE WORKSHEET: ORGANIZING GENDER-RELATED INFORMATION FROM INTERVIEWS

ACTOR IN THE VALUE CHAIN: PRODUCERS	DATA ABOUT MEN	DATA ABOUT WOMEN	BELIEFS ABOUT MEN AND WOMEN RELATED TO DATA REPORTED IN PREVIOUS TWO COLUMNS	OBSERVATIONS OR OTHER DATA TO CONFIRM OR CONTRADICT REPORTED DATA
Who receives income from the sale?	<p>He receives the income. His wife's portion of the income is determined based on his evaluation of the household's needs.</p> <p>He keeps the money for his own needs, but helps out to buy household items for the household (married man).</p> <p>He splits his profits 50/50 with his father (2nd unmarried man).</p>	<p>The money is split 70/30. She receives 30% of the sales to cover household expenditures (married woman).</p> <p>She keeps all the money from her vegetable sales but is expected to help her mother with major purchases (unmarried woman).</p>		

Continued - PHASE ONE WORKSHEET: ORGANIZING GENDER-RELATED INFORMATION FROM INTERVIEWS

ACTOR IN THE VALUE CHAIN: PRODUCER ASSOCIATIONS	DATA ABOUT MEN	DATA ABOUT WOMEN	BELIEFS ABOUT MEN AND WOMEN RELATED TO DATA REPORTED IN PREVIOUS TWO COLUMNS	OBSERVATIONS OR OTHER DATA TO CONFIRM OR CONTRADICT REPORTED DATA
How much are membership fees (registration and maintenance)? Schedule, frequency, and location of meetings	US\$15 registration fee. US\$30 per annum maintenance fee. Three annual meetings are held at the association office from 9 a.m. to 12 p.m. Emergency meetings are called as needed.		Women reported having difficulty attending some meetings because of their responsibility for other work; meetings did not always start on time and took longer than expected; or they did not have the funds for transport.	Observations at several meetings confirmed that more men than women attended in the mixed-sex producer associations.
What are the criteria for membership in the association? What are the benefits to members? How many members are men? How many members are women?	Have to be a farmer with .5 hectare land vegetable production and .5 hectare land fruit production. Collective sales; secure markets; collective transportation; production trainings. (Trainings are limited exclusively to members; family members are not permitted to attend trainings.) 60 men/40 women (1st group). 23 women (2nd group).			

Continued - PHASE ONE WORKSHEET: ORGANIZING GENDER-RELATED INFORMATION FROM INTERVIEWS

ACTOR IN THE VALUE CHAIN: PRODUCER ASSOCIATIONS	DATA ABOUT MEN	DATA ABOUT WOMEN	BELIEFS ABOUT MEN AND WOMEN RELATED TO DATA REPORTED IN PREVIOUS TWO COLUMNS	OBSERVATIONS OR OTHER DATA TO CONFIRM OR CONTRADICT REPORTED DATA
<p>Number and sex of association officers</p> <p>What are the qualifications needed to become an association leader?</p> <p>What financial resources (financial, time, other) are required to be an association leader?</p>	<p>7 positions (chair, vice-chair, secretary, treasurer, 3 association member representatives)</p> <p>5 men / 2 women (secretary position and one association member representative position are held by women).</p> <p>Knowledgeable of agricultural issues; effective communicator with diverse audiences (members, donors, government officials); advocates for the needs of farmers.</p>	<p>Women have to consult with their husbands before deciding to run for a position. It is important for them to discuss how the woman will manage her household activities with the time commitments of the leadership position.</p>	<p>Men and women are equally capable of holding leadership positions.</p> <p>Women often choose not to run for leadership positions because they feel that they don't want to "risk their marriage" for the association.</p>	<p>Visits to multiple association offices and review of project records reveal that most association leaders and committee chairmen are men. When women are elected into positions, they are overwhelmingly elected as secretaries and/or treasurers but rarely as presidents/chairs or vice-chairs, unless it is a "women-only" group.</p>

Continued - PHASE ONE WORKSHEET: ORGANIZING GENDER-RELATED INFORMATION FROM INTERVIEWS

ACTOR IN THE VALUE CHAIN: PRODUCER ASSOCIATIONS Please note whether the owner of the business is a man or a woman	DATA ABOUT MEN	DATA ABOUT WOMEN	BELIEFS ABOUT MEN AND WOMEN RELATED TO DATA REPORTED IN PREVIOUS TWO COLUMNS	OBSERVATIONS OR OTHER DATA TO CONFIRM OR CONTRADICT REPORTED DATA
Do you believe that being a man or a woman helps someone to become an association leader?			Women believe that they are not as capable at marketing as men. Marketing often entails being on the road at night. This is "risky" for women.	
Source of initial capital for the business?	From savings and from a bank loan. From as a government employee (in local government).	Foreign investor. From savings as a government employee (a teacher). From husband.		In Twanya, only 12% of horticultural export firms were actually owned by women. Of these 33 firms, 90% (27) were started by married women whose husbands had professional positions.
Who is responsible for the day-to-day operations of the business?	The owner (a man) hired a manager (a man).	She co-owns the business with the foreign investor. She is the operational manager.	There was a perception stated by both men and women that women were not capable of managing men and that men would not listen to a woman manager.	Interviews with successful women business owners suggest that there are many women capable of managing men, but the belief that they can't do so well is a problem.
Number and sex of employees?	10 permanent staff 15 contract employees 10 casual employees	4 permanent staff 15 contract employees 90 casual employees		

Continued - PHASE ONE WORKSHEET: ORGANIZING GENDER-RELATED INFORMATION FROM INTERVIEWS

ACTOR IN THE VALUE CHAIN: PRODUCER ASSOCIATIONS	DATA ABOUT MEN	DATA ABOUT WOMEN	BELIEFS ABOUT MEN AND WOMEN RELATED TO DATA REPORTED IN PREVIOUS TWO COLUMNS	OBSERVATIONS OR OTHER DATA TO CONFIRM OR CONTRADICT REPORTED DATA
Types of jobs performed by men/women	Technical positions Management Machine operation	Accounting Cleaning Grading Sealing	Women are “naturally” more careful and precise. Men are careless and sloppy. Women are better at cleaning and grading vegetables than men. Women aren’t as physically strong as men and therefore have difficulty lifting heavy machinery. Men have difficulty taking instructions from a woman. It’s better to have a man as a manager. “You have to be a really tough and assertive woman to manage men. I haven’t been able to find any women who can do it.”	Records show that there are significant pay and benefit differences among these positions. Women are the majority workers in the lower-paid, more seasonal jobs of cleaning, grading, and sorting. Technical positions that require more training and skills are more highly paid and filled predominantly by men.
Is there a difference in the supply or quality of the product that you receive from men or women?			“I can immediately tell if the fruits have been harvested by a man or a woman. Harvesting requires patience. Men don’t ‘naturally’ have patience.”	This is information that should be specifically collected in a survey.

PHASE TWO: FROM GENDER INEQUALITIES TO GENDER-BASED CONSTRAINTS

The work conducted in Phase Two is intended to help practitioners identify GbCs affecting value chain development. Some gender differences may be unimportant to the value chain, for example, where men and women may each design and produce a different style of basket for home use. Access to land, however, can be critical for value chain development, and men's and women's differential access to land becomes a product of GbC on land allocation. Where relevant GbCs are identified, the factors creating those constraints need to be considered.

The available data from Twanya compiled from documents and collected in field interviews reveal that men and women have multiple roles and responsibilities related to the maintenance of the household and related enterprises on and off the farm. Some of these are distinct; others are overlapping or intersecting. The gender and value chain analysis worksheet that follows, "Phase Two Worksheet: From Observed Inequalities to Gender-Based Constraint Statements," helps to identify the types of disparities existing in the communities in which the project works and to distinguish the areas of inequality that are relevant to the efficient operation of the value chain.

Gender-based constraints refer to restrictions on men's or women's access to resources or opportunities that are based on their gender roles or responsibilities. The term encompasses both the measurable inequalities that are revealed by sex-disaggregated data collection and gender analysis as well as the processes that contribute to a specific condition of gender inequality.

STEP 1. IDENTIFY CONDITIONS OF GENDER DISPARITY

Using information from the case study narrative and the interview data from the Twanya EAST project, the first step is to identify measurable conditions of inequality linked to a society's understanding of gender. For example, women and men have different spheres of responsibility and perform different tasks on the farm and in the household. Men in Twanya work in agriculture, but their tasks are limited to land preparation and harvesting, although they have a significant role in deciding about which crops to plant, how much of them to plant, and how to market the harvested produce. Women have many more tasks to complete on the farm, including planting, fertilizing, and weeding, but they also assume nearly all of the work of maintaining the home. It is possible that men and women work on different tasks but that they are of equal importance. In other situations, as is common in many agricultural communities, women bear a greater proportion of the workload and have less power to control their work. Women's lack of time, or "time-poverty," illustrates gender unequal conditions, that is, measurable inequalities that are revealed by sex-disaggregated data collection and gender analysis.



STEP 2. IDENTIFY THE FACTORS THAT CAUSE CONDITIONS OF GENDER DISPARITY

The findings of inequalities (“conditions”) in step 1 is followed by investigation to clarify the causes (“factors”) in step 2. In some cases, the causes may be obvious. In other cases, it may require additional investigation to understand why the inequalities exist.

At least two different factors are at work that might explain the gender disparities in time allocation used in this example:

- ★ First, many women producers lack access to labor-saving, on-farm, and domestic technologies that would make their labor more efficient.
- ★ Second, social expectations in the community shape beliefs about the type of work that is appropriate for men and women. These social expectations influence men and women to have different and unequal levels of effort leading to different patterns of time allocation.

It is important to move beyond stereotypes about the reasons for gender disparities. It is not helpful, for example, to accept that “this is what we do”; instead try to find examples of people whose successes, even if only in small ways, show how barriers can be overcome. Identifying an appropriate and manageable “factor” to address is a critical prerequisite to charting a pathway for change.

In many actual cases, it may be necessary to do some additional investigating to determine the most critical factors leading to the gendered inequalities that are relevant to a project’s goals.

STEP 3. FORMULATE A CAUSE AND EFFECT HYPOTHESIS: THE GENDER-BASED CONSTRAINT STATEMENT (GBC STATEMENT)

Identifying one or more measurable area(s) of inequality and the factors that cause them lead to the formulation of the GbC statement. An example is provided from the INGIA-VC training conducted in Kenya.

