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# **GENDER ANALYSIS OF AGRICULTURE IN THE EUROPE AND EURASIA REGION**

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## **ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS**

ARCOTRASS	Arnold Consulting and Training Associates
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women
CGIAR	Consultative Group on International Agricultural Research
CIPE	Center for International Private Enterprise
E&E	Europe and Eurasia
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization
F2F	Farmer to Farmer
FTF	Feed the Future
GDF	Gender Dimensions Framework
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GPI	Gender Parity Index
IFPRI	International Food Policy Research Institute
INGIA-VC	Integrating Gender into Agricultural Value Chains
MCC	Millennium Challenge Corporation
M&E	Monitoring and Evaluation
OECD	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
SIDA	Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency
SMEs	Small and Medium Enterprises
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNECE	United Nations Economic Commission for Europe
UNEP	United Nations Environment Programme
UNIFEM	United Nations Development Fund for Women
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
WEAI	Women's Empowerment in Agriculture Index

## EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

This report provides an overview of gender issues in the agriculture and agribusiness sector in the Europe and Eurasia (E&E) region. It is based on a desktop study of scholarly, government, and project-related documents from 13 countries: Albania, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Georgia, Kosovo, Republic of Macedonia, Moldova, Montenegro, Russia, Serbia, and Ukraine. The purpose of the report is to identify the gender issues that exist and to explain their importance for the development and operation of agricultural value chains in E&E.

Agriculture remains an important sector of the E&E region economies, although it is now smaller in size and scope than it was prior to the fall of the Soviet Union in 1991. Today, although contributing less than the service sector to the GDP in most countries, the agricultural sector still employs a significant percentage of people in both formal and informal employment, particularly in rural areas. It continues to offer avenues for growth today and in the future, especially if value-added food processing and other agribusinesses in the agricultural value chain are taken into account.

In the years since the end of communism, women's participation in agriculture has changed from one of being farm employees and managers of state collectives to becoming producers on private farms and small, individually owned plots. This private production now helps to smooth out variability in income streams and provide a safety net for households experiencing unemployment and loss of income from economic and political shocks. In some countries, women also work as agricultural laborers on farms and in processing factories, and are increasingly becoming entrepreneurs who start and grow agribusinesses. The scope and potential of agriculture and the opportunities it offers for women varies greatly across the region, from the large cereal farms of Russia and Ukraine to the small, diversified family farms in the Caucasus and the more intensively cultivated orchards and vegetable farms of the Balkans.

Women across the E&E region today have more limited access than men to resources for agricultural production (e.g., land, inputs, and information) that are the prerequisites to fully participating in the agricultural economy. These gender disparities limit women's ability to enter or improve their performance at different nodes of agricultural value chains.

The challenges for agricultural programming are to improve women's access to the key productive assets of land and capital, to overcome existing gender disparities, and to provide women with needed credit and skills so they can move out of production and become agro-entrepreneurs in value chains with high growth or high income potential. Although well represented in many countries in tertiary education, women are often under-represented in agricultural sciences and could be encouraged to enter these fields through special programs.

Gender dynamics continue to influence the level and type of participation of women and men in agriculture in the region, as well as the benefits that they accrue. Agricultural programs can strive explicitly and deliberately to offer more gender-equitable opportunities. To promote women's benefits, programs can address women's typical shortage of time for paid work by investing in rural infrastructure and time- and labor-saving technologies, as well as encouraging larger businesses, such as processing plants, to provide daycare and other social services. They can also focus on women's benefits through investments in areas that offer potential for increasing women's participation and income in agriculture, such as organic farming, dairy, and agricultural or ecological tourism. Recommendations for specific mechanisms to enhance women's participation in agriculture in the region are hindered by a widespread lack of sex-disaggregated data about the new agricultural economy. Targeted support for data collection efforts can address this lack, especially by requiring baseline studies in new agricultural programs and by funding specific research studies on gender gaps in wages, ownership of assets, business skills, and other topics.

This report makes concrete recommendations for the design and management of programs in agriculture and economic growth carried out by the United States Agency for International Development (USAID), as well as for related interventions, as summarized below.

## Recommendations for Program Design for Different Enterprises

Type of Enterprise	Recommendation
<p><b>Large agricultural enterprises</b> <b>Processing and/or packing plants</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Upgrade women’s workforce skills.</li> <li>• Design gender-sensitive training for managers and workers.</li> <li>• Improve the policy and regulatory framework to reduce gender wage gaps and discrimination in hiring and promotion, and to promote occupational safety.</li> <li>• Develop programs to assist businesses in providing services to women workers and, more broadly, to parents.</li> </ul>
<p><b>Independent private farmers</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Foster equitable participation in decision-making processes, e.g., in producer cooperatives or water user associations.</li> <li>• Identify agricultural technologies and rural services that will reduce women’s working time as well as their financial and labor constraints.</li> <li>• Design mechanisms that explicitly reward women’s unpaid contribution to private farming.</li> <li>• Ensure that delivery systems of agricultural services and information reach both men and women.</li> <li>• Advocate for gender-equitable land policies and for enforcement of existing policies that do provide for gender equity.</li> <li>• Develop programs to provide women with agricultural credit through non-land-based collateral, such as contracts.</li> </ul>
<p><b>Women entrepreneurs</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Facilitate greater linkages between women-owned businesses and the agricultural sector.</li> <li>• Strengthen the participation of women in business incubator programs.</li> <li>• Introduce women entrepreneurs to new opportunities in the agricultural sector, e.g., by providing them with training in organic production, processing, and input supply.</li> <li>• Encourage the development of enterprises to support women working in agriculture or agriculture-related activities.</li> <li>• Improve women’s ability to trade regionally in agricultural commodities by enhancing women’s participation in national and regional trade and commodity networks.</li> <li>• Develop programs to provide women with agricultural credit through non-land-based collateral.</li> </ul>

## Recommendations for Program Design for Value Chain Actors

Value Chain Actor	Recommendation
<b>Input Suppliers</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Encourage women entrepreneurs to establish agro-enterprises.</li> <li>• Expand women’s participation in agricultural education.</li> <li>• Design gender-sensitive training for managers and workers.</li> <li>• Foster opportunities to link women-owned businesses to each other and to other actors in the value chain through trade fairs, farm demonstrations, and business associations and networks.</li> <li>• Improve the policy and regulatory framework to reduce gender wage gaps, discrimination in hiring and promotion, and promote occupational safety.</li> <li>• Develop programs to assist businesses in providing services to women farmers.</li> <li>• Streamline registration and business licensing processes.</li> </ul>
<b>Producers and Producer Associations</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Encourage producer organizations to recruit and retain women producers.</li> <li>• Foster equitable participation in association governance to allow women greater opportunities to join and run associations.</li> <li>• Identify agricultural technologies and rural services that will reduce women’s constraints in terms of time, finances, and labor.</li> <li>• Design mechanisms that reward women’s unpaid contribution to private farming.</li> <li>• Ensure that delivery systems of agricultural services and information reach both men and women.</li> <li>• Advocate for gender-equitable land policies and for enforcement of existing policies that do provide for gender equity.</li> <li>• Develop programs to provide women with agricultural credit through non-land-based collateral, such as contracts.</li> <li>• Introduce women entrepreneurs to new opportunities in the agricultural sector, e.g., by providing them with training in organic production, processing, and input supply.</li> </ul>
<b>Processors</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Improve access to lower cost or more efficient production, storage, and processing technologies.</li> <li>• Develop programs to provide women with agricultural credit through non-land-based collateral, such as contracts.</li> <li>• Strengthen the participation of women in business incubator programs.</li> <li>• Streamline registration and business licensing processes.</li> <li>• Develop or strengthen programs that provide business development skills to women.</li> </ul>
<b>Marketers</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Facilitate greater linkages between women-owned businesses and the agricultural sector.</li> <li>• Improve women’s ability to trade regionally in agricultural commodities by enhancing women’s participation in national and regional trade and commodity networks.</li> <li>• Develop programs to provide women with agricultural credit through non-land-based collateral, such as contracts.</li> </ul>

## Recommendations for Policies, Strategies, Laws, and Institutions

Type of intervention	Recommendation
<b>Policy &amp; Strategy</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Include gender analysis and gender-disaggregated data in policies, studies and development plans.</li> <li>• Facilitate policy working groups for development of gender policies in agriculture.</li> <li>• Promote gender awareness-building, strategies for building agribusiness and greater income opportunities for women, strategies for building gender equity, and gender stakeholder consultations.</li> </ul>
<b>Law &amp; Regulations</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Reduce discrimination in hiring and promotion.</li> <li>• Overcome constraints against women to obtain land rights.</li> <li>• Enable women's use of collateral other than land rights to access loans for farming and agri-business.</li> <li>• Amend regulations and by-laws on water user associations and producer and marketing organizations to enable women to become members and officers.</li> </ul>
<b>Institutions</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Support women's membership and leadership in water user associations.</li> <li>• Support women's membership and leadership in producer and marketing cooperatives.</li> <li>• Build networks, support mechanisms, and training organizations to assist women-owned agribusinesses.</li> </ul>

## Recommendations for Program Management

- Require new agricultural and entrepreneurship programs to conduct gender assessments and collect baseline data on men's and women's levels and sources of income and other assets.
- Improve the skills of program managers to design, manage, and monitor progress toward gender equality in agriculture-related activities.

## Recommended Principles for Gender-aware Project Monitoring and Evaluation

- Disaggregate by sex all indicators that count individuals.
- Measure progress using indicators at multiple levels of impact.
- Use household- and individual-level indicators to clarify the gender dynamics that shape resource allocation and livelihoods.
- Develop indicators that measure differences between men and women in adoption rates, labor and time use, income, and productivity. The Women's Empowerment in Agriculture Index (WEAI) provides useful guidance on where programs should aim to reduce gender gaps and support greater gender equality.

## **I. INTRODUCTION**

The primary purpose of this report is to provide a “big picture” view of gender issues in the agricultural and agribusiness sector in the Europe and Eurasia (E&E) region and, insofar as is possible, to make recommendations for supporting gender awareness and equity. It also seeks to describe how the identified areas of disparity or opportunity link to USAID program efforts to build agricultural value chains in the region that are accessible and beneficial to women. This report is the result of a literature review of academic, government, and project-related documents from 13 countries in the E&E region: Albania, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Georgia, Kosovo, Republic of Macedonia, Moldova, Montenegro, Russia, Serbia, and Ukraine.