Condition(s) of inequality:

- ✳ Fewer women than men are members of the dairy producers association although women are the primary caretakers of the dairy cows.
- ✳ Fewer women have payment accounts with the local dairy processing plant because the accounts are based on association membership.
- ✳ Women do not always receive full payment for the milk they sell.

Factor:

- ✳ Dairy association requires titled ownership to land, but women are rarely included as property owners on spousal property.

GbC statement:

- ✳ Women are constrained from full membership in the dairy association and thus do not receive full payment for the milk they supply because they are not registered landowners.



The GbC statement is a product of the multistep gender analysis and is the foundation for identifying the actionable steps that need to be put in place to build the value chain so that it offers equal opportunities to both men and women at each level of the chain. Each GbC statement has three parts: (1) it shows who is being affected, (2) it identifies what result is being limited (the condition), (3) and it offers a framing of the cause of that limitation (the factor). The statement above can be diagrammed this way:

GENDER-BASED CONSTRAINT STATEMENT	WHO	CONDITION OF DISPARITY	FACTOR(S) CAUSING THE CONDITION
	Women	are constrained from putting more time into market-oriented horticultural production	because: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ★ they lack transport to travel quickly between their farms and their homes (lack of access to transportation), and ★ they are expected to be home to prepare a daily evening meal (social expectation)
	Women	are constrained from full membership in the dairy association that is based on landownership and thus do not receive full payment for the milk they supply	because they are not registered landowners (unequal access to assets).

In real life (as in the example on time allocation), there may be multiple factors leading to the observed and measurable conditions of gender inequality, and there may also be cascading set of factors and conditions that lead to different types of constraints. In this situation, women’s time-poverty may also constrain their participation in an association, or it may be a factor in women’s relative lack of income to purchase land. The discussion here is oversimplified to establish a process that can be helpful in the field. Interview data can be tested in focus groups to prioritize these cascading constraints and to determine which are most important for the project to address at that time.

The Phase Two worksheet provides several illustrations of the process described above. It uses the organizing structure of the Gender Dimensions Framework from earlier worksheets to stimulate thinking about the types of inequalities described by both the quantitative and the qualitative data collection. The factors identified in the resulting GbC statement become the probable “levers” for action in the project activity.

PHASE TWO WORKSHEET: FROM OBSERVED INEQUALITIES TO GENDER-BASED CONSTRAINT STATEMENTS

DIMENSION	OBSERVED AND MEASURABLE UNEQUAL CONDITIONS	FACTORS LEADING TO THE OBSERVED GENDER INEQUALITIES	GBC STATEMENT
Practices and Participation	In comparison to men, women have less discretionary time available.	Women work on both household and agricultural tasks. Women are disproportionately responsible for household work.	Women are often constrained from improving on-farm productivity because of time-poverty linked to their household labor responsibilities.
Access to Assets	<p>Women have greater difficulty in accessing capital; they take out fewer loans than do men.</p> <p>Women own fewer and smaller agricultural plots than do men, even though the land law allows men and women to inherit equally.</p> <p>Producer association membership is based on landownership; fewer women than men are registered members.</p>	<p>Husbands and wives are required to cosign loans, but husbands are less willing to sign for their wives than wives are for husbands.</p> <p>Title to agricultural land is typically held in men's names. Equal inheritance under the law is not followed in practice, and women do not inherit family assets equally to their brothers.</p> <p>Producer associations do not allow nonland assets to be used to meet membership criteria.</p>	<p>Women are often constrained from accessing financial capital because they lack ownership of assets that can serve as collateral.</p> <p>Women are often constrained from improving the overall quality and quantity of horticultural crops because they lack access to services provided by producer associations because of membership requirements for landownership.</p>
Beliefs and Perceptions	Women are observed to hold fewer technical and management positions than men. Girls also form a small proportion of the agricultural science and technical students in secondary schools.	Both men and women express concerns about placing women in supervisory positions over men. These stereotypes work against even those women with degrees and excellent qualifications.	Women are often constrained from filling senior management and technical positions in processing firms because of discriminatory social attitudes toward women's employment and ability to manage men.
Laws, Policies, and Institutions	Women cannot work in horticultural processing plants at night.	<p>Labor laws restrict women's nighttime work.</p> <p>Labor laws restrict the weight women are allowed to carry.</p>	Women are restricted in the number of hours and types of jobs they can work because of discriminatory legislation.

PHASE THREE: ASSESSING THE CONSEQUENCES OF GENDER-BASED CONSTRAINTS

This phase of the process aims to assess the consequences of each identified GbC on value chain efficiency and competitiveness, the achievement of project objectives, and on women's economic empowerment. The purpose of this phase is to help practitioners connect GbCs with the goals and objectives of value chain programs. A common response by practitioners, when asked to consider gender issues in their program, is that the issues are not relevant to their particular activities. For example, the scope of a livestock program aimed at increasing the quality of milk need not consider addressing men and women's unequal access to land. So it is true that not all issues may be relevant to all projects. However, it is also true that practitioners often lack the capacity to connect gender issues to their activities and do not take the time to evaluate why particular GbCs may work against the achievement of goals.

This phase is meant to guide practitioners through an exercise to assess the implications of the constraints on different aspects of the program. It is a hypothesizing exercise through which practitioners consider the potential consequences that might occur if the program does not address the specific GbC.

DIFFERENT TYPES OF CONSEQUENCES OF GENDER-BASED CONSTRAINTS

Gender-based constraints that affect the value chain are understood as:

- ✦ Those that interfere with the achievement of the USAID-funded (or other donor) program/project objectives, e.g., where the constraint makes it impossible to reach the designated number of beneficiaries or volume of sales;
- ✦ Those that inhibit women's economic advancement, e.g., where the constraint keeps women from participating in key leadership positions in producer associations or from expanding their enterprises; and/or
- ✦ Those that impair or restrict the efficiency and competitiveness of the value chain as a whole, e.g., where the constraint affects the ability of producers to maintain a steady supply of quality products.

STEP 1. HYPOTHESIZING THE CONSEQUENCES OF GBCS

The INGIA-VC approach considers three types of consequences of the GbCs on value chain development programs. For GbC, practitioners should ask the following question:

What are the consequences of this constraint on

- ✧ Achieving project objectives?
- ✧ Supporting women's economic advancement?
- ✧ Building efficient and competitive value chains?

In the context of USAID programs, practitioners must consider specific targets and indicators. While overall objectives may be geared toward supporting value chain competitiveness and gender equality, programs also must report against their Performance Monitoring Plans. The latter two types of consequences consider how the GbC affects the value chain as a whole and women's economic advancement.

CONSEQUENCES OR "MISSED" OPPORTUNITIES

The process here is framed to have practitioners consider potential consequences. However, it could equally consider "missed opportunities" or how addressing GbCs contributes to potential gains for the value chain, women's economic empowerment, or the program.

Addressing women's lack of time to increase on-farm productivity has the potential consequence of reducing the volumes of crops flowing into the value chain. Ignoring this issue, while reducing the chain's competitiveness, would be a missed opportunity to addressing one of the most persistent gender inequalities women continue to face: the disproportionate burden of time spent on household activities.

The USAID-funded Kenya Dairy Development Program (2002–2008) explored introducing bio-gas technology to farms. The technology used cow manure as the fuel source for household stoves and ovens. This freed up the time women spent on collecting firewood, potentially increasing the time they could spend in more productive activities.



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Phase Three worksheet is meant to help practitioners think through the implications of the GbCs based on the three types explained above. The Phase Three worksheet begins with the GbC statement identified during Phase Two. This statement is generally constructed to facilitate the process of hypothesizing the potential consequences.

As an example, consider the following GbC statement:

GENDER-BASED CONSTRAINT STATEMENT	WHO	CONDITION OF DISPARITY	FACTOR(S) CAUSING THE CONDITION
	Women	are constrained from improving the overall quality and quantity of horticultural crops	because they lack access to services provided by producer associations as a result of membership requirements for landownership.

In Phase Two, the GbC statement was divided into three parts that show (1) who is being affected, (2) what result is being limited (the condition), and (3) the factor(s) causing the condition. The potential consequences of not addressing the GbC statement are generally embedded within the “condition of disparity” and the “factor(s) causing the condition.”

The potential consequences of this GbC statement on the Twanya EAST project are clearly referenced in the “condition of disparity.” The Twanya EAST project’s first objective, “increased productivity (quantity) of horticultural crops,” will be affected if women, who provide labor to the production of horticulture crops, do not receive appropriate guidance on crop production.

The potential consequences on women’s economic empowerment are found under the “factor(s) causing the condition.” In this case, the producer association’s membership criteria are based on landownership. Women in Twanya have less access to land based on practices that favor men. This limits their ability to learn new agriculture practices and to build social and political capital through participating in the association.

The consequences on the efficiency of the value chain often parallel the consequences on project objectives and women’s economic empowerment. In this case, on-farm productivity will be affected because women may not be receiving information on the production of their crops. Also, strengthening horizontal linkages through the creation of associations based on ownership of assets has the potential to exclude competent producers.

Consequences of the remaining GbC statements are broken up on the right and considered in the Phase Three worksheet.

PHASE THREE WORKSHEET: ASSESSING THE CONSEQUENCES OF GENDER-BASED CONSTRAINTS

GENDER-BASED CONSTRAINT	WHAT ARE THE CONSEQUENCES OF THIS CONSTRAINT ON:			PRIORITIZING CONSTRAINTS
	PROJECT OBJECTIVES	WOMEN'S ECONOMIC ADVANCEMENT	EFFICIENT AND COMPETITIVE VALUE CHAINS	
Women are often constrained from improving the overall quality and quantity of horticultural crops because they lack access to services provided by producer associations as a result of membership requirements for landownership.	<p>Increasing productivity of targeted horticulture commodities: If women are not receiving appropriate guidance on crop production, the project will miss opportunities to increase productivity.</p> <p>Strengthening producer associations: As strong associations are built on principles of democracy, producer associations built on criteria that exclude capable producers create vested interests in the community.</p>	<p>The constraint maintains women's status quo as resource-poor producers, missing opportunities for them to benefit from efforts to pool resources and to share information, services, and inputs.</p> <p>It also overlooks opportunities to support women's empowerment by increasing their social and political capital.</p>	<p>Women's lack of access to support services and information that can improve the quantity and quality of crops reduces efforts to upgrade production. It also hampers efforts to support the production of quality crops to buyers, thereby reducing the strength of vertical linkages built along the chain.</p> <p>Associations designed to include members on the basis of their assets, as opposed to their ability to cooperate to meet buyer demands, are less strong and overlook the potential for different types of producers to contribute to effective value chains.</p>	1
Women are often constrained from improving on-farm productivity because of time-poverty linked to their household labor responsibilities.	Time constraints will affect time available for work on farms, training, or producer fairs, reducing women's opportunity to participate in and benefit from many project activities.	As demands on women's on-farm labor increases, women may suffer even greater in terms of increased time-poverty.	Time constraints that take away from women's on-farm labor or create increased health risks that reduce their productivity, may reduce the flow of goods in the value chain.	2

PHASE THREE WORKSHEET: ASSESSING THE CONSEQUENCES OF GENDER-BASED CONSTRAINTS (CONT.)