### **I.1 ORGANIZATION OF THE REPORT**

The report sets the scene for a gender analysis of agriculture with a brief overview of the importance and structure of agriculture in the E&E region. It also draws on literature on gender relations in the region, through which gender differences in agriculture and agribusiness can be understood more clearly.

The report presents information on four dimensions influencing gender differences in agriculture based on USAID’s Gender Dimensions Framework (GDF): (i) social norms and expectations about gender; (ii) access to productive assets; (iii) gender roles, responsibilities, power, and decision-making; and (iv) gender issues in policy, law, and institutions in agriculture.<sup>1</sup> These dimensions provide a structured way to analyze the complex reality of men’s and women’s engagement in the agricultural sector in real life. These are not mutually exclusive categories, but are four key dimensions for mapping gender relations in agriculture. For example, land rights can be considered a matter of access to a productive asset and at the same time as something that is based on social norms and expectations about who should be considered a farmer or a landowner.

The report includes a section that provides concrete recommendations on how USAID Missions can expand their support for women’s engagement in agricultural programming and integrate activities to overcome gender gaps and address specific challenges facing women in agriculture. It also raises for consideration some emerging topics such as the potential opportunities for women in growing regional organic markets and possibilities for building gender equity through climate-smart agriculture to respond to climate change and variability. The sub-section on Monitoring and Evaluation in Section 3 and Annex I provide illustrative gender-sensitive indicators, drawing on examples from the U.S. Government’s Feed the Future initiative (U.S. Government, Department of State, 2011).

### **I.2 METHODOLOGY**

In preparing this report, the authors drew on a wide range of documentation, including population and agricultural census data, studies by USAID and other donors on country and regional gender issues in agriculture, gender assessments in other sectors, project reports, and ethnographic and other scholarly literature about gender relations in each country. As much as possible, the sources emphasize information from the last ten years.

This report also uses the principles of gender and agricultural value chain analysis, emphasizing gender analysis as done in the “Integrating Gender into Agricultural Value Chains” (INGIA-VC) methodology (Rubin, Manfre, & Nichols Barrett, 2009). It assesses the available data on gender issues in the economy and identifies recommendations for USAID. The GDF and INGIA-VC frameworks take into account that value chains are embedded in the larger social context shaped by the way that men and women organize

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<sup>1</sup> The GDF is used to analyze gender issues at each level of the value chain and to assess roles and power relations between genders at the household, farm, enterprise and policy levels. See <http://microlinks.kdid.org/good-practice-center/value-chain-wiki/gender-dimensions-framework>.

their activities from the household to the firm. The development of value chains can encourage or discourage the participation of men and women in different ways, sometimes affecting and changing gender roles and relations.

Typically, a value chain analysis is conducted for a specific crop, tracing its progress from production through processing, marketing, and even consumption within a country or region, or, in the case of export, across countries. The lack of literature on crop-specific value chains and especially assessments using sex-disaggregated data on production, processing, and marketing activities, for the most part did not allow for detailed inquiry into specific value chains.

Thus while the analysis in this report is not crop-specific, it adopts an approach that looks at the actors in production, processing, and marketing activities. Where possible, available data are used to illustrate the gender issues for each category of value chain actors. These include an assessment of the factors that determine: (i) men's and women's participation as producers, waged workers, and entrepreneurs, and (ii) the gender dynamics that influence how benefits accrue to value chain participants. The gender and value chain literature is consistent in considering these two elements as key to understanding opportunities for men and women (Rubin & Manfre, 2012).

The literature also points to the importance of examining opportunities for men and women as entrepreneurs, not just as farmers. In this way, one can examine:

- whether women and men have the same opportunities to enter the agricultural sector as producers;
- whether there are opportunities for them to enter as entrepreneurs at other points in the agricultural sector;
- whether they have the assets or productive resources (land, capital, etc.) to succeed; and
- what kinds of returns they can expect.

This approach made it possible to pull together scarce data from a range of sources and tease out the opportunities that exist for women to increasingly participate in and benefit from the agricultural sector.

A summary of key findings has been placed at the end of each sub-section of section 2. The nature of the literature is such that it has not yet produced many area-wide generalizations but provides tentative findings about gender phenomena, which are in need of further research.

### **1.3 DATA LIMITATIONS**

Although the literature on gender and agriculture has grown rapidly, in part due to the growth of attention to gender and agriculture programming worldwide over the past three years, the specifics of women's participation in agricultural production and agribusiness remain largely invisible in the E&E region. Documentation on women's participation in agricultural value chains is particularly weak. Over the last five years in other regions of the world, there has been an explosion of research and development of toolkits for gender and value chain development (e.g., Chan, 2010; Dulón, 2009; KIT, Agri-ProFocus, & IIRR, 2012; Mayoux & Mackie, 2009; Rubin, Manfre, and Nichols Barrett, 2009). However, in the E&E region research and data on these topics remain sparse.

Information on gender and agriculture for a few countries, such as Moldova and Albania, is more plentiful, in part because of special studies conducted for USAID projects. Nevertheless, variation in the level of detail and scope of existing information on gender issues and agriculture within each country is a serious limitation of this study. Government reports often are shaped by population-level census data. Ten of the thirteen countries in the region (Albania, Armenia, Belarus, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Georgia, Kosovo, Republic of Macedonia, Moldova, Montenegro, and Serbia) have published reports analyzing

sex-disaggregated data collected in national censuses.<sup>2</sup> The sex-disaggregated data presented in these census reports rarely reflect agricultural conditions in any detail. For example, census reports may list men and women as enterprise owners but they do not show which enterprises are agricultural. Alternatively, data given on men's and women's labor participation in agriculture are not linked to sex-disaggregated data on farm ownership.

Agricultural census data do not paint a more detailed picture of gender within the sector. Few countries have conducted agricultural censuses recently, although some are scheduled for the near future, and fewer still contain sex-disaggregated data.<sup>3</sup> Only Moldova, as a component of its Millennium Challenge Corporation (MCC) compact, conducted a nationally representative farm survey that collected detailed, sex-disaggregated data on men and women's participation in agricultural and associated livelihoods (Miluka, 2009).

Only rarely are women's contributions to farming and marketing spelled out distinctly from those of men—what they grow as well as how they grow, market, transport, and sell it, and the constraints they face. Gender-neutral language can obscure who does what, who owns what, and who gets what. While the resources reviewed for this assessment occasionally highlighted women's undervalued and overlooked activities on garden plots and private farms, they did not often provide data and analysis that help to identify gaps that exist in men's and women's on-farm productivity or constraints that create those gaps.

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2. See the reports on women and men issued by the respective offices of statistics in each of the following countries: Albania (INSTAT, 2010); Armenia (National Statistical Service of the Republic of Armenia, 2010); Belarus (National Statistical Committee of the Republic of Belarus, 2010); Georgia (Ministry of Economic Development of Georgia, 2008); Kosovo (Population Statistics Department, 2011); Republic of Macedonia (State Statistical Office, 2012); Moldova (National Bureau of Statistics of the Republic of Moldova, 2008); Montenegro (Montenegro Statistical Office, 2011a); Serbia (Statistical Office of the Republic of Serbia, 2011).
  3. The following list shows in what year these have begun: Albania (The Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency (SIDA) is supporting an agricultural census to be completed in 2013); Armenia (to be conducted in 2013 with USDA assistance); Belarus (some data collected annually), Bosnia (1991); Georgia (some data collected annually); Kosovo conducted and agricultural household survey in 2008 (2010); Macedonia (2007); Moldova (2011); Montenegro (2010); Russia (2006); Serbia (conducted in 2012 with EU and USDA assistance; the first agricultural census in 50 years; results are not yet analyzed).

## 2. GENDER ISSUES IN AGRICULTURE IN THE REGION

### 2.1 BACKGROUND AND CONTEXT

As an engine of growth and as an employer, the agriculture sector varies in importance across the region. This has implications for the ways in which women engage in the sector as well as their future areas of opportunity. With a few exceptions, the agricultural sector in the E&E region is not a large formal employer. Agriculture is a significant but not dominant sector of the economies of most E&E countries (Table 1). Only in Armenia, Albania, Kosovo, Serbia, and Moldova does agriculture contribute more than 10 percent of GDP.

Table 1 below shows the share of agriculture in the economies of Europe and Eurasia, compared with industry and services. Agriculture has the highest share of GDP in Armenia (20.5 percent), Albania (18.0 percent), Moldova (13.1 percent), Kosovo (12.9 percent), and Republic of Macedonia (11.2 percent). In the other countries, it is less than 10 percent. In most cases, the service sector is the largest sector of the economies of the E&E countries. In spite of agriculture's smaller contribution to GDP, it employs a disproportionate segment of the workforce.

**Table 1: Share of Agriculture in the Economies in Europe and Eurasia, 2012**

Country	Agriculture ( percent of GDP) 2012	Industry ( percent of GDP) 2012	Services ( percent of GDP) 2012	Employment in Agriculture Sector (percent of labor force) 2012
<b>Armenia</b>	20.5	37.0	42.5	39 (2011)
<b>Azerbaijan</b>	6.2	64.3	29.4	38
<b>Georgia</b>	8.4	23.1	68.4	N/A
<b>Albania</b>	18.0	15.4	66.5	42 (2010)
<b>Bosnia and Herzegovina</b>	7.4	25.5	67.1	21
<b>Kosovo</b>	12.9 (2009)	22.6 (2009)	64.5 (2009)	5
<b>Republic of Macedonia</b>	11.2	27.6	61.3	17
<b>Montenegro</b>	0.8 (2011)	11.3 (2011)	75.3 (2011)	6
<b>Serbia</b>	7.6	31.7	60.7	21
<b>Belarus</b>	9.1	46.3	44.5	11 (2009)
<b>Moldova</b>	13.1	19.8	67.1	26
<b>Russia</b>	4.2	37.5	58.4	10 (2009)
<b>Ukraine</b>	9.5	31.4	59.1	17

Source: CIA World Factbook 2013; World Bank 2013

Agricultural output in the region varies based on agro-ecological conditions. For example, grains, sugar beets, and livestock-related activities (e.g., dairy and beef) dominate agricultural production in Belarus, Moldova, Ukraine, and Russia. The Balkan countries are the predominant producers of fruits and vegetables, as well as some cereals and oil crops. Serbia is the world's second largest producer of raspberries (ARCOTRASS, 2006). Montenegro has a diversified agricultural portfolio that benefits from its Mediterranean coastal climate and the multiple microclimates in its mountains. It produces fruits (including citrus and olives), vegetables, and livestock (including poultry), but few cereals. Over 60 percent of its agricultural land is in permanent pasture, the highest percentage in Europe after Ireland (Mirecki, 2007).

Although a generally decreasing proportion of the regional economy, in some countries agricultural production and the value of agricultural production and processing are growing as the sector shifts into higher value crops. Moldova is increasingly moving into higher value vegetable and fruit production, such

as grapes, which have now become its most valuable product (World Bank, 2010). In Albania, the rate of agricultural growth has been about 3.5 percent (2003–2009) and total production is increasing, particularly in fruits, vegetables (especially in greenhouses), and livestock.

In Serbia, agriculture's proportional contribution to GDP is declining, but its value has increased (ARCOTRASS, 2006). Some agricultural subsectors, such as organic production, are experiencing rapid and sustained growth (Hernandez & Torero, 2011; UNEP, 2011). This puts Serbia in a prime position to export organic food products to Western Europe.

#### **Box 1: Farm Categories**

The communist model of agriculture was characterized by commercial production on large state-run farms, side by side with subsistence-oriented production on small plots (less than one hectare) and gardens (Lerman, Csaki, & Feder, 2004). Throughout much of the region, the transition period between the 1990s and early 2000s was defined by the dismantling of state collectives and controls, the privatization of land, and an increase in private farming. Three different types of farms dominate the landscape today: agricultural enterprises, peasant farms, and household garden plots.

- **Agricultural enterprises**, also called “corporate farms,” are descendants of the former state and collective farms, shares of which typically were distributed to their employees or members as they privatized. They are a mixture of collectives, joint stock companies, cooperatives, corporations, and limited liability companies, with the collective or cooperative enterprise models dominating. They face varying degrees of state intervention and privatization.
- **Peasant farms** were established to encourage private, independent farming by individual households. These farms are formal family enterprises registered with the government. Much more dynamic than the collectives, these farms rose steadily in number and in productivity.
- **Private household plots**, also known as *dacha* plots, backyard gardens or garden plots, depending on location, are the third category of farms. These existed before 1991 and played an important role helping households smooth income gaps and cope with food shortages in the economy. In 2003, about 700,000 Georgian households cultivated roughly 15,400 hectares of land as garden plots (Tsomaia et al., 2003). In Bosnia and Herzegovina, about 50 percent of such farms are less than 2 hectares in size; 80 percent are less than 5 hectares; and only 4 percent are larger than 10 hectares (Bajramović, 2010).

## **2.2 CHARACTERISTICS OF MEN'S AND WOMEN'S PARTICIPATION IN AGRICULTURE**

Privatization during the 1990s restructured the agriculture sector and changed how men and women were engaged in the agricultural sector. Generally, the restructuring led to a shedding of workers from the formal agricultural workforce. This is partly the natural effect of the agricultural sector's declining share of the economies in the E&E countries (see Table 2 below). According to the 2011 FAO publication, *State of Food and Agriculture 2010-2011: Women in Agriculture*, the women's share of the economically active population in agriculture in the E&E region ranges from a low of 16.2 percent in Armenia to a high of 59.1 percent in Bosnia and Herzegovina. Overall, between 1995 and 2010, the female share of the economically active population in agriculture in the formal sector declined in most E&E countries. In all Eurasian countries except Azerbaijan, the declines of the female share of the economically active in agriculture were substantial, ranging from 6 to 10 percentage points. In Albania and Bosnia and Herzegovina it decreased by only one percent (FAO, 2011).

**TABLE 2: Female Share of Economically Active Population in Agriculture, in Percentages**

Country	Total (thousands) 1995	Total (thousands) 2010	Agricultural share (percent of total) 1995	Agricultural share (percent of total) 2010	Female share of economically active in agriculture (percent) 1995	Female share of economically active in agriculture (percent) 2010
Armenia	1375	1575	14.9	9.4	25.9	16.2
Azerbaijan	3229	4663	29.0	22.8	53.8	53.9
Georgia	2508	2278	22.8	15.1	42.3	36.2
Albania	1308	1450	51.5	41.8	44.3	43.2
Bosnia and Herzegovina	1636	1876	8.1	2.3	60.6	59.1
Kosovo*						38.7*
Republic of Macedonia						n/a
Montenegro		305		12.8		38.5
Serbia		4806		12.8		38.1
Belarus	5016	4880	16.2	8.9	28.8	18.7
Moldova	1962	1343	27.5	14.9	37.2	30.0
Russia	72466	76217	12.1	8.0	31.1	24.7
Ukraine	25202	23326	16.9	10.3	37.4	27.4

Source: FAO 2011: 116, Table A4. \*Statistical Office of Kosovo 2010: 36, Table 8.1

Women were often the first to be fired when collectives downsized (Morton et al., 2005). In Belarus, Kazakevich & Pashkevich (2009) argue that the women's share in the agricultural economy declined as the sector mechanized. The process of privatization did not remove women from agriculture altogether but shifted their activity from paid employment to unpaid activities, from collectives and state farms to family labor on private farms and backyard gardens. In general, many women in the E&E region find themselves working in or leading micro and small enterprises where labor markets have failed to offer them adequate employment opportunities (Duban, 2012). The changes in the ways women participated in agriculture resulted in losses in income and access to benefits they previously enjoyed in the collectives (Tolstokorova, 2009a).

### 2.3 SOCIAL NORMS AND EXPECTATIONS ABOUT GENDER RELATIONS IN AGRICULTURE

The agricultural sector replicates the trends in occupational segregation present in the larger economy. Social attitudes and stereotypes that shaped the segregation of men and women during the communist era remain prevalent, as indicated by the high degree of industrial, occupational, and firm-type segregation. Men are cast as managers, public and private leaders, and primary breadwinners. The terms and conditions of their work uphold these gender-based notions. They are more likely than women are to hold supervisory positions in firms and earn more money, regardless of their qualifications or levels of education. Perceptions that reinforce expectations that women function first as wives and mothers, and then as workers, hinder women's ability to expand businesses or access the upper echelons of management. In agriculture, women are disproportionately represented in some subsectors that are designated as appropriate occupations for women, such as dairying and livestock (or other animal) production. This is an extension of communist era perceptions of the "traditional" division of labor when women were often encouraged to be milkers, cattle breeders, agronomists, veterinary doctors, and zoo technicians. Today, women are often found in the most labor-intensive segments of agriculture, such as crop cultivation, calf and pig staking, and milking. These positions are considered less technical than occupations designated for men, such as drivers, fitters, machine operators, and technicians (Duban, 2012).

Women's share of supervisory and management roles in the agriculture sector is low. Women make up a small percentage of farm managers or specialists. In Ukraine, women's participation in management positions in agriculture (9.5 percent) is lower than in other sectors, such as industry, where it is 20.2 percent. (UNDP, 2003) In Belarus, women occupy only 17.1 percent of specialist positions and 6.7 percent of managers, but make up 74.3 percent of wage earners. Women manage 12,100 agricultural enterprises, compared to the 16,100 managed by men (Kazakevich & Pashkevich, 2009).

Gender wage gaps are features of the economy across the region, although the specifics vary. Current wage gaps for men and women throughout the E&E region do not create incentives for women to enhance their productivity. Given the time constraints women face as a result of household and other obligations, it is necessary for them to evaluate carefully how they spend their time. The rewards must be adequate for women to invest more time in one activity over another.

In many E&E countries, agriculture is a low paying sector, and as a result, the wage gaps are smaller than in other sectors. For example, in Ukraine, the gender wage gap is widest in industry (32.8 percent) and mining (48.7 percent), while in agriculture, the wage gap is 11.4 percent (Kupets, 2010). Similarly, in Belarus, the gender wage gap is smallest in the agriculture sector (10.1 percent) and highest in manufacturing (33.1 percent) (van Klaveren, et al., 2010). In Ukraine, women's salaries in the agriculture sector are 98.4 percent of men's, which may be a result of women having higher education levels than men in the sector (Dudwick et al., 2002).

As the agricultural sector expands, wage gaps may increase or decrease, depending on the pattern of growth. Expansion into the dynamic subsectors of agriculture (such as organic production) where gender roles are more flexible, have, in other parts of the world, created significant opportunities for women to take on a more prominent role and to gain greater benefits from sales of higher value fresh foods and processed products. The other possibility is that growth in the agriculture sector could potentially increase the gender wage gap, as more men move into higher paid and salaried positions in agribusinesses and women are relegated to the lower skilled wage work or unpaid family labor, reflecting common patterns in other sectors.<sup>4</sup>

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### **Key findings on characteristics and social norms relating to men's and women's participation in agriculture**

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- Women are expected to perform first as wives and mothers, and secondarily as income earners.
  - Men and women participate in agriculture in different ways, but their work continues to be linked to what is perceived as the "traditional" division of labor, with men as supervisors, managers and technical experts and women as workers.
  - The agricultural sector replicates trends in occupational segregation present in the larger economy.
  - Women's contributions to agriculture are overlooked or discounted.
  - Women in informal agriculture are not drawn into the formal sector.
  - Women's share of supervisory and management roles in the sector is low. Women make up a small percentage of farm managers or specialists.
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<sup>4</sup> Research from Ukraine shows that wage gaps are widest in formal and higher paid positions and lowest in informal or low-paid activities. Pignatti (2010) finds that women receiving higher wages are more often self-employed individuals rather than salaried employees and sees the wage differentials as an indicator of discrimination. Tolstokorova (2009a) also found a widespread belief among the private sector that staying at home with children leads to de-skilling and reduces women's competitiveness in the labor market.

## 2.4 MEN'S AND WOMEN'S ACCESS TO PRODUCTIVE ASSETS

This section presents a review of gender disparities related to access to land, credit, agricultural inputs, and knowledge. The character of participation in agriculture depends on the types and mix of assets (e.g., human, physical, and financial) available to people. Individuals with access to land can more easily engage in production than those who have only their labor. Access to start-up capital can facilitate the development of agribusinesses that add value to products, such as through transforming milk into cheese or yogurt. Women's and men's access to assets differs and this influences how they participate in agriculture, as well as their ability to enhance their position within agricultural enterprises. Unfortunately, sex-disaggregated data on the distribution of many assets is not widely available.<sup>5</sup> The limited amount of data available inhibits gender-responsive analysis of and programming for the agriculture sector, particularly in relation to the use of hired labor.