GENDER-BASED CONSTRAINT	WHAT ARE THE CONSEQUENCES OF THIS CONSTRAINT ON:			PRIORITIZING CONSTRAINTS
	PROJECT OBJECTIVES	WOMEN'S ECONOMIC ADVANCEMENT	EFFICIENT AND COMPETITIVE VALUE CHAINS	
Women are often constrained from accessing financial capital because they lack ownership of assets that can serve as collateral.		Women will find it harder to engage in economic activities that require new capital (e.g., start businesses, purchase additional land or heavy machinery, hire employees).	Value chains are often capital-constrained, which reduces upgrading efforts.	4
Women are often constrained from filling senior management and technical positions in processing firms because of discriminatory social attitudes toward women's employment and ability to manage men.	To increase employment in horticultural production and processing: Gains in employment through the project activity, when disaggregated by sex and occupation, will show no change in the relative status of men and women.	Persistent discriminatory attitudes about women restrict their employment opportunities and are barriers to realizing economic empowerment.	Occupational segmentation reduces overall efficiency and competitiveness of value chains by not taking full advantage of the potential of qualified women.	3

STEP 2. PRIORITIZING CONSTRAINTS.

Once practitioners have considered the consequences of GbCs, they should prioritize the constraints to identify the most critical issues to address. Laying out the possible consequences in the previous step should help practitioners see which GbCs have the potential to affect the program negatively. In the next step, practitioners will brainstorm possible actions to overcome constraints. GbCs can have multiple factors or root causes that create the constraints, which means that addressing or alleviating any one constraint may require the articulation of several different strategies. For this reason, focusing on a select number of GbCs allows the design of actions to concentrate on a finite set of factors.

Determining the priorities is influenced by a variety of factors, including the project timeline, budget, short-term and long-term goals, and reporting requirements. It also means considering where action can have multiple spillover effects, that is, where the leverage points exist.

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In the case of the Twanya EAST project, staff reviewed the consequences of each of the GbCs they identified and prioritized them as follows:

1. Women are often constrained from improving the overall quality and quantity of horticultural crops because they lack access to services provided by producer associations as a result of membership requirements for landownership.
2. Women are often constrained from improving on-farm productivity because of time-poverty linked to their household labor responsibilities.
3. Women are often constrained from filling senior management and technical positions in processing firms because of discriminatory social attitudes toward women's employment and ability to manage men.
4. Women are often constrained from accessing financial capital because they lack ownership of assets that can serve as collateral.

As a first priority, the staff felt it was important to ensure that both men and women had access to the services that could improve the quantity and quality of their crops. The long-term gains in addressing this GbC would strengthen both horizontal and vertical linkages and might result in a stronger relationship between the buyer and the producer association.

Second, the staff considered women's lack of time because identifying ways of reducing women's time burden in the household would contribute to their economic advancement by freeing them for productive activities. It would allow them to participate in and benefit from program activities and potentially increase on-farm productivity.

Because the data on employment had not been disaggregated by sex, Twanya EAST project staff was unclear whether the discriminatory attitudes were contributing to occupational sex segmentation. However, they recognized that to support women's economic empowerment and meet USAID gender policy requirements, they needed to ensure that the project did not support discriminatory practices. Moreover, staff felt that encouraging firms to adopt a gender-equal workplace might attract buyers whose consumers were more concerned about the origins of their products.

Finally, because the staff was facilitating market linkages with buyers who could embed credit and other services in contracts with producer associations, the Twanya EAST project considered addressing women's lack of credit directly to be the least critical priority.

PHASE FOUR: TAKING ACTIONS TO REMOVE GENDER-BASED CONSTRAINTS

After determining the most critical GbCs to address, Phase Four focuses on brainstorming possible actions to remove these constraints and take advantage of opportunities to support women's economic empowerment.

This is an iterative and creative process that encourages practitioners to think innovatively and to evaluate the different opportunities of action against the economic and social realities of the program and its objectives. The temptation may be to think conservatively about the possible actions. A fear of “changing culture” often casts a shadow on brainstorming efforts, but practitioners should consider all possible actions and then determine how they can be appropriately implemented in the specific socioeconomic context.

Addressing gender issues in value chains seeks to identify relationships and actions that enhance value chain efficiency and competitiveness while supporting gender equality goals. This makes it possible for USAID-funded programs to meet the dual objectives of achieving programmatic targets, as well as supporting USAID policy on gender integration. In this way, it identifies leverage points at which value chain interventions generate positive gender outcomes or gender interventions generate broader positive value chain outcomes.

Cascading factors refer to situations in which multiple factors build on one another to create gender inequalities. For example, women's lack of finance may be the result of their lack of access to collateral such as land. Women's lack of access to land may be the product of inheritance practices or legal institutions that do not grant them the right to land. Addressing the gender-based constraint therefore can happen at multiple levels or at levels within the manageable interests of the project.

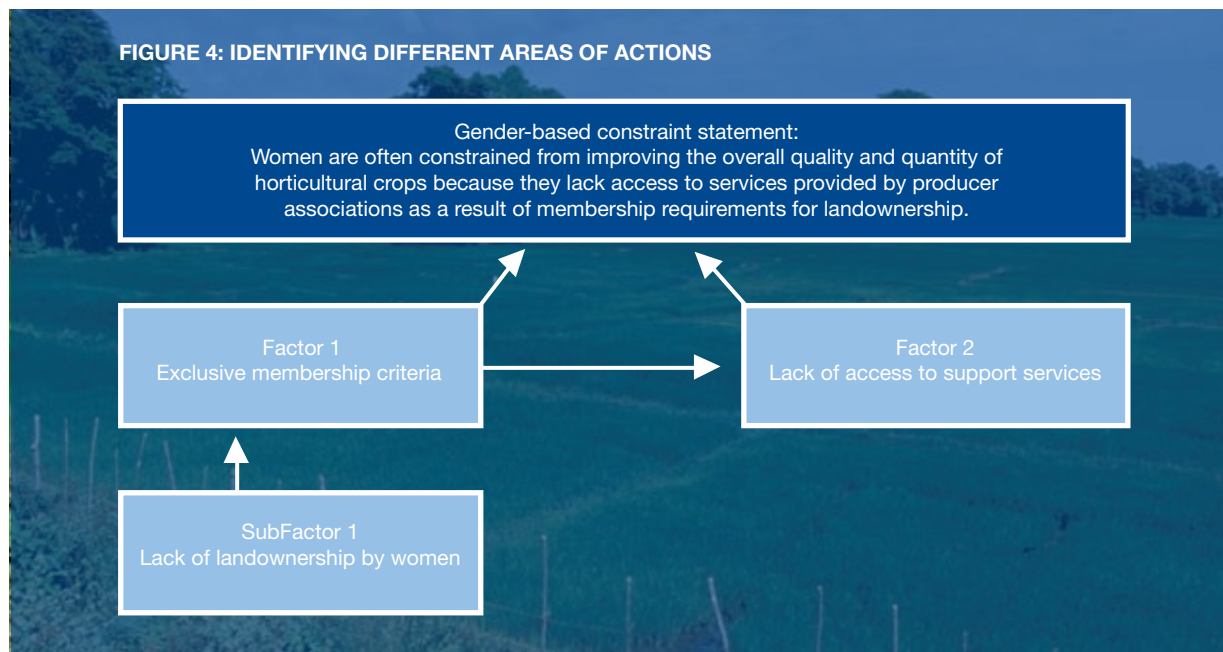
STEP 1. TAKE STOCK OF GENDER-BASED CONSTRAINTS.

Having selected a number of GbCs to address, now is the time to reexamine these constraints. As has been explained previously, GbCs are the result of multiple factors that create the gendered condition of inequality. To identify the range of possible actions, it is important to return to the GbC statement and examine those factors.

Using a constraints analysis tree,⁷⁵ practitioners can dissect the different factors embedded within the GbC. This is illustrated in [Figure 4](#). The GbC used in this example has multiple levels of factors. The first-level factors include the exclusive membership criteria to the producer associations and the lack of access to services. Although these two are related, as indicated by the arrow connecting the two boxes, they have been separated into two separate boxes because they refer to different dimensions of the GDF: Membership criteria are related to Practices and Participation; Access to services is related to Access to Assets. This also implies that there may be different areas of action required to address those factors.

*The Gender Continuum and definitions used here are an adaptation of work conducted by the InterAgency Working Group on Women that addresses gender issues in health and HIV/AIDS programs. Many explanations of the continuum have been developed. The version presented above is drawn from the forthcoming revision of the Gender Integration into HIV/AIDS program manual by Debbie Caro, published by PRB for the HPI project

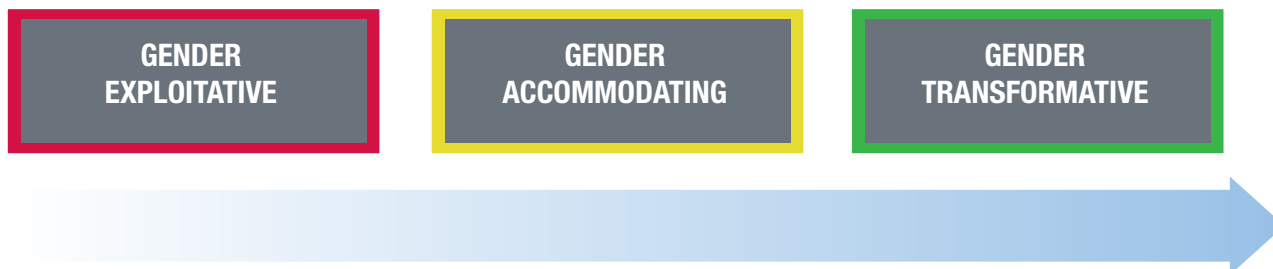
This exercise is important to better isolate the individual factors that create the GbC. If there are cascading factors, as in the case of the membership criteria, these should be outlined. Much of the work in this step will have been undertaken during Phase Two.



STEP 2. IDENTIFYING ACTIONS.

Programs can use different approaches to address gender issues in their activities. Because there is no single way of mitigating or removing gender-based constraints, it is useful to work off of a continuum of different strategies, or approaches, to gender integration. The Gender Continuum* (see Figure 5) identifies three different types of gender integration approaches (and/or outcomes) that move from gender exploitative to accommodating to transformative. The continuum can be referred to when assessing the design of different value chain activities or evaluating the outcome of particular activities. In this handbook, it is used to prioritize and design value chain interventions. The continuum is made up of three broad categories of gender integration strategies: (1) Gender Exploitative, (2) Gender Accommodating, and (3) Gender Transformative. The aim is to identify strategies that move toward gender transformative strategies.

FIGURE 5. GENDER CONTINUUM



THE GENDER CONTINUUM: GENDER INTEGRATION STRATEGIES

Gender Exploitative refers to projects that intentionally manipulate or misuse knowledge of existing gender inequalities and stereotypes in pursuit of economic outcomes. The approach reinforces unequal power in the relations between women and men and potentially deepens existing inequalities.

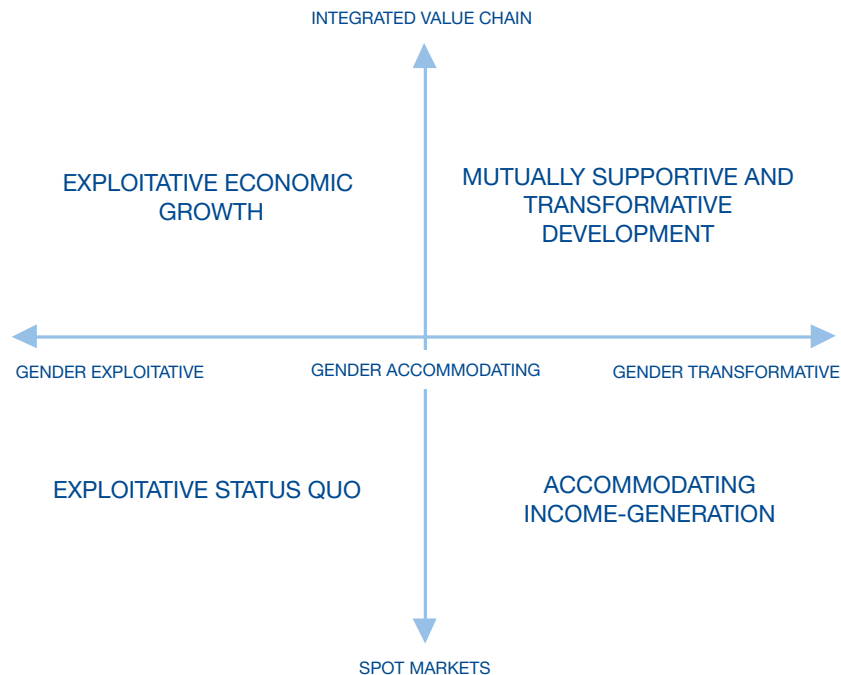
Gender Accommodating refers to projects that acknowledge inequities in gender relations and seek to develop actions that adjust to and often compensate for gender differences and inequities without addressing the underlying structures that perpetuate gender inequalities. While this approach considers the different roles and identities of women and men in the design of programs, it does not deliberately challenge unequal relations of power. In the process of achieving desired development objects, projects following this approach may miss opportunities for improving gender equality.

Gender Transformative refers to an approach that explicitly engages both women and men to examine, question, and change those institutions and norms that reinforce gender inequalities and, through that process, achieve both economic growth and gender equality objectives.

Source: Gender Manual 2009.

Building on the principles underlying the Gender Continuum, practitioners need to consider how well their strategies are aimed at building broad-based growth in which both men and women can participate. Combining the value chain approach with the Gender Continuum, results in a range of possible strategies as depicted in **Figure 6** and described below.

FIGURE 6: ACHIEVING THE WIN-WIN



EXPLOITATIVE STATUS QUO

This quadrant represents a continuation of “business as usual” conducted by firms and households in ways that reinforce existing inequalities. It captures the existing process of production and marketing both outside of donor-funded programs and unfortunately sometimes under existing programs as well, when no gender analysis has been made. The characteristics of the “Exploitative Status Quo” can include, for example, expectations that an additional need for labor, perhaps to meet quantity or quality specifications, can be drawn from women’s time without adjustments or compensation. Another example would be calculating “profits” using an assumption that household labor is “free labor” and not assigning any cost to it.

EXPLOITATIVE ECONOMIC GROWTH

Programs that use gender relations and stereotypes in negative ways to promote value chain development and competitiveness are considered “Exploitative Economic Growth” and are located in the upper left quadrant. Low wages in the garment sector and large-scale, export-oriented agriculture fall into this category when they are designed on the basis of perceptions of women’s “natural” abilities for certain tasks or have a bias favoring men as the only breadwinners. Firms use these low production costs to gain competitiveness in the global market. In the long run, this strategy has been shown to erode competitiveness.⁷⁶

ACCOMMODATING INCOME GENERATION

These programs most often focus on isolated income-generating opportunities for women. This is often the case in small-scale handicraft production or livestock projects. The benefits are cited in terms of women’s access to income and their ability to combine these activities with their domestic responsibilities. These do not consider the income-generating activities in a larger value chain context, which would ensure sustainability. Many programs fall into this category because it can be far simpler to address specific gender inequalities. Generally, these programs do not create systemic change in the value chain but will identify isolated issues that may create more dynamic change in a broad range of activities.

MUTUALLY SUPPORTIVE AND TRANSFORMATIVE

Achieving the “win-win” aims to find positive synergies between gender relations and value chain development. These programs design value chain activities to address gender inequalities directly. Among the strategies used by programs that fit this category are gender equitable market facilitation, introduction of labor-saving technology that reduce women’s labor, and promoting household approaches to farming business training.

The process for designing actions to remove constraints is iterative, identifying factors to address and designing actions to remove them. Since most GbCs involve multiple factors, programs may need to consider a range of strategies to ensure that GbCs are addressed. It may be possible to identify a fewer number of strategies, if they are able to address different factors of the constraint at the same time. There may also exist different types of actions to address specific constraints. Practitioners should consider the scope and resources for their specific program. Where programs face limits on their ability to act directly to remove particular factors, practitioners look to involve other actors in the value chain or donor-funded programs to collaborate on specific tasks.

The aim through this process is to identify mutually supportive and transformative strategies that lead toward gender equitable and competitive value chains (as shown in the upper right quadrant of [Figure 6](#)).

TIPS FOR IDENTIFYING ACTIONS

1. Be creative and think innovatively
2. Aim for strategic and market-driven solutions
3. Seek mutually supportive and transformative strategies
4. Engage both men and women

Phase Four worksheet provides examples of some possible actions for the Twanya EAST project. For each constraint, there are multiple opportunities for actions. Since one of its objectives is to strengthen trade and producer associations, pursuing a strategy that enhances productivity through an association that better represents all producers may be the most appropriate course of action. This strategy also contributes to building women's agency and voice through participation in the association.

However, another project might consider strategies to alleviate the GbC through the private sector. A rural sales agent model, as used in the Zambia PROFIT project,⁷⁷ might overcome the challenges women face accessing goods and services through producer associations by shifting the responsibility for bulking and delivering orders to input suppliers through sales agents. Where sales agents are trained to target women as customers, this could help women gain access to inputs. The Kenya Business Development Service (KBDS) program aimed to develop commercially sustainable business development enterprises for tree fruit sectors. In this model, the aim was focused on identifying and supporting the establishment of qualified individuals or groups of individuals who could provide such business development services as pruning, grafting, and transplanting to avocado and mango producers.⁷⁸



PHASE FOUR WORKSHEET: TAKING ACTIONS TO REMOVE GENDER-BASED CONSTRAINTS

LIST THE MOST IMPORTANT GENDER-BASED CONSTRAINTS FOR THE PROGRAM	FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO CONSTRAINT	WHAT ACTIONS MIGHT ADDRESS THE CONSTRAINTS TO ACHIEVE MORE EQUITABLE OUTCOMES?
Women are often constrained from improving the overall quality and quantity of horticultural crops because they lack access to services provided by producer associations as a result of membership requirements for landownership.	Exclusive membership criteria.	Encourage a change in membership criteria, e.g., graduated membership based on increased quality and quantity of product delivered to association.
	Lack of access to support services.	Design alternative service delivery scheme for non-producer association members (e.g., rural sales agent).
		Change association rules to allow non-producer members to attend trainings and access benefits.
	Lack of landownership by women.	Raise awareness on landownership rights.
		Advocate for equitable land distribution.
		Support better enforcement of existing legislative framework on land policy.
Women are often constrained from improving on-farm productivity because of time-poverty linked to their household labor responsibilities.	Women's household responsibilities.	Identify labor-saving technologies to reduce women's time on household responsibilities.
	Social perceptions that link household responsibilities with women's work.	Apply family as a farming business approach.
		Address time/task allocation of household labor in family business workshops.
Women are often constrained from accessing financial capital because they lack ownership of assets that can serve as collateral.	Collateral-based loan policies.	Work with lending institutions to design women- and pro-poor- friendly business loan instruments.
	Social perceptions about women's capabilities.	Advocate for legislative framework for use of nonland assets in lending.
		Design awareness raising campaigns to promote women's leadership in business.
Women are often constrained from filling senior management and technical positions in processing firms because of discriminatory social attitudes toward women's employment and ability to manage men.		Encourage firms to adopt gender-sensitive practices and policies (e.g., nondiscriminatory employment, gender-sensitive labor relations trainings).

PHASE FIVE: MEASURING SUCCESS OF ACTIONS

The purpose of this phase is to develop indicators that measure the success of actions taken to remove gender-based constraints. This discussion is limited to designing indicators for the actions identified in Phase Four. Gender-sensitive indicators are important because they measure gender-related changes in society. Gender-sensitive indicators help to reveal how men's and women's status and roles change over time. In doing so, gender-sensitive indicators help practitioners assess their relative success in achieving greater gender equality.

GENDER-SENSITIVE INDICATORS

An indicator is a pointer. It can be a measurement, a number, a fact, an opinion, or a perception that points at a specific condition or situation and measures changes in that condition or situation over time. . . . Indicators provide a close look at the results of initiatives and actions. . . . **Gender-sensitive indicators** have the special function of pointing out gender-related changes in society over time. Their usefulness lies in their ability to point to changes in the status and roles of women and men . . . to measure whether gender equity is being achieved. Because use of indicators . . . will lead to a better understanding of how results can be achieved, using gender-sensitive indicators will also feed into more effective future planning and program delivery.