Women's ownership of land in the region is lower than men's is, in large part because land reform processes did not facilitate women's individual land ownership (Lastarria-Cornhiel, 2009:5). Land reform and redistribution took different forms and began at different times across the region, but by the late 1990s was in full effect. The process required policies and programs to redistribute land, permit private ownership, and allow the buying and selling of agricultural land. Many countries are still resolving outstanding land distribution issues, which remain a major constraint, not only to agriculture but also more widely in the economy. It limits the ability of both male and female residents to access credit. It also limits foreign investors to get clear title to property (USAID, 2011).

Lastarria-Cornhiel (2009:5) explains that the gender bias in land reform resulted from distribution and titling programs that grant rights to heads of households who are predominantly men. In many cases, therefore, the process of privatization inhibited women's ability to act as independent farm owners and agro-entrepreneurs since they continue in many situations to be dependent on their relationships with men to access land. This constitutes a reemergence or continuation of patriarchal privilege and/or a rejection of gender equality because of its association with socialist ideology and its top-down nature.

Titling efforts across the region have varied, and formal title rights have not always translated into women obtaining land ownership. In Belarus, the 1993 Law on Right to Land Ownership started a registration process requiring that the name of each individual in the household be included. As a result, land can only be used as collateral for a loan or other guarantee if all family members approve the transaction and sign the appropriate documents. In Albania, individual rights to land were guaranteed in law after independence, but in practice, family rights often take precedence. This constitutes a limitation on women's land ownership – reducing its economic utility by limiting their ability to mortgage or sell it without family consent (Sabates-Wheeler and Waite, 2003).

In Kosovo, although formal laws support gender equality, women's rights to property remain limited in practice, in large part because of social attitudes that privilege men's control over key productive resources (Cozzarelli, 2012). In Montenegro, women own 12.9 percent of the nation's family agricultural holdings. These average about six hectares in size, including pasture and forest (MONSTAT, 2012). In Serbia, women are registered owners of 28 percent of farms, compared to men's 72 percent (Statistical Office of the Republic of Serbia, 2011). A report on focus group discussions with participants on a USAID-funded project in Moldova noted that formal ownership does not necessarily limit access to land for farming. However, access to the land does not, by itself, translate into access to the benefits of sale of produce (dTS and DAI 2011: 20).

Many enterprises owned by women are typically small and often informal (see Duban, 2012). Women-owned formal agricultural businesses are not linked solely to the production, processing, or marketing of food and feedstuffs, but are found in wholesale or retail trade, food- and beverage-related enterprises,

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5. For example, the FAO's new gender and land rights data base (<http://www.fao.org/gender/landrights/comparative-report/en/>) does not include any data on women's land ownership for any of the countries in the E&E region.

consumer services, and social and cultural services including hospitality, but they remain a fraction of the total number of such firms.

Albanian women entrepreneurs and the factors leading to their success are diverse. Nichols Barrett (2008) conducted in-depth interviews with women who independently, or with their spouses, owned greenhouses, orchards, and farms producing a range of fruits and vegetables for sale. The women varied in age, marital status, educational backgrounds, and ethnicity. Common factors contributing to their success included access to (not necessarily ownership of) land, supportive family relationships, previous agricultural experience, and positions of authority within their households that enabled them to execute business decisions. They also faced common constraints, although the extent of the impact of these varied among the interviewees. They included limited access to credit, limited access to quality inputs and equipment, difficulties in expanding their physical capital, and access to agricultural information through extension and advisory services.

Access to credit remains limited for both men and women, whether for farming or for starting value-added agribusiness. Across the region, access to bank loans is improving, and women comprise almost half of credit union members. Nevertheless, women's access to commercial finance remains limited. Men borrow for agricultural activities, especially breeding (Norman, Badrshvili, & Lalayan, 2007). In Moldova women use loans for consumption and family purposes and for trading or commercial activities, while men are the primary applicants and recipients of loans for agricultural production (Miluka 2009). A large regional bank in Moldova, whose portfolio is 40 percent agriculture, revealed that women only account for 5 to 10 percent of all loan applicants (dTS & DAI, 2011, p. 21). In Moldova, men and women tend to get loans from different sources. Men obtain loans from commercial banks while women are able to get them from microfinance institutions, credit unions, and local savings associations.

USAID investments are focusing heavily on developing small and medium enterprises (SMEs). A number of projects to facilitate finance and credit options to SMEs are active in the Caucasus and the Balkans. At least two of these are focused specifically on improving access to agriculture-related credit. In Bosnia and Herzegovina, smallholder women farmers receive support from the "Women Empowerment through Organic Farming" activity. In Serbia, a component of USAID's agribusiness project helped 600 rural women prepare business plans. Those with the best plans were eligible to receive start-up grants of up to US\$15,000, while others secured bank loans.

Although it is not always the case, available information points to male domination in access to agricultural inputs as well as trade and commodity networks. For example, a 2003 report on Albania notes that men are normally the ones who purchase and apply inputs, including fertilizer and pesticides (Gjermeni & Preçi, 2003). In contrast, women in Ukraine, especially in the western regions, are reported to be the ones who purchase and apply pesticides, mostly on the vegetable crops that they produce and market (Stefanovska & Pidlisnuk, 2002).

In Moldova, about which some information is available from the MCC Farm Survey, more men than women are trained as input suppliers for farm equipment (19.6 percent versus 2.3 percent). Women tend to rely on information from other household members, such as parents, grandparents, or husbands. A gender review of the USAID-funded Agricultural Competitiveness and Enterprise Development Project (ACED) notes that input suppliers employ women as agronomists and sales agents (dTS & DAI 2011).

Data on training in science and technology in the region demonstrate that women are not well represented in the agricultural sciences. Across the region, gender differences exist in access to higher education and to achievements in science and technology (see Table 3). Between 2003 and 2011 there has been no clear trend in increases in women students in agriculture sciences at the university level. World Bank EdStats data show that the number of students majoring in agriculture is low. However,

various degrees provide skills and knowledge necessary to participate in different areas relevant to agricultural value chains.

Men appear to specialize in those areas that are more directly associated with such work, including natural sciences, business management, mathematics, computer science, technical science, manufacturing, and construction. Although women are concentrated in areas such as education, health, economics, and social work, which have some relevance to the sector (e.g., agricultural economics), they are usually less likely than men are to study a field that is directly relevant to the sector. In Serbia, an almost equal number of male and female students graduate with agriculture and veterinary medicine degrees (Statistical Office of the Republic of Serbia, 2011). However, in Armenia, the distribution of male and female graduates studying in agro-food industry-related courses is extremely skewed; 73.5 percent of tertiary-level students are men, and only 26.5 percent are women (National Statistical Service, 2010).

**TABLE 3: Women Tertiary-level Graduates in Agricultural Sciences, as Percentage of Total Graduates**

Country	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Albania	47.1								46.1
Armenia		44.7						39.5	
Azerbaijan						30.7	26.4	26.8	29.7
Belarus								13.8	31.0
Bosnia and Herzegovina									
Georgia	32.7	26.3		27.0	21.4			24.1	
Kosovo									
Republic of Macedonia	38.9	39.7	38.4	39.3	44.9	43.3	40.2	28.2	
Moldova									
Montenegro									
Serbia					49.4	43.9	46.4	46.6	46.5
Ukraine									

Source: World Bank EdStats Database

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## Key findings on access to productive assets

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- Women's ownership of land in the region is lower than men's, in large part because land reform processes did not facilitate women's individual land ownership.
  - Unresolved land ownership and titling problems will continue to limit women's participation in agricultural value chains as independent producers.
  - Access to credit remains limited for both men and women, whether for farming or for starting value-added agribusiness. Women in particular need to be able to use non land-based collateral.
  - Evidence about men's and women's access to agricultural inputs indicates that these are male dominated.
  - Women farmers lack the links to other actors in the value chain due to their lack of personal participation in national and regional trade and commodity networks.
  - There is a dearth of sex-disaggregated data and gender analysis on hired labor, credit, and use of improved inputs.
  - Women are not participating equally in agricultural education programs at the tertiary level.
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### 2.5 GENDER ROLES, RESPONSIBILITIES, POWER, AND DECISION MAKING

Men and women typically have different roles in agricultural production. In Moldova, women's responsibilities in high value vegetable production include sowing seeds, planting seedlings, weeding, and harvesting in greenhouses. Men perform tasks such as obtaining loans, spraying pesticides, maintaining farm equipment and irrigation systems, and driving tractors, as well as managing other forms of transport (dTS & DAI, 2011). Of women who work on family farms in Serbia, 32 percent are categorized as "agricultural producers," and 68 percent as "contributing family workers." For men, the proportions are reversed, with 79 percent listed as agricultural producers and 21 percent as contributing family workers (Statistical Office of the Republic of Serbia, 2011). In the Republic of Macedonia, women work as seasonal agriculture workers on others' individual holdings, while men are more likely to work as regular employees in agricultural businesses (Cozzarelli, 2010).

Beyond their roles in the workplace (paid or unpaid), women face greater responsibilities than do men to care for the home, children, and the elderly. They must squeeze in extra time for other economic activities, whether in farm-based production or agribusiness. Women typically bear the burden of domestic responsibilities although they also work outside of the home. Relative to men, women spend more time on household chores. As Table 4 below demonstrates, throughout the week, rural women in Ukraine spend significantly more time than men do on a range of household activities. Time allocation reports from Serbia in 2010 show a similar breakdown, with women older than 15 years averaging nearly 5 hours in unpaid work (including household work), compared to 2 hours by men. And women have about 70 minutes less leisure time per day than do men (Statistical Office of the Republic of Serbia, 2011). In Armenia, the contrast is even greater. In urban areas, women spend nearly 5 hours on housework compared to 50 minutes by men; in rural areas, women spend nearly 6 hours in unpaid work compared to 90 minutes by men (National Statistical Service of the Republic of Armenia, 2010). This difference in male/female time allocation is exacerbated in households where husbands or other male relatives have emigrated to obtain work, as is common in some E&E countries.

In contrast to other countries, time use studies in Georgia reveal that men spend more time than women do in some types of "domestic" tasks, such as gathering fuel for heating and making home repairs. However, women still bear the burden of caring for children and the household, e.g., in fetching water and preparing meals (Duban, 2010).

**Table 4: Gender gap in time allocated for household duties for rural residents in Ukraine**

Task type (one person per day)	Men		Women	
	Working day (Hours: Minutes)	Weekend (Hours: Minutes)	Working day (Hours: Minutes)	Weekend (Hours: Minutes)
Average time allocated for household work	0:47	1:47	3:47	6:01
Domestic work overall	0:35	1:07	3:17	4:58
Cooking	0:09	0:13	1:40	2:15
Maintenance of premises, furniture, domestic appliances	0:04	0:14	0:29	0:53
Laundry, sewing, mending	0:03	0:05	0:43	1:03
Childcare	0:05	0:09	0:16	0:31
Shopping and use of services	0:12	0:40	0:30	1:03
Other kinds of domestic work	0:14	0:26	0:07	0:16

Source: Tolstokorova (2009a)

Over time, the demand for women in agriculture appears to have decreased according to data on women's formal participation in agriculture (Tolstokorova, 2009a). However, women's labor in household gardens has become critically important for smoothing income gaps. It continues to provide an important safety net for households. In Ukraine, women contribute twice as much as men to private household farming, adding roughly three more hours of work per day. Over a year, this amounts to an additional 160 working days for women (Tolstokorova, 2009a). In Moldova, women are more likely to work on private family plots than agricultural enterprises, and in Russia, it is estimated that women contribute between 50 percent and 75 percent of work on private plots<sup>6</sup> (UNIFEM, 2006; Bridger, 2000).

Women derive income from agricultural activities and start agriculture-related business despite the burdens they face. Women generate income in the informal and formal sectors through self-employment and entrepreneurship. For example, a farm survey in Moldova found that women's income came largely from crops produced on household plots and from non-agricultural or non-farm businesses (Miluka, 2009). On the other hand, men earned income largely from rentals or work on other farms, implying that they may benefit more from wage-earning opportunities in large agricultural enterprises.

In Ukraine, women's share of agricultural activities in the informal sector or in self-employment (25 percent of women) is lower than men's (72 percent) (Dudwick et al., 2002), although according to Pignatti (2010), women's presence in informal agriculture increased to about 34 percent around 2004. Among those who are self-employed (or "own account workers") in informal employment in Moldova, 49 percent of women and 35 percent of men produce agricultural goods for consumption (UNIFEM, 2006).

Decision-making processes in family farm enterprises are not well documented. This review found only a few examples where gender dynamics in agricultural decision-making were investigated. In some countries, women have a greater stake and more decision-making authority on private farms than they do on collectives. In Albania, the privatization of agriculture greatly enhanced the role of the household in the economy. This helped give more decision-making authority and influence to women on private farms. This shift also magnified the importance of gender dynamics within the household. The shift to

6. This estimate is widely considered to be conservative.

private farms helped to empower rural women who had worked on collective farms. At the same time, “new” agriculture has involved heavier workloads that require more time and energy (Nicholson, 2004).

According to the MCC Farm Survey conducted in Moldova, women take wage work on vineyards and in cornfields and apple orchards. On these farms, few women contribute to decisions made related to crops or irrigation, but they have almost exclusive responsibility for decisions about marketing of crops (Miluka, 2009). The survey also highlights differences in decision-making power between generations; young men appear to make more decisions than older men do, while the reverse is true for women (Miluka, 2009). In Azerbaijan, women’s influence on production-related decisions is also low. In focus group discussions, women claimed to make land use decisions on farm plots 11.4 percent of the time compared to men who do it 63.2 percent of the time (UNDP, 2007).

Nichols Barrett’s work in Albania found that the majority of the women interviewed managed farms independently or jointly with their spouses, and in these situations, they actively made decisions on what to produce, when and where to sell, adoption of new production techniques, and purchases of farm equipment (Nichols Barrett, 2008).

Evidence about men’s and women’s participation in community groups with decision-making authority, such as water user associations and producer organizations, indicates that these are male dominated. In several countries in the region, men are the primary members and officers in water user associations. For example, in Moldova 88 percent of members are men. The reason for women’s lack of participation is unclear (Miluka, 2009).

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### **Key findings about gender roles, responsibilities, power, and decisions making**

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- Men and women typically have different roles in agricultural production. Men are often characterized as primary agricultural producers while women are considered as contributing family workers.
  - Women’s labor in household gardens has become critically important for smoothing income gaps and continues to provide an important safety net for households, however, women’s unpaid contributions to private farming are not captured in productivity or labor statistics.
  - Women face greater responsibilities to care for the home, children, and the elderly than do men do, which reduces the time they have for economic activities, whether in farm-based production or agribusiness.
  - Women do not have the support they need to participate fully in the labor market if they would like to do so. Nevertheless, women derive income from agricultural activities and start agriculture-related business despite the burdens they face.
  - In some countries, women have a greater stake and more decision-making authority on private farms than they did on collectives.
  - Participation in decision-making bodies, such as producer cooperatives and water user associations, is not equitable between men and women.
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## **2.6 GENDER ISSUES IN POLICY, LAW, AND INSTITUTIONS IN AGRICULTURE**

According to Sattar (2012), gender equality has been an explicit goal of countries in the E&E region since the mid-twentieth century, and these principles of gender equality continue to be reaffirmed. These countries established constitutional guarantees for gender equality and legislative frameworks that encouraged equal employment of men and women in some sectors, and invested in the health and education of women and girls. Yet these legal provisions have not ensured gender equality in practice. A wide range of gender inequalities remain, alongside the growth of “retraditionalization,” a shift in gender ideologies away from relative equality under communist rule to inequality characterized by the dominance of men and the submission and marginalization of women (van Boeschoten, 2007). Many of

these inequalities are well known, if not always well documented, and have consequences for many sectors of the economy.

While countries in the region uphold the principles of gender equality in their constitutions and many have established ministries or committees to support gender equality (Sattar, 2012), there is little evidence that these efforts penetrate the policy and legal frameworks related to the agriculture sector. The agricultural strategy and policy documents available typically state the importance of paying attention to women farmers or women's groups and may include items in action plans for training or creating more job opportunities. Most, however, do no analysis of men's and women's contributions to agriculture nor do they suggest policies that would support more equitable development of the sector. Furthermore, donors such as the World Bank and other international and national research institutes, which regularly analyze these national agricultural policies, rarely offer any gender analysis of them. Occasionally, local NGOs or research groups conduct studies to illuminate key gender issues.

Albania's Agriculture and Food Sector Strategy for 2007 to 2013 includes no gender analysis or sex-disaggregated data; the key unit of analysis is farming households. Bosnia and Herzegovina has a Food and Rural Development Operational Programme for 2008 to 2010 that recommends actions to "develop framework measures for promotion of gender and minority rights in rural areas." It strives to "support women through education, employment, access to credit and representation in rural institutions and associations and overall implementation of the principles of gender equality in rural areas," however the program document contains no gender analysis and no sex-disaggregated data.

Kosovo issued an Agriculture and Rural Development Plan for 2009 to 2013. Policies and recommendations contained in the Plan call for a study on migration and gender, giving support for a Young Farmers' Association and Women's Groups, promoting vocational training for "farmers, women, and rural households, supporting creation of jobs for women and youth, and proposing involving women in non-farming activities. The policy statements also propose a policy of developing rural small and medium enterprises with the intent of "addressing needs of gender." However, the Plan includes no gender analysis for agriculture, and except for life expectancies, there is no real sex-disaggregation provided. The Plan does mention, however, that female-headed households are among those most at risk for poverty.

Probably the most gender-progressive issuance of a national policy or plan in the E&E region is the National Plan for Agriculture and Rural Development for 2007 to 2013 in the Republic of Macedonia. The National Plan uses a value chain approach and includes selection criteria for new projects that give a higher rating for projects proposed by women. Project selection committees must include both men and women. Sex-disaggregated data on demographics and employment are provided. Some figures on women's participation in sub-sectors, such as fisheries, are also given. It offers minimal gender analysis but refers to the need for policies and laws on gender equity.

The Agriculture and European Union Agriculture and Rural Development Strategy of 2007 for Montenegro notes the importance of protecting women's rights to property as part of ensuring the welfare of the rural population. However, no gender analysis of agriculture or sex disaggregation of data is included, nor does it provide any gender-related recommendations. Serbia's National Agricultural Program for 2010 to 2013 takes a value chain approach and seeks to reduce the number of non-commercial farms and promote inclusion of "small scale producers into modern market chains," which should be positive for women in the agriculture sector. Nevertheless, it includes no gender analysis or any sex-disaggregated data.

**Table 5: Attention to Gender Issues in National Strategies and Plans Related to Agriculture**

Country	Analysis of men’s and women’s participation in agriculture	Recommendations in the strategy
<b>Albania, Agriculture and Food Sector Strategy (2007-2013)</b>	No gender analysis for agriculture and no sex-disaggregated data provided. Strategy describes “farming households” as the unit of analysis.	
<b>Bosnia and Herzegovina, Agriculture, Food and Rural Development Operational Programme (2008-2010)</b>	No sex-disaggregated data. No gender analysis provided.	Recommends actions to “develop framework measure for promotion of gender and minority rights in rural areas” that would “support women through education, employment, access to credit and representation in rural institutions and associations and overall implementation of the principles of gender equality in rural areas” (p. 61).
<b>Kosovo, Agriculture and Rural Development Plan 2009-2013</b>	<p>No explicit gender analysis for agriculture, although a gender gap is noted in education. Women are discussed as a separate category from “farmers.” The strategy notes that 60% of the national population is rural, and that they “still live off the land as subsistence farmers, and consider agriculture and farming not as a business, but as a way of life.” It also notes that female-headed households are among those most at risk for poverty.</p> <p>There is no sex-disaggregated data provided except on life expectancies.</p>	<p>Recommendations are generic and do not link to any explanation of constraints faced by women:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Gender and migration to be studied (p. 18).</li> <li>• Give support to Young Farmers’ Association and Women’s Groups (footnote, p. 40).</li> <li>• Promote vocational training for “farmers, women, and rural households” including in information technologies (p. 123).</li> <li>• Create jobs for women and youth (p. 138) and involve women in non-farming activities (p. 169).</li> <li>• Develop rural Small &amp; Medium Enterprise policy, “addressing needs of gender” (p. 265).</li> </ul>
<b>Republic of Macedonia, National Plan for Agriculture and Rural Development, (2007-2013)</b>	Sex-disaggregated data on demographics and employment are provided. Some figures on women’s participation in sub-sectors, such as fisheries, are also given. Minimal gender analysis offered, e.g., “Rural tourism sector is found suitable for providing sustainable income for rural women and attractive sector for the young rural population” (p. 228), but with no supporting evidence. A value chain and geographic approach is used. Reference is given to laws and policies on gender equality.	Selection criteria for new projects includes 10 points for projects presented by women (p. 279). Selection committees include both men and women (p. 239).
<b>Montenegro, Agriculture and European Union Agriculture and Rural Development Strategy (2007)</b>	Provides no gender analysis of agricultural production or sex-disaggregated data.	As part of ensuring the welfare of the rural population, the strategy notes the importance of protecting women’s rights to property (p. 100)

Country	Analysis of men's and women's participation in agriculture	Recommendations in the strategy
<b>Serbia, National Agricultural Program of the Republic of Serbia 2010-2013</b>	No gender analysis of agricultural production or sex-disaggregated data provided. The strategy takes a value chain approach and recognizes geographic diversity. It seeks to reduce the number of "non-commercial farms" and discusses economic support for these farmers as well as support for village development, but does not address any gender issues. Efforts will be made to include "small scale producers into modern market chains" (p. 23).	No explicit gender-related recommendations

Even within the national architecture for gender equality in the region, few national strategies or action plans pay attention to gender issues in the agricultural sector. Many recognize women's presence in, and value their contributions to, the sector in their current roles, but they do not consider what policy changes would support transitions toward more gender-equitable participation. Almost all acknowledge the presence of gender gaps in wages and occupational segregation in the labor market, but they do not identify in any detail specific policies to address these differences in the agricultural sector.