CIDA. "Guide to Gender-Sensitive Indicators." Quebec: CIDA, 1997. [http://www.acdi-cida.gc.ca/inet/images.nsf/vLULImages/Policy/\\$file/WID-GUID-E.pdf](http://www.acdi-cida.gc.ca/inet/images.nsf/vLULImages/Policy/$file/WID-GUID-E.pdf)

STEP 1. DEVELOP GENDER-SENSITIVE INDICATORS

The discussion below provides a few pointers on developing gender-sensitive indicators.

Check your assumptions. Value chain development programs are often associated with larger goals, such as increasing rural household income. Part One discussed the heterogeneity of intrahousehold allocation practices. Increasing overall household income does not necessarily benefit all household members equally. Indicators may need to be modified to better understand how benefits are distributed. For example, in addition to indicators that measure changes in rural household income, projects should also consider adding indicators such as "percentage increase of income under women's control."

Avoid counting only bodies. Although it is important, for example, to disaggregate training participants by sex, such indicators do little to measure men's and women's relative opportunities. Gender-sensitive indicators should also count people moving into new positions and new opportunities. For example, if a project is tracking the number of jobs generated for men and women, it is important to know whether the jobs created for women are in underrepresented areas or reflect previous clustering patterns. Thus, the project may elect to adopt an indicator such as "increase jobs for women, particularly in underrepresented occupational categories."

Aim to measure changes in levels of gender inequality. As stated above in the definition, gender-sensitive indicators are designed to measure changes in men's and women's roles and status over time. Instead of "number of women who joined the producer association" use "percentage change in proportion of women's membership" or "percentage change in proportion of women in leadership roles." In addition to general indicators, such as increased sales, projects can add an indicator, such as "women's proportion of increased sales (ratio of women's sales to men's sales)."

Phase Five provides examples of indicators constructed to measure the success of actions taken to address gender-based constraints in the Twanya EAST project.

PHASE FIVE WORKSHEET: DEVELOPING INDICATORS TO MEASURE SUCCESS

LIST THE MOST IMPORTANT GENDER-BASED CONSTRAINTS FOR THE PROGRAM	WHAT ACTIONS MIGHT ADDRESS THE CONSTRAINTS TO ACHIEVE MORE EQUITABLE OUTCOMES?	MODIFY OR CONSTRUCT A GENDER-SENSITIVE INDICATOR TO MEASURE SUCCESS
Women are often constrained from improving the overall quality and quantity of horticultural crops because they lack access to services provided by producer associations as a result of membership requirements for landownership.	Encourage change in membership criteria.	Percentage increase in women's membership.
	Change association rules to allow non-producer members to attend and access benefits.	Percentage increase in women's participation in trainings. Women's proportion of increased yields.
Women are often constrained from improving on-farm productivity because of time-poverty linked to their household labor responsibilities.	Support better enforcement of existing legislative framework on land policy.	Percentage increase in land titles issued to women. Percentage increase in proportion of land owned by women.
	Identify labor-saving technologies to reduce women's time on household responsibilities.	Number of labor-saving technologies introduced. Number of women attending trainings on new technology. Number of women adopting new technology. Percentage of women with access and control over new technology.
	Address time/task allocation of household labor in family business workshops.	Number of men attending training. Number of women attending training. Change in proportion of household labor undertaken by women.
Women are often constrained from accessing financial capital because they lack ownership of assets that can serve as collateral.	Work with lending institutions to design women- and pro-poor-friendly business loan instruments.	Number of women- and pro-poor-friendly loan products designed. Percentage increase of women applying for loans. Percentage increase of women receiving loans.
Women are often constrained from filling senior management and technical positions in processing firms because of discriminatory social attitudes toward women's employment and ability to manage men.	Encourage firms to adopt gender-sensitive practices and policies (e.g., nondiscriminatory employment, gender-sensitive labor relations trainings).	Number of gender-sensitive policies adopted. Number of gender-sensitive practices adopted. Percentage increase of women in management positions. Percentage increase of women in technical positions.

STEP 2. SET GENDER TARGETS

In addition to developing gender-sensitive indicators, it may also be helpful to set internal targets. Targets establish how projects define success. As the Twanya EAST project began to monitor changes in gender relations, the project decided to formalize its commitment to gender equality by setting targets. In the same way that failing to meet a production or sales target signals the need to adjust project activities, the Twanya EAST project developed the following gender targets to help evaluate the project's progress.

TABLE 7: TWANYA EAST PROJECT GENDER TARGETS

INDICATOR	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
% Increase in women's association membership	10	15	20	20	30
% Increase women's leadership positions	5	10	15	20	30
% Women's attendance in trainings	20	25	30	35	40
% Women's increased employment	10	20	30	30	40
% Women's increased sales	5	10	15	20	30
% Women's increased yields	15	20	25	30	35

STEP 3. PLOT PROJECT SUCCESS

In the same way that it is helpful to present data on gender roles and relations, it is also helpful to present or plot changes in those roles and relations. The aim of addressing gender-based constraints is to decrease gender inequalities, to increase opportunities for women, and to improve overall value chain development. Two different measurement tools are provided below. The first attempts to depict changes in segmentation along the chain, as well as changes in desired project outcome. The second tool highlights changes in women's opportunities or outcomes along the value chain. Both tools can be used to track or plot areas visually for project improvement, as well as project success in achieving greater equality.



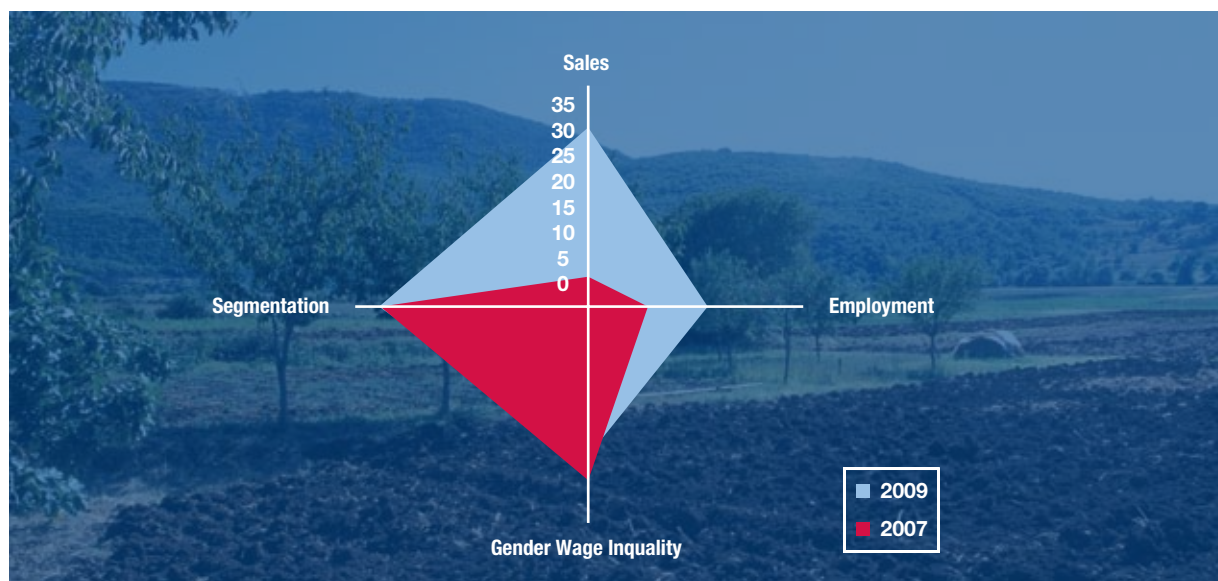
MEASURING CHANGES IN SEX SEGMENTATION

Initial Twanya EAST project assessments revealed high levels of labor market and wage-sex segmentation. At the same time, though, the project was successfully achieving its sales and employment targets. Achievement of overall project objectives did not, on their own, alleviate gender inequalities. The project found it helpful to present changes in key project indicators with key areas of gender inequalities to gain a more holistic picture of project achievements. The information in Table 8 was plotted on the Sex Segmentation and Value Chain Development diagram. The goal is to achieve a full diamond. This occurs when the project achieves its targets of increasing sales and employment, as well as reducing labor market segmentation and wage inequality.

TABLE 8: TWANYA EAST PROJECT CHANGES IN SEGMENTATION

	% INCREASE SALES	% INCREASE EMPLOYMENT	% LABOR MARKET SEGMENTATION*	% WAGE INEQUALITY
2007	5	10	34.7	29
2009	30	20	35	25

FIGURE 7: TWANYA EAST PROJECT CHANGES IN SEGMENTATION



* Labor Market segmentation was calculated using the Duncan Index is $|m-f| \cdot 2I = DiiN = 100 \sum I^2$. Where $I = (1, 2, \dots, N)$ is the total number of sectors, industries, or occupations and f_i and m_i are the sectoral employment ratios of men and women to their respective labor force. The Duncan Index of dissimilarity, ranging from 0 to 100, can be used to measure labor market segmentation by sex. An index of 0 indicates that the sectors or occupations are not sex segregated, and women and men are distributed across these sectors and occupations in proportion to their participation in the total labor force. An index of 100 indicates that men and women are in entirely different sectors and occupations.

MEASURING WOMEN'S VALUE CHAIN OUTCOMES

The Twanya EAST project also decided to develop a diagram to measure its success in increasing women's opportunities along the chain. Figure 9 measures six outcomes for women related to value chain development:

- ★ Percentage increase in women's association membership
- ★ Percentage increase in women's association leadership positions
- ★ Percentage of women's attendance in project trainings
- ★ Women's proportion of increased employment
- ★ Women's proportion of increased sales

The diagram allows the project to visualize areas of success and identify opportunities for greater achievement. Table 9 includes the data that is plotted in the diagram.