It is not apparent that gender-related policies are being issued or implemented in coordination with other policies developed by ministries of agriculture or other ministries. According to the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (UNECE), the lack of coordination across ministries is common throughout the region, as noted in the following statement by UNECE:

*In reality, the fact that the core institutes of national mechanisms (gender units) are located in a social ministry oriented towards welfare activities, such as the ministries of social affairs, social protection, labour, health, family, children and youth, challenges the expectations to integrate gender equality considerations in the country's mainstream development policies and programmes, and weakens their ability to influence key policy-making areas, especially the economy, public finance, agriculture and other critical areas. (United Nations Economic Commission for Europe, 2010: 30)*

Finally, despite the E&E countries' ratification of international laws and conventions on equal opportunity in hiring and promotion, the segregation of individuals by gender-based notions of their capabilities is commonplace, both in agriculture and other sectors (see Duban, 2012). There is a widespread practice to indicate a preference for men or women when announcing positions. In Ukraine, it was found that announcements for new positions specified a preference for either men or women (Larsson, Aksyonova, & Larsson, 2011). Tolstokorova (2009a) found that in agriculture and forestry, 89 percent of vacancy announcements stated that they required men, while only 11 percent specified women. In fisheries, the breakdown was higher: 96 and 3 percent respectively.

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**Key findings about gender issues in policy, law, and institutions in agriculture**

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- Widespread legal provisions supporting gender equity have not been adopted as regulations and programs within the agriculture sectors of E&E countries.
  - Agricultural policies do not analyze men's and women's contributions to agriculture nor do they suggest policies that would support more gender equitable development of the sector.
  - Efforts to address gender equality do not coordinate with agricultural development efforts.
  - The majority of job announcements in agriculture that specify a sex, specify men.
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### 3. RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 3.1 CURRENT USAID POLICIES ON AND INVESTMENTS IN AGRICULTURE AND GENDER

**Currently, much of USAID’s global agricultural programming is linked to Feed the Future (FTF),** the President’s high priority initiative that involves agencies across the U.S. Government working together to address global hunger and food security. Led by USAID, FTF was created in response to food and food price crises in an effort to avoid future ones (US Govt., Dept. of State, 2011). Its overarching goal is “to sustainably reduce global hunger and poverty.” Investments and program activities are targeted towards 20 priority countries and based on five criteria: their level of need, opportunities for partnership, potential for agricultural growth, opportunities for regional synergy, and available resources. The key objectives of the program are to accelerate inclusive agricultural sector growth and improve nutritional status (especially of women and children).<sup>7</sup>

Although no E&E countries are FTF-priority countries, the FTF approach is helping shape choices about agricultural programs in the region. As in the FTF focus countries, USAID missions in E&E are identifying key value chains and investing in targeted regions that hold agricultural potential.

**Gender integration is one of six focus areas of FTF.** The initiative explicitly recognizes the importance of women’s contributions to agriculture and seeks to overcome gender disparities that limit what women can achieve in the sector. In order to measure the impact of USAID programs on the empowerment gap between men and women, FTF supported the development of the Women’s Empowerment in Agriculture Index (WEAI, see section 3.7 below). The WEAI also provides useful guidance on where programs can reduce gender gaps and support greater gender equality.

**The new USAID Gender Equality and Female Empowerment Policy reaffirms that gender analysis is a key tool for integrating gender effectively across the programming cycle.** The Policy has been codified in the Automated Directives System, which contains the regulations that guide Agency operations. The policy states that “Gender equality and female empowerment are now universally recognized as core development objectives, fundamental for the realization of human rights, and key to effective and sustainable development outcomes” (USAID, 2012: 3). The policy directs USAID to work explicitly in all sectors to reduce gender disparities, reduce gender-based violence and mitigate its effects, and increase the capability of women and girls to determine their life outcome and influence decision-making at all levels. The reaffirmation of the importance of gender across the Agency, and specifically within agricultural investments, provides the opportunity and scope for E&E Missions to assess how new investments will be designed to support these policies.

#### 3.2 NEW INVESTMENTS

Both FTF and USAID’s Gender Equality and Female Empowerment Policy form the basis for the recommendations that follow, which identify several types of investments that USAID may wish to consider supporting in the future.

##### **Support efforts that help fill critical data gaps**

Developing gender-responsive agricultural programming requires having the appropriate information. This review has revealed significant areas in which there are little to no national-level, sex-disaggregated data in general and even less that are specific to agricultural issues, beyond participation in the labor force and limited information on land holdings. Recommended activities include:

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<sup>7</sup> See [www.feedthefuture.gov](http://www.feedthefuture.gov) for information about the program or U.S. Government, Department of State, 2011.

- Providing financing and/or technical support to government or other institutions to ensure that new data collection efforts (whether through census or other national level surveys) collect sex-disaggregated data on levels and areas of employment in agriculture, wage levels, land ownership (also disaggregated by size), access to other productive assets (such as farm equipment), and agricultural enterprise ownership (also disaggregated by firm value);
- Supporting gender analyses of agricultural census or other agricultural survey data;
- Supporting gender analyses of specific value chains in the region;
- Conducting gender-sensitive baseline studies at the start of each new agricultural and economic project, following the example of the MCC's Moldova farm study and its gender analysis;
- Initiating use of the WEAI (see section 3.7) and contracting with independent parties for data collection and analysis to inform project and activity design. This work should establish baselines and monitor the narrowing of gender gaps. Missions could also recommend the use of the WEAI to other donors and governments in the region.

### **Support efforts to develop, implement, and enforce agriculture-related policies that strengthen the development of gender-equitable value chains**

As most extant policies that affect agricultural activity are not gender-sensitive, support and guidance are needed to ensure that gender is integrated into current and new policies. As a part of democracy and governance projects, different approaches could be used to facilitate gender integration. For example, advocates for women could receive training and assistance with efforts to encourage the government to address gender gaps in governance, as well as to monitor implementation and enforcement of gender-sensitive policies. Other policy-related issues that could be addressed in this manner are gender wage gaps and discrimination in hiring and promotion of wage-based male and female workers.

### **Promote women's participation in organic production, value added processing, and export businesses**

Organic agriculture is one agricultural subsector that appears to have significant potential in the region. Organic production in Romania, Poland, and the Czech Republic was growing 13–16 percent annually in 2011 (BioFach 2013, 2012). Rates of growth in Ukraine and Moldova are smaller, ranging from only 1 percent (UNEP, 2010) in Ukraine and Moldova to 10 percent in Serbia (März et al., 2012). Recent reports (UNEP, 2011, Hernandez & Torereo, 2011, März et al., 2012) all refer to the region's suitability for increasing organic production given its abundant supply of workers, relatively low use of synthetic fertilizers, and pesticides, and proximity to the markets of Western Europe.

Growth in this subsector offers potentially significant opportunities for women as producers, processors, marketers, exporters, and other types of agro-entrepreneurs. Women's current level of involvement is not known because little to no sex-disaggregated data on the subsector are available. Several donors are promoting organic production and marketing activities through women's associations. The International Fund for Agricultural Development's Rural Enterprise Enhancement Project, for example, provided training on organic production in greenhouses, along with business development skills, to women's groups in Bosnia and Herzegovina. The project used the innovative technique of requiring each trainee to find and train other women to spread the knowledge she had received (FAO & IFAD, n.d.). Other donors have shown some success facilitating exchange programs between Eastern and Western European countries.

USAID can expand its current agribusiness programs in the region to support: (1) the formation and growth of women's membership in organic farming-related producer and trade associations, (2) the development of gender-equitable governance policies by these associations, and (3) women-owned

businesses to increase their involvement in the processing and marketing of value added organic products.

### **Encourage women's participation in dairy and small livestock production and marketing**

New opportunities exist for women entrepreneurs to benefit from an expanding agricultural sector via the development of agriculture-related services and businesses. A developing agricultural sector depends on and helps to grow a range of other support services that provide inputs, credit, and business development skills, as well as retailers, wholesalers, processors, and others who buy raw or processed materials. These forward and backward linkages create business opportunities in rural and urban areas for women and men entrepreneurs.

Milk production remains an important area for women in several countries in the E&E region. Projects and activities that aim to improve milk quality and marketing can deliberately work to engage women who are involved in small-scale milk production, and who have the potential to increase the scale of their businesses. In addition, it is possible to build rural women's participation in dairying by helping producers to link with processors and to expand the range of dairy products available (whether organic or not). Women could receive training and support to raise small livestock or establish and run value-added enterprises that specialize in processing and packaging meats and other livestock products, including food products such as milk, cheese, and eggs as well as wool and felt.

### **Develop agro- or eco-tourism businesses**

Interest in agro- or eco-tourism is growing in the region. *Lonely Planet* travel guides named Albania number one in their top 10 countries for regional travel in 2011 (USAID, 2011). Supporting greater women's participation in the hospitality industry, while strengthening forward and backward linkages to agricultural or other nature-based products manufactured and sold by women can help create more jobs in rural areas and foster growth in agribusinesses.