FIGURE 8: TWANYA EAST PROJECT GENDER INDICATORS

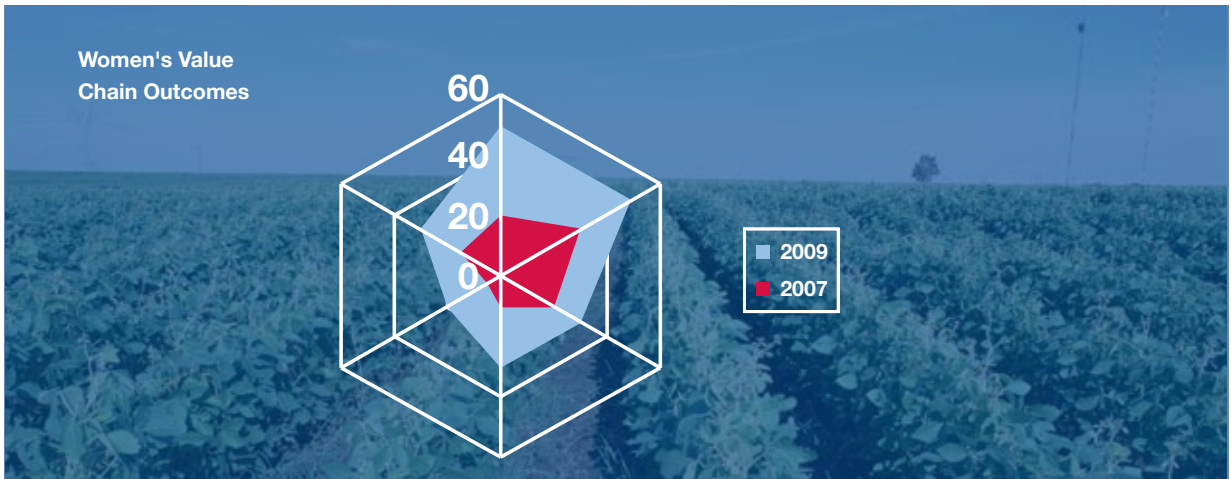


TABLE 9: TWANYA EAST PROJECT GENDER INDICATORS

INDICATOR	2007	2009
% Increase in women's association membership	20	50
% Increase women's leadership positions	30	50
% Women's attendance in trainings	20	30
% Women's increased employment	10	30
% Women's increased sales	5	20
% Women's increased yields	15	30



CONCLUSION



Thomas Sennett/The World Bank

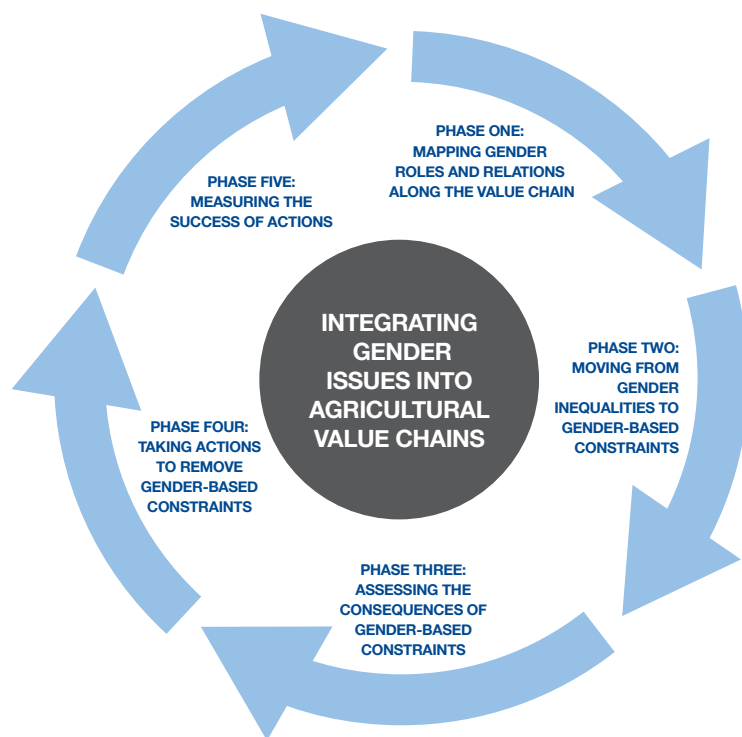
Today, women in developing countries are widely recognized as the face of farming, especially among smallholders. Research conducted over the past thirty years on gender issues in agriculture and natural resource management is being rediscovered. New research, on agricultural credit, land tenure security, managing risk, access to assets, and the agricultural policy environment is increasingly focused on how gender roles and relations affect these issues.

This is a critical moment. The world's wealthiest countries have recommitted to raising support for agricultural research and development to unprecedented levels. This is a moment of immense opportunity to use these investments to transform developing country food systems. It is important that resources are not simply targeted toward women who work on the farm and in the fields as laborers and small-scale farmers, but that creative approaches are adopted that work to remove gender-based barriers to accessing assets, to participation, in social beliefs, and in legislation throughout the value chain. Gender-equitable opportunities can be enhanced in business development services, in processing, packaging, transport, exporting, and in financing. The goal of gender-equitable agricultural transformation can be reached by providing needed resources, skills, and services to both men and women so that everyone can find increasingly better jobs and can start and maintain more successful businesses that make the agricultural sector more profitable and more productive.

The INGIA-VC process is one pathway towards these ambitious goals. As laid out in this Handbook, the process uses a set of participatory and analytical tools to

help development practitioners understand how gender roles and relations impact value chains and program outcomes. Using gender-related information, it builds a map of gender roles and relationships along the value chain. From there, key gender inequalities and gender-based constraints are identified, and possible actions to remove the constraints and ways to measure the success of those actions are considered.

Because the world is a dynamic place, changes in project activities may create new imbalances in the value chain, and new solutions will be needed. The step-by-step process laid out here aims to facilitate practitioners' ability to understand how current gender differences should be addressed in project design and then to consider what impact the activities will have on the status of women and men and the relative difference between them if the project is successful. It parallels the project cycle and therefore can easily be integrated into different moments of that cycle to enhance practitioners' ability to program for changes. The goal is always to both reduce gender disparities and improve economic growth, finding the win-win solution.



SEVEN STEPS TOWARDS GENDER-EQUITABLE AGRICULTURAL VALUE CHAIN PROGRAMMING

1. Understand men's and women's roles and relations. Conduct gender assessments and gender analyses to collect accurate information for designing and operating value chain activities. Make adjustments as conditions change.
2. Foster equitable participation. Project-sponsored activities should insist that men, women, and youth are invited to participate.
3. Address the special needs of women where appropriate. Take into consideration women's constraints at home and in the workplace where they differ from those of men. Identify practices that may cause conflicts between work and home, such as times or locations of meetings. Support creative benefits, such as flexible work hours, day care and health benefits, subsidized transport, literacy and numeracy classes.
4. Support women's economic advancement. Empower women as lead entrepreneurs. They can set an example for other women, contribute to upgrading, and lead the way toward systemic change in agricultural value chains.
5. Promote gender equitable market-driven solutions. Addressing gender issues in value chain development is "smart business."
6. Design equitable benefit-sharing mechanisms. Ensure that men and women are adequately rewarded for their contributions to the value chain.
7. Include men in defining the "problem" and the solution. Include both men and women in identifying the gender issues that constrain their abilities to raise productivity and income and to expand their enterprises. Enlist men and women's support in establishing equitable producer association governance and defining equitable criteria for hiring, promotion, and compensation within firms.



ENDNOTES

1. Elson, "Labor Markets;" Acker, "Hierarchies, Jobs, and Bodies."
2. World Bank, FAO, and IFAD, *Gender in Agriculture*.
3. World Bank, "Engendering Development."
4. Cagatay, *Trade, Gender and Trade*; Blackden and Bhanu "Gender, Growth and Poverty"; Elson and Evers, "Gender Aware"; Evers and Walters, "Extra Household Factors"; Tran-Nguyen, "Economics of Gender Equality."
5. Marston with Nichols Barrett, "Women in the Economy."
6. Katungi et al., "Gender, Social Capital and Information."
7. Ibid.
8. Hausmann et al., "The Global Gender Gap."
9. Birdsall et al., "Inequality and Growth"; Deininger and Squire, "New Ways."
10. IFC, "Voices of Women Entrepreneurs Bosnia Herzegovina."
11. Ibid.
12. Ellis et al., *Gender and Economic Growth in Tanzania*.
13. Staudt, "Women Farmers."
14. Collier et al. *Labour and Poverty*.
15. Adams, "The Rural Labour Market"; Piesse and Thirtle, "Does Non-Farm Income Reduce Rural Poverty."
16. See note 14 above.
17. Beintema, "Participation of Female Agricultural Scientists."
18. Ibid.
19. Klasen, "Does Gender Inequality Reduce Growth."
20. Gorman et al., "Gender and Development."
21. IFC, "Voices of Vietnamese Entrepreneurs."
22. Interview, April 2008.
23. Dolan and Sorby, "Gender and Employment."
24. Ibid, 12.
25. El Messiri, "The Feminization of Strawberry Production."
26. Ellis et al., *Gender and Economic Growth in Kenya*.
27. Jacoby et al., "Hazards of Expropriation"; Besley, "Property Rights."
28. ECA, "Land Tenure Systems."
29. Ellis et al., *Gender and Economic Growth in Uganda*.
30. Keitel and Ledesma "Night Work Prohibition."
31. ICRW, "Property Ownership."
32. Lastarria-Cornhiel et al., "Gender and Land Rights."
33. InterAcademy Council, "Realizing the Promise."
34. Prabhu, "Marketing Treadle Pumps."
35. Kay and Braden, "Treadle Pumps."
36. Van Crowder et al. "Training for Agricultural and Rural Development."
37. Lilja et al. "Scaling Up and Out."
38. MicroLinks Wiki, "Horizontal Linkages."
39. Altenburg, "Donor Approaches"; Bolwig, et al., "Integrating Poverty."
40. Chemonics, "Moving from Subsistence to Commercial Farming"; ECA, "Economic Report."
41. Key and Runsten, "Contract Farming."
42. Chemonics, "Guinea Agricultural Market Linkages Activity."
43. USAID, "Notes from the Field."
44. INGIA-VC, Interviews in Kenya, September 2008.
45. INGIA-VC Interviews in Kenya, September 2008; INGIA-VC Interviews in Tanzania, April 2009.