### **Identify and address gender dimensions of climate-smart agriculture**

*Although not yet as noticeable in the literature of this region as it is in that of Africa, climate change as a factor in agriculture is an emerging theme. Temperatures are rising and expectations are for even higher summer and autumn temperatures and higher rainfall in the north and east of the E&E region, with the likelihood of floods increasing throughout. These changes will require a shift in crop varieties and cultivation practices. Smallholder farmers who are more vulnerable and less prepared to deal will climate change will need extension and other support services. (Fay, et al., 2009)*

E&E literature on agriculture and climate change does not discuss implications of climate change for women and girls. Based on patterns in other regions, however, climate changes in the region are likely to exacerbate rural poverty, disproportionately experienced by women in the region. Climate change-induced migration will increase as people in poorer rural regions seek work in larger urban areas (Fay et al., 2009). As has been reported for other regions (Brody, et al., 2008), migration patterns may exacerbate women's isolation and poverty on the farms, or conversely, push women off the farms to seek work in urban areas. Migrants, both men and women, typically experience more health problems and greater economic vulnerability than the rest of the population, which is in part the result of the disruption of their social networks (Kartiki, 2011; Brody, et al., 2008).

USAID/Washington and Missions can address this situation in a few ways. There is a critical need for a gender analysis of both emerging constraints and opportunities in relation to climate change at the country and regional levels. USAID could also support efforts to bring women into higher-level discussions on climate policies. The region would benefit from a gender assessment of the intersections of climate and agriculture, similar to that conducted as part of USAID's East Africa regional, multi-year

FTF strategy. USAID could also develop gender-sensitive modules for national and regional assessments of vulnerability to climate change.

### **Support gender-equitable agricultural extension and advisory services**

Frequent comments about women's lack of access to agricultural information, whether about new crop varieties, production technologies, or marketing options, appear throughout the literature. However, they were not backed up with specific data about preferred communication channels, frequency of their use or contact, or content areas. Women need to obtain knowledge through special training or extension about nutritional crops suitable for garden plots. A review of gender aspects of agricultural extension and advisory services in the region could be conducted in conjunction with other planned value chain analyses, as well as be part of any new activities to develop climate mitigation and adaptation programs (Manfre, et al., 2013).

### **Support greater involvement and capacities for women to work in management of agricultural enterprises and agri-businesses**

Women's workforce skills need to be upgraded. In addition to the training for women, gender-sensitive training should be developed for agricultural enterprise managers and workers. USAID and governments also have an opportunity to design and implement programs to assist businesses to provide services to women farmers, including provision of market information and work contracts.

### **Support gender-responsive agricultural research**

The high level of women's participation in informal agriculture in most countries, combined with the lower levels of education typical of rural areas and the relative underrepresentation of women in agricultural sciences, suggests opportunities to design and implement programs to enhance girls' participation in science education. Improving growth in agriculture will depend in part on strengthening the upstream activities supporting agricultural value chains, including agricultural research and development. Agricultural technologies and rural services that reduce women's time constraints are needed and this should be a priority topic for research. Given USAID's support of higher education, it may be possible to create fellowship and exchange programs for study in agriculture as well as in fields that contribute to the value chain. Sub-Saharan Africa's CGIAR's AWARD program<sup>8</sup> could be used as a model for new programs in the region.<sup>9</sup>

## **3.3 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR DESIGN INTERVENTIONS FOR GENDER-EQUITABLE PROGRAMMING FOR DIFFERENT TYPES OF FARMS**

Investments in agriculture in the E&E region vary greatly and range from activities related to value chains and infrastructure as well as creating an enabling environment. The following recommendations are specific to the three farm categories noted above, as the gender issues are distinct for each one. These are agricultural enterprises, independent private or "peasant" farms, and household garden plots.

Different types of farm enterprises require different types of interventions to support the women involved in them. The list below is organized by types of farm.

- I. When working with **large agricultural enterprises**, USAID could support interventions that do the following.
  - **Upgrade women's workforce skills.** While women are gradually increasing their numbers in tertiary education, they also need to be equipped with leadership skills to manage and

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<sup>8</sup> [http://www.genderdiversity.cgiar.org/resource/AWARD\\_percent20Factsheet.pdf](http://www.genderdiversity.cgiar.org/resource/AWARD_percent20Factsheet.pdf)

<sup>9</sup> <http://ccafs.cgiar.org/about/careers-and-calls/belmont-forum-and-joint-programming-initiative-agriculture-food-security-and#.Ukl35tLktnE>

supervise employees. Special initiatives to target women's workforce development can contribute to changing the perception of women's skills, as well as provide them with the skills to take on positions as technicians, machine operators, and managers in agricultural enterprises. In the Caucasus, expansion of high-value horticulture is aimed at offering more opportunities for women in processing facilities where they are currently working (Deloitte Consulting LLP, 2011). Ensuring that women have the skills to move into supervisory roles in these facilities will be important for improving their participation in the agricultural value chain.

- **Design gender-sensitive training** for managers and workers in agricultural processing firms to encourage gender-equitable hiring and promotion and to address discrimination and sexual harassment in the workplace. A two-pronged approach could:
    - Inform workers of their rights; and
    - Work with managers and employers to change negative behavior. Greater investments in improving workplace conditions for women are necessary to allow them to work in safe and productive environments free from discrimination and harassment.
  - **Improve the policy and regulatory framework to reduce gender wage gaps and discrimination** in hiring and promotion, and to achieve greater occupational safety. A key constraint across the region is the lack of specific policies and regulations to support gender equality in the workplace. USAID activities to improve the enabling environment for agriculture could address the weak framework for redressing gender wage gaps, as well as discrimination in hiring and promotion. In terms of occupational safety, USAID could: (i) promote safe working environments and legislation to protect men from the gender-based notion that it is acceptable for them to take on risky and dangerous activities, and (ii) ensure that its projects address workplace safety where applicable.
  - **Assist businesses to provide benefits that promote a work-life balance.** Depending upon the nature of the work, some businesses can provide benefits such as offering flexible working hours and subsidized transport at a relatively low cost. Other options, such as providing daycare and other health or childcare benefits would be more expensive. However, the increases in retention rates and the more highly motivated employees that would likely result from these benefits may make them worthwhile. USAID could provide assistance with human resources training, policy development, and assessments of financial capacity to cover such services as well as support studies of companies that do provide such services.
2. When working with **independent private farming**, USAID could encourage interventions that do the following.
- **Foster equitable participation in decision-making processes, such as in producer cooperatives and water user associations.** Providing guidance on gender-equitable governance systems can help associations attract and keep more women members. Consideration should be given to whether membership criteria are attentive to both men's and women's needs and opportunities.
  - **Identify agricultural technologies and rural services that will reduce women's time, financial, and labor constraints.** Investments in laborsaving technologies and rural infrastructure for transport and energy can boost productivity for both men and women, but can have a greater impact on women if they also reduce the burden of domestic work. Their shortages of time reduce opportunities for attending training or skill development activities, participating in association meetings (including water user or business associations), and seeking new market opportunities. Agricultural investments that would relieve some of the burden of manual labor on the farm or projects to strengthen rural energy and transport infrastructure

would help address this issue and would benefit women. Agricultural programs can also ensure that women receive training in the use of new agricultural equipment, such as the operation and maintenance of tractors.

- Design **mechanisms that explicitly reward women’s unpaid contribution to private farming**. Market linkage and value chain programs can ensure that payment systems for products produced by “family farm labor” do not unintentionally deprive women of the proceeds of their work. Warehouse storage programs or wholesale purchasing projects can require joint bank accounts or cell phone payment systems (where available) or otherwise provide equitable access to payments.
  - Ensure that **agricultural services and information reach both men and women**, by developing new activities in agricultural extension and advisory services. For example, if a project involves the creation of producer associations but most members are likely to be men, consider how information provided to members can also be made available to spouses and other adult members of the family who might be involved in production.
  - Advocate for **gender-equitable land policies and enforcement** of existing policies that do provide for gender equity. Existing gender-equitable agricultural policies need to be enforced. Formal gender-sensitive land rights policies are not enough—customary land rights also need to be addressed.
  - Develop **programs to provide women with agricultural credit** through non-land-based collateral. USAID livelihood and agriculture projects in other regions are exploring alternative forms of collateral when working with youth and women, which could be applicable to the E&E region.
3. To support the role of women with a **social safety net**, USAID could include activities related to garden plots, such as with the following.
- **Disseminate knowledge of suitable nutritional crops to women.**
  - **Improve access to low-cost production, storage, and processing technologies.**
4. USAID could **support women entrepreneurs in the agriculture sector** through interventions that do the following.
- **Facilitate greater linkages between women-owned businesses and the agricultural sector.** Women operating food and beverage or hospitality-related enterprises can be linked with local farms to supply raw materials or as part of agro- and eco-tourism initiatives.
  - **Strengthen the participation of women in agribusiness incubator programs.**
  - **Introduce women entrepreneurs to new opportunities in the agricultural sector.** This could include providing women with training in organic production, processing, and input supply.
  - **Encourage the development of enterprises to support working women.** Female entrepreneurs could be encouraged to fill gaps in services for women working at different points on agricultural value chains. For example, they could be encouraged to establish private daycare and other enterprises (such as, business incubators, business development support services, or transport companies) with an eye toward supporting working women.
  - **Improve women’s ability to trade regionally in agricultural commodities** by enhancing their participation in national and regional trade and commodity networks.

- **Develop programs to provide women with agricultural credit through non-land-based collateral.** USAID livelihood and agriculture projects in other regions are exploring alternative forms of collateral when working with youth and women, which could be applicable to the E&E region.

### 3.4 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR PROGRAM DESIGN FOR VALUE CHAIN ACTORS

In the course of programming, USAID could provide training and technical assistance to value chain actors to help them integrate gender-sensitivity into their work. Such training and technical assistance would cross sectors and include such efforts as training in civic participation, networking, outreach and advocacy, help with the reengineering of business process, assistance with policy design, gender-sensitivity training, business development advice and guidance, supporting fellowships and study tours, and working with local and national governments to address policy and regulatory gaps. The following is a list of recommendations within the categories of: 1) agricultural input suppliers, 2) producers and producer associations, 3) value-added food processors, and 4) marketers.