46. Gladwin, "Gendered Impacts."
47. Interview from Albania, April 2008; Interview from Kenya, September 2008; Interview from Cambodia, March 2009; Sebstad and Krivoshlykova, "Zambia PROFIT Impact Assessment."
48. See note 6 above.
49. Sebstad and Krivoshlykova, "Zambia PROFIT Impact Assessment."
50. MicroLinks Wiki, "Business Enabling Environment."
51. Iris Center, "Industry Growth."
52. Kleinberg and Campbell, "Business Enabling Environment."
53. ACEG, "Growth and Transformation."
54. See note 29 above.
55. See Note 2 above.
56. See Note 29 above.
57. Bannock Consulting Ltd., "Reforming the Business Enabling Environment."
58. IFC, "Women's Networks."
59. Oxfam, *Trading Away Our Rights*.
60. See note 2 above.
61. See note 23 above.
62. Lastarria-Cornheil, "Feminization of Agriculture"; Whitehead, "The Gendered Impacts."
63. See note 23 above.
64. IFC, "Women Entrepreneurs."
65. Baden, "Gender Issues."
66. Pujo, "Toward a Methodology."
67. See note 64 above.
68. Niethammer, "Promoting Women as Exporters."
69. Interviews in Cambodia, March 2009; IFC, "Voices of Cambodian Women Entrepreneurs."
70. See note 26 above.
71. See note 58 above.
72. See note 10 above.
73. Ghana Association of Women Entrepreneurs, <http://www.ghanawomenentrepreneurs.org>.
74. See note 25 above; El Messiri, "Women Laborers."
75. Adapted from McVay and Snelgrove, "MEDA Program Design for Value Chain Initiatives."
76. Seguino, "Gender Inequality."
77. See note 49 above.
78. Gender Assessment Interviews in Kenya, October 2006.

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GLOSSARY OF TERMS

Agriculture

The science and practice of activity related to food, feed, and fiber production, processing, marketing, distribution, utilization, and trade and includes family and consumer sciences, nutrition, food science and engineering, agricultural economics and other social sciences, forestry, wildlife, fisheries, aquaculture, floriculture, veterinary medicine, and other environmental and natural resources sciences.

Commodity chain

Often used synonymously with value chain (see below).

Competitiveness

The capacity of an enterprise to establish and maintain an advantage in the market over its competitors, by achieving greater efficiencies in production and marketing, often through improved quality, differentiated products, and/or new markets.

Downstream

Downstream in a value chain refers to the actors and operators toward the end consumption of the value chain product, i.e., the final market or consumer.

Duncan Index

A method of measuring segmentation. The Duncan Index is calculated using the following formula:
$$|m-f| \frac{21}{21N} = 1 \sum * 100$$

Efficiency

There are two concepts of efficiency: Technological efficiency occurs when it is not possible to increase output without increasing inputs. Economic efficiency occurs when the cost of producing a given output is as low as possible. An economically efficient situation is one in which any additional reallocation of resources would not achieve any greater welfare, also termed “allocative efficiency.”

Empowerment

The ability of people to define and achieve their life goals using all of the resources (material, human, and social) available to them.

Gender

The social category usually associated with being a man or a woman. It encompasses economic, social, political, and cultural attributes and opportunities as well as roles and responsibilities. Gender is defined differently around the world and those definitions change over time.

In some countries, additional gender categories beyond man and woman are used. The category of “transgender” has emerged in popular and development discourse as an umbrella term for people who encompass social roles relating to both men and women, e.g., the hijra of India, the berdash among some Native American tribes, and the xanith of Oman.

Gender accommodating

Projects that acknowledge inequities in gender relations and seek to develop actions that adjust to and often compensate for gender differences and inequities without addressing the underlying structures that perpetuate gender inequalities. While this approach considers the different roles and identities of women and men in the design of programs, it does not deliberately challenge unequal relations of power. In the process of achieving desired development objects, projects following this approach may miss opportunities for improving gender equality.

Gender analysis

Gender analysis is a methodology that both:

- ★ describes existing gender relations in a particular environment, ranging from within households or firms to a larger scale of community, ethnic group, or nation, and
- ★ organizes and interprets, in a systematic way, information about gender relations to make clear the importance of gender differences for achieving development objectives.

Gender analysis involves collecting and analyzing sex-disaggregated data and other qualitative and quantitative information on gender issues, including access to and control over assets (tangible and intangible), as well as beliefs, practices, and legal frameworks.

Gender assessment

A term often used synonymously with gender analysis (see above) when it involves carrying out a gender analysis on one or more specific topic or in studying and summarizing existing gender relations (see below) in a location (community, sub-region, or nation) for the purposes of program design. In USAID, it is also used to describe the process of reviewing the institutional capabilities of an organization to identify the need for and carry out gender analyses within its programs, and the organization's ability to monitor gender issues throughout the program cycle.

Gender-based constraint

Restrictions on men's or women's access to resources or opportunities that are based on their gender roles or responsibilities. The term encompasses both the measurable inequalities that are revealed by sex-disaggregated data collection and gender analysis as well as the processes that contribute to a specific condition of gender inequality (see below).

Gender-disaggregated data

The results of a gender analysis of sex-disaggregated data to explain differences and determine the effect of activities on gender relations.

Gender disparity

Measurable differences in the relative conditions between men and women, especially (but not only) as they relate to the ability to engage in economic or political opportunities, e.g., illiteracy rates, levels of land ownership, or access to finance (see also gender inequality).

Gender equity

Equity involves fairness in representation, participation, and benefits afforded to men and women. USAID refers to equity strategies as the processes used to achieve gender equality. The goal is that both women and men have a fair chance of having their needs met and each has equal access to opportunities for realizing their full potential as human beings.

Gender equality

The ability of men and women to have equal opportunities and life chances. Since gender roles (see above) change over time, development programming can have an impact on gender equality, either supporting it or inhibiting it.

Gender exploitative

Projects that intentionally manipulate or misuse knowledge of existing gender inequalities and stereotypes in pursuit of economic outcomes. The approach reinforces unequal power in the relations between women and men and potentially deepens existing inequalities.

Gender inequality

See gender disparity, above.

Gender integration

A process that involves identifying and then addressing gender differences and inequalities during program and project design, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation. Since the roles and relations of power between men and women affect how an activity is carried out, attending to these issues on an ongoing basis is essential.

Gender mainstreaming

The process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies, or programs in any area and at all levels. It refers to strategies for making women's as well as men's concerns and experiences an integral dimension in the design, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation of policies and programs in all political, economic, and social spheres such that inequality between men and women is not perpetuated.

Gender relations

One type of social relations between men and women which are constructed and reinforced by social institutions. They include the routine ways in which men and women interact with each other in social institutions: in sexual relationships, friendships, workplaces, and different sectors of the economy. Gender relations are socially determined, culturally based, and historically specific. They are mediated by other identities including ethnicity, class, and age. Gender relations are shaped and reinforced by cultural, political, and economic institutions including the household, legal and governance structures, markets, and religion. Gender relations are dynamic and change over time.

Gender roles

Gender roles are the behaviors, tasks, and responsibilities that are considered appropriate for women and men as a result of sociocultural norms and beliefs. Gender roles are usually learned in childhood. Gender roles change over time, through individual choices or as a result of social and/or political changes emerging from changed opportunities (more education, different economic environment) or times of social upheaval (during disasters, in war, and in post-conflict situations).

Gender-sensitive indicator

Gender-sensitive indicators reveal gender-related changes over time. They point to changes in the status and roles of women and men and the extent to which gender equity is being achieved.

Gender transformative

An approach that explicitly engages both women and men to examine, question, and change those institutions and norms that reinforce gender inequalities and, through that process, achieve both economic growth and gender equality objectives.

Gendered economy

The idea that economic systems express or reflect the consequences of gender relations in the social organization of economic institutions and activities from the household to the firm to the distribution of resources by the state.

Gendered value chain analysis

An analysis that explores the different positions and contributions of men and women along the value chain. As used in this handbook, it not only investigates the economic, organization, and asymmetric relationship[s] among actors located along different points of the industry, but also studies the relationships between men and women in households and communities to identify the relationships between these levels of social organization and the operation and development of the enterprises in the value chain.

Input-Output matrix or model

A representation of an economy or region's economy used to predict the changes in one industry on others. Each column of the input-output matrix reports the monetary value of an industry's inputs and each row represents the value of an industry's outputs relating the output of one industry to the input of another.

Intrahousehold dynamics OR

Intrahousehold resource allocation

The decision-making processes within households that shape the practices and outcomes of asset allocation, including both tangible and intangible assets.

Market chain

Sometimes used synonymously with “value chain” (see below)

Sex

Biological characteristics that distinguish males and females. Intersex is a term to describe people who have sexual characteristics related to both males and females.

Sex-disaggregated data

The collection of data by physical attributes of the individual. Disaggregating data by sex (i.e., in categories of males and females) permits valid cross-country comparisons.

Sub-sector

Sometimes used synonymously with “value chain” (see below).

Supply chain

Sometimes used synonymously with “value chain” (see below)

Upgrading

Upgrading refers to a number of different activities that result in bringing greater value to the actors at a particular point in the value chain, including moving to a new chain, changing the mix of activities performed, increasing the efficiency of internal processes, and/or introducing new products or improving old products. The consequence of successful upgrading is making the firm or the chain more competitive (see above).

Upstream

Upstream in a value chain refers to the actors and operators in early stages of the production of a value chain product, i.e., the origin of the value chain.

Value chain

A value chain describes the full sequence of activities (functions) required to bring a product or service from conception, through the intermediary of production, transformation, marketing, and delivery to final consumers. A value chain can also include the final disposal after use (see also commodity chain, global supply chain, market chain, sub-sector, supply chain).

Value chain actor

This term summarizes all individuals, enterprises and public agencies related to a value chain, in particular the value chain operators, providers of operational services and the providers of support services.

Value chain analysis

Typically, an economic or institutional analysis that looks at the significance of how the revenues generated by gross consumer spending are translated into the relative net revenues distributed along the chain from production through processing to sale. But see “gendered value chain analysis” above.

Value chain operator

The enterprises performing the basic functions of the value chain are the value chain operators (see also value chain actors).

ANNEX 1: ADDITIONAL RESOURCES ON GENDER AND VALUE CHAINS

DONOR AGENCIES: TOOLS AND SOURCEBOOKS ON GENDER AND VALUE CHAINS

AgriPro Focus Learning Group: Gender in Value Chains. <http://genderinvaluechains.ning.com/>

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ANNEX 2: ILLUSTRATIVE SCOPE OF WORK FOR CONDUCTING A GENDER AND AGRICULTURAL VALUE CHAIN ASSESSMENT

The scope of work (SOW) detailed below provides general guidance on the activities and level of effort required to undertake an assessment using the INGIA-VC approach. The exact level of effort required will depend on the number of commodities to be analyzed and the geographic scope of the work.

OBJECTIVE

The objective of this gender assessment is to identify gender issues that should be addressed in value chain development for a particular commodity/ies.

METHODOLOGY

The assessment will use the Integrating Gender Issues into Agricultural Value Chains (INGIA-VC) process, including the following methods of data collection and analysis to achieve the aforementioned objective:

- ★ Collect information on gender roles and relations along a specific agricultural value chain, using both:
- ★ a quantitative analysis based on existing project baseline surveys, monitoring and evaluation systems, household, firm, and labor force data to derive a complete picture of the level of men's and women's participation in the sector and/or project and,
- ★ qualitative methods including structured interviews with actors at each level of the chain with both men and women. Mixed-group interviews and same-sex interviews may be necessary and appropriate, particularly with producer associations.
- ★ Identify gender-based constraints that have the potential to reduce value chain competitiveness, women's economic advancement, and the ability of the project to achieve its goals;
- ★ Recommend appropriate actions to remove gender-based constraints; and,
- ★ Design indicators to measure the success of actions.

DELIVERABLES

The expected outputs will include the following three components, either as one or more written deliverables:

- ★ Literature review of available data on gender issues related to the commodity, region, or country in which the assessment is conducted;
- ★ A sex-disaggregated quantitative and institutional map of the value chain;
- ★ Report reviewing the quantitative and qualitative analyses, with an explanation of the gender-based constraints identified and the recommendations of suggested actions and indicators.

LEVEL OF EFFORT

The exact level of effort required to employ the INGIA-VC process will depend on the number of commodities considered in the assessment, the number of regions, travel time, and other variables, all of which can extend the time necessary for completing the data collection and analysis process.

Table 1 provides a guideline for estimating the level of effort required for the INGIA-VC approach.

TABLE 1. GUIDELINES FOR DETERMINING LEVEL OF EFFORT REQUIRED FOR A SINGLE VALUE CHAIN

TASK	NUMBER OF DAYS
Background reading	3-5 days
Interviews	3-4 days per region in-country (assuming roughly 4 interviews a day) for the field visits with value chain actors (farmers, processors, transporters, exporters)
	1-2 days per region per value chain for interviews with project staff and other donors and NGOs
Debrief	1 days
Writing of the assessment and recommendations	5 days

NOTE: These estimates do not include travel time and assume only one commodity is being assessed.

ANNEX 3: ADDRESSING GENDER ISSUES IN GLOBAL VALUE CHAIN DEVELOPMENT

Gender issues are overlooked in most value chains, though they fundamentally shape the totality of production, distribution, and consumption within an economy. From production to processing, gendered patterns of behavior condition the jobs and tasks of men and women, the distribution of resources and benefits derived from income-generating activities in the chain, and the efficiency and competitiveness of value chains in the global market. A growing body of economic and empirical evidence suggests that addressing gender issues in value chains can improve programs' efforts to achieve both greater gender equity and more effective value chain operations:

- ✳ Increasing women's employment can reduce poverty through intergenerational transmissions of wealth. Women play key roles in human development and the creation of human capital. When women control cash earnings, households spend more on human development inputs such as food and education. In Bangladesh, one study showed that for every 100 taka lent to a woman, household consumption increases by 18 taka, as opposed to an 11-taka increase in consumption for every 100 taka lent to men.
- ✳ Addressing gender-based constraints in employment and productivity can increase competitiveness. When more than half of a country's potential labor force is not used efficiently, competitiveness with other countries is negatively affected. In Thailand, Cargill Sun Valley implemented family-friendly, gender-sensitive policies targeted to its largely woman-dominated work force resulting in reduced absenteeism and labor turnover, and improved productivity. Evidence from Kenya and elsewhere suggests that women and men can be equally productive when given equal access to inputs, training, and other factors of production.
- ✳ Increasing women's employment increases economic growth. A correlation exists between gender equality and economic growth in cross-country comparisons and in comparisons done over time. Studies in 61 countries found a positive correlation between growth and women's labor force participation between 1980 and 1990.

Thus, gender differences are at work in the "full range" of activities that comprise a value chain. A gender approach to value chain analysis and development allows for the consideration of groups and individual men and women's access to productive activities; differential opportunities for upgrading within the chain; gender-based division of activities; and, how gender power relations impact economic rents among actors throughout the chain.

The GATE project developed a two-pronged approach to addressing gender issues in value chain development. The first is a methodology for conducting a gender and pro-poor economic analysis of value chains. The second methodology provides program implementers with a framework and tools for considering how gender issues can inform the design, implementation and monitoring of USAID value chain programs.

A GENDER AND PRO-POOR VALUE CHAIN ANALYSIS METHODOLOGY

GATE has developed a gender-oriented value chain analysis to explore opportunities to improve market outcomes, raise productivity and wages, and to foster pro-poor growth in the sector being analyzed. Value chain analyses recognize that various configurations of actors may influence capabilities and possess different levels of bargaining power. GATE's analysis focuses on the institutional arrangements that link producers, processors, marketers, and distributors, and recognizes that power differentials among these actors may influence outcomes along the chain. Recognizing that men and women occupy different positions across the chain, GATE integrates a gender and pro-poor analysis that aims to uncover the economic, organizational, and asymmetric relationships among actors

throughout the chain. The analysis includes the following components:

- ★ Distributional analysis: explores the value added generated along the chain and examines the returns to labor and capital and to the different actors that participate in the chain.
- ★ Segmentation analysis: assesses how the labor market is segmented by sex throughout the value chain;
- ★ Analysis of power and governance within the chain: investigates power within production and exchange relationships across the value chain, including the power to set market prices and bargain as well as indebtedness and sub-optimal contracting; and,
- ★ Entitlements and capabilities analysis: considers factors and characteristics that mediate men's and women's entitlements to productive resources, and their capabilities to deploy these resources. Where possible, GATE also examines the poverty rates and livelihood strategies of different actors in the chain.

Using this methodology, GATE conducted gender value chains analyses for USAID missions in Bangladesh on shrimp and in Peru on artichokes, exploring how value is added along the chain. GATE has also applied a gender-oriented value chain perspective in its work on sustainable conservation-oriented enterprises (SCOE) in Kenya and on cowpeas in Nigeria.

GATE'S VALUE CHAIN IMPLEMENTATION METHODOLOGY

Value chain development practitioners must also consider the implications of gender roles and responsibilities in programmatic activities and strategies. Value chain programs are commonly designed and implemented without taking into consideration gender roles and relations. Even if sympathetic to gender issues, practitioners often lack the skills to grapple with the challenges involved in identifying and addressing gender issues. Moreover, the current literature on gender and value chains fails to provide an adequate guide on how to translate theory into program implementation and design.

In response, GATE designed a participatory methodology for value chain and gender practitioners to enhance their understanding of how gender issues impact value chain and program outcomes. Influenced by some of the leading USAID programs on value chain development, the GATE approach considers how gender roles constrain or support the ability of these programs to achieve their goals. At the same, it identifies additional gender-based constraints

GENDERED PATTERNS OF RESOURCE DISTRIBUTION AFFECT SUPPLY EFFICIENCY

Located in Eldoret, Kenya Mace Foods coordinates the supply of African Bird's Eye (ABE) chili for sale in European markets. Smallholder farms provide Mace Foods with the raw material. Women cultivate the chilies in small gardens, while men deliver the crop to the processing plant and collect payment. Shortly after the purchase of the first crop, a decrease in the supply of ABE led Mace Foods to inquire about the on-farm production methods to assess any constraints. It discovered that married women farmers had abandoned chili production because they were not receiving returns for their labor; spouses were often retaining the proceeds and using them for personal expenses. Gendered patterns of household labor and resource distribution jeopardized Mace Foods' ability to meet the buyer's demand. To increase incentives for women to produce chili, Mace Foods, with the USAID Kenya Horticulture Development Program, designed a payment system including both cash and non-cash rewards. Mace Foods distributed a pound of sugar, a desirable household commodity, along with the cash payments.

Source: KHDP and MACE Food interviews, September 2008

not usually captured in traditional market analyses. Through classroom and field exercises, the methodology leads participants through a process in which they learn to ask specific questions about gender roles and relations to value chain actors at different nodes of the chain; analyze gender-related data; and identify gender-based constraints that have an impact on productivity, market linkages, and value chain efficiency and competitiveness.

GATE piloted the methodology in September 2008 with three USAID/Kenya-funded agriculture programs involved in the maize, dairy and horticulture sectors. The activity was repeated with two USAID/Tanzania programs in 2009.

DELIVERABLES

A suite of resources are being developed to provide development practitioners with an understanding of and the tools for addressing gender issues in value chain development programs. These will be available in the spring of 2009 and include:

- ✧ **A Handbook for Practitioners to Support Gender-Sensitive Value Chain Development** presents an approach and process for addressing gender issues in the design, implementation, and monitoring of value chain development programs.
- ✧ **Training Materials on Gender and Value Chain Development** provides the presentations, exercises and resources used in the pilot trainings in Kenya and Tanzania.
- ✧ **A Methodology on Gender and Pro-Poor Value Chain Analysis** outlines a process for conducting an economic analysis of gender in value chains.
- ✧ **A Pro-Poor and Gender Analysis of the Shrimp Sector in Bangladesh and of the Artichoke Sector in Peru.**

ABOUT THE GREATER ACCESS TO TRADE EXPANSION (GATE) PROJECT

The GATE Project is a five-year (September 2004-September 2009) USAID Task Order (TO), funded by the Office of Women in Development (WID) implemented by dTS. GATE works with seven USAID Missions to better integrate gender considerations into economic growth and trade-related programs in order to help expand areas of opportunity and mitigate the adverse effects of economic and trade expansion for poor women and men. All documents and more information on other gender and trade-related research are available for download on the USAID Women in Development website at http://www.usaid.gov/our_work/cross-cutting_programs/wid/. “Addressing Gender Issues in Global Value Chain Development” is being implemented with technical support from Cultural Practice, LLC.

The program on this disc should automatically open up in your preferred browser. Internet Explorer and Firefox are examples of browsers capable of auto running this disc.

If for some reason it does not automatically open up, proceed as follows:

Step 1 Open up the start menu by clicking on it,

Step 2 Next, open up "My Computer" by clicking on it,

Step 3 Next, double click on drive D: which should be your CD drive or double click on whatever drive that is your CD drive and the program should open automatically.

Step 4 If step 3 does not work follow steps 1 and 2 and then right click on you CD drive and select open from the options.

Step 5 From there look for the file titled index.html and either double click it or drag and drop this on top of you browser.



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PROMOTING GENDER EQUITABLE OPPORTUNITIES IN AGRICULTURAL VALUE CHAINS