#### **Input Suppliers**

- Encourage women entrepreneurs to establish agro-enterprises.
- Foster opportunities to link women-owned businesses to each other and to other actors in the value chain through trade fairs, farm demonstrations, and business associations and networks.
- Streamline registration and business licensing processes.
- Identify agricultural technologies and rural services that will reduce women's time constraints but without reducing their labor opportunities.

#### **Producers and Producer Associations**

- Encourage producer organizations to recruit and retain women producers.
- Foster equitable participation in association governance to allow women greater opportunities to join and run associations.
- Identify agricultural technologies and rural services that will reduce women's time, financial, and labor constraints.
- Design mechanisms that reward women's unpaid contribution to private farming.
- Ensure that delivery systems of agricultural services and information reach both men and women.
- Advocate for gender-equitable land policies and for enforcement of existing policies that enhance gender equity.
- Develop programs to provide women with agricultural credit through non-land-based collateral, such as contracts.
- Introduce women entrepreneurs to new opportunities in the agricultural sector, such as providing them with training in organic production, processing, and input supply.

#### **Value-added Food Processors**

- Improve women farmers' access to lower cost or more efficient production, storage, and processing technologies.
- Develop programs to provide women with agricultural credit through non-land-based collateral.

- Strengthen the participation of women in business incubator programs.
- Streamline registration and business licensing processes.
- Develop or strengthen programs that provide business development skills to women.

### **Marketers**

- Facilitate greater linkages between women-owned businesses and the agricultural sector.
- Improve women's ability to trade regionally in agricultural commodities by enhancing women's participation in national and regional trade and commodity networks.
- Develop programs to provide women with agricultural credit through non-land-based collateral, such as contracts.

### **3.5 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR POLICIES, LAWS, AND INSTITUTIONS**

There is a need to improve the policy and regulatory framework to reduce gender wage gaps, eliminate discrimination in hiring and promotion, and promote occupational safety. USAID should support the inclusion of gender analysis and sex-disaggregated data in all policy studies, development plans, and assessments of the agriculture sectors in E&E countries. USAID could play a useful role in policy working groups to facilitate development of gender policies in agriculture, both for government procedures and practices as well as for agricultural enterprises, peasant and private farms, and household plot gardening. These could be related to awareness-building, strategies for building agribusiness and greater income opportunities for women, strategies for building gender-equity, and identification of when women stakeholder consultations are needed.

Policy-makers should prepare new laws and regulations, or amend existing ones, to overcome the constraints faced by women to obtain land rights and to be able to use collateral other than land rights to access loans for farming and agri-business. In addition, there is a need in several E&E countries to open the membership and leadership of water user associations and producer and marketing cooperatives to women. This may require changes in regulations and organizational by-laws.

### **3.6 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR PROGRAM MANAGEMENT**

Given the increasing importance of gender equality and women's empowerment to USAID, there are now incentives to develop gender-responsive agricultural programming in the region. The following set of recommendations suggests opportunities for fostering inclusive program management.

- **Encourage new agricultural and entrepreneurship projects to conduct gender assessments and collect baseline data on men's and women's levels and sources of income and other assets.** Much of the literature on gender issues in agriculture is based on information emerging from Sub-Saharan Africa, South Asia, and Latin America and the Caribbean. There is a lack of literature on gender issues in agriculture that would permit a better understanding of men's and women's roles and responsibilities in the sector, and on interventions that would equitably enhance women's participation and performance in agriculture in E&E. To complement baseline data collection, mid-term and final evaluations would offer points to collect data for comparison. Specific gender analyses are also critical to programmatic success. For example, the Transition to High Value Agriculture Project<sup>10</sup> completed a gender assessment based on a farm survey in order to increase understanding of the local context. This type of analysis should be replicated by projects focusing on agricultural

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<sup>10</sup> For more information, see the Millennium Challenge Account Moldova website: [http://mca.gov.md/en/aim\\_and\\_objectives\\_Tr.html](http://mca.gov.md/en/aim_and_objectives_Tr.html).

production as well as those targeting other agriculture-related activities, from policy to entrepreneurship.

Where private farming and garden plots are a source of agricultural production for the market or home consumption, a detailed picture of the gender dynamics on these plots would help USAID identify avenues for maximizing their potential. In particular, information is needed about women's: (1) access to land, credit, and other productive resources; (2) knowledge and use of market information, fertilizers, and other inputs; (3) participation in agriculture-related associations; and (4) the profitability and productivity of plots under their control.

- **Improve the capacity of program managers to design, manage, and monitor progress toward gender equality in agriculture-related activities.** A number of online tools and resources are available for USAID staff to consult on the topic of gender and agriculture. USAID's AgriLinks and MicroLinks websites increasingly hold webinars that address different topics related to gender, and the World Bank (with support from USAID and the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation) is now piloting an e-learning course developed from the 2009 *Gender in Agriculture Sourcebook*.
- **Integrate attention to gender gaps, progress in agricultural portfolio reviews, and regular meetings with implementing partners working on agricultural projects.** Too often, the discussion of gender issues is left to external consultants and project or Mission gender specialists. Project officers can encourage the discussion of problems in reducing gender gaps, as well as highlight successes in reaching women during reporting meetings. Increasing attention to these issues will emphasize that they are directly related to the achievement of project goals.

### 3.7 RECOMMENDED PRINCIPLES FOR MONITORING AND EVALUATION

The confluence of the new USAID evaluation policy, gender policy, and the Monitoring & Evaluation (M&E) program of Feed the Future provides an excellent opportunity for USAID Missions in the E&E region to build up their skills in gender-related M&E. Many new resources are available to track progress in supporting gender equality and women's empowerment in the agricultural sector. The selection of appropriate indicators will depend on the scope of activities of the specific project. At a minimum, indicators should:

1. Disaggregate by sex all indicators that count individual people involved in all aspects of the value chain, from production and processing to extension and support services, marketing, and transport.
2. Clarify the gender dynamics (resulting from social or cultural norms, laws, regulatory statutes, and other contextual factors) that shape resource allocation and livelihoods at the individual, household, and community levels.
3. Measure, disaggregate by sex, and compare differences in technological adoption rates, labor and time use, income, and productivity.

The Women's Empowerment in Agriculture Index (WEAI) provides useful guidance on where programs can reduce gender gaps and support greater gender equality. The WEAI has two sub-indexes that may be used to measure women's empowerment in the agriculture sector relative to men on the individual, regional, and country level. It aims to increase knowledge about the linkages between women's empowerment, food security, and agricultural growth. Data are collected via household surveys.

The first sub-index measures five domains of empowerment through 10 different indicators. The domains and associated indicators include:

- (1) Production:** (i) input for productive decisions, (ii) autonomy in production;
- (2) Resources:** (iii) ownership of assets, (iv) purchase, sale or transfer of assets, (v) access to and decisions on credit;
- (3) Income:** (vi) control over use of income;
- (4) Leadership:** (vii) group membership, (viii) speaking in public; and
- (5) Time:** (ix) workload, (x) leisure.

Aggregate scores of all the domains reveal women’s empowerment. Empowerment is achieved with a score of 80 percent through an adequate combination of indicators or when empowerment is achieved in 4 out of the 5 domains. The measure also shows when a woman is “sufficiently” empowered in a domain, but not overall.

The second sub-index, the Gender Parity Index (GPI), measures the gender parity within the household between the primary adult male and female decision makers. Households without a primary adult male and female decision maker are not included the GPI. The five domains of empowerment contribute to 90 percent of the aggregate country- or regional-level WEAI and the mean GPI value contributes to the remaining 10 percent (United States Agency for International Development, International Food Policy Research Institute, & Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative, 2012.)

Table 6 below provides illustrative output indicators that can be used to monitor progress toward gender equality in agriculture.

**Table 6: Illustrative Gender-sensitive Output Indicators for Agriculture**

<b>Indicator title</b>	<b>Level of disaggregation</b>
Gross margin per unit of land or animal of selected product (crops/animals selected varies by country)	Commodity, Gendered HH type
Value of incremental sales (collected at farm level) attributed to FTF implementation	Targeted commodities / Sex
Number of additional hectares under improved technologies or management practices as a result of assistance	Sex
Number of farmers and others who have applied new technologies or management practices as a result of assistance	Sex
Number of individuals who have received short-term agricultural sector productivity or food security training	Sex
Number of individuals who have received long-term agricultural sector productivity or food security training	Sex
Number of members of producer organizations and community-based organizations receiving assistance	Sex
Number of rural households benefiting directly from interventions	Gendered HH type
Number of United States Government social assistance beneficiaries participating in productive safety nets	Sex, Type of Asset
Number of vulnerable households benefiting directly from interventions	Gendered HH type
Number of people trained in child health and nutrition through health area programs	Sex
Number of children under five years of age who received vitamin A from programs	Sex
Number of children under five reached by nutrition programs	Sex

Source: Adapted from USAID Feed the Future M&E Guidance Series “Volume 6: Measuring the Gender Impact of Feed the Future.” Available on [www.feedthefuture.gov](http://www.feedthefuture.gov) under “Progress: M&E resources.”

NOTE: The Feed the Future guidance explains the construction of “gendered household type” as follows: “For household (HH) level indicators, data should be disaggregated by “gendered household types,” which are: 1) HH with male and female adults, 2) HH with male adult, no female adult, and 3) HH with female adult, no male adult. This categorization is somewhat different from the standard “male-headed vs. female-headed” households, and the distinction and change is very meaningful. The concept

of “head of household” is loaded with cultural assumptions, presumes certain characteristics that may or may not be present in household gender dynamics, and often reflects the bias of the researcher or respondent. Additionally, the head of household concept may perpetuate existing social relations of inequality and further a prioritization of household responsibilities that is not useful.” (Feed the Future 2011: 1).

Appendix I contains a detailed list of gender-sensitive indicators for economic growth, agriculture, and trade-related activities. These are examples of practical indicators that could be incorporated into a wide range of policies, plans, assessments, and studies. They are about agricultural production patterns, distributions of income, extension services, users of technologies, access to credit, modes of finance, infrastructure, access to resources and services, labor laws, conditions in the workplace, export arrangements and administrative constraints, participation in links of value chains, and business services and training for small and medium enterprises.

### 3.8 SUMMARY OF RECOMMENDATIONS

The following is a summary list of the key recommendations made in this report for gender and the agricultural sectors of E&E countries.

#### RECOMMENDATIONS FOR PROGRAM DESIGN FOR DIFFERENT ENTERPRISES

Table 7 summarizes key recommendations from this report about how aid programs should be designed for different enterprises so as to improve gender equity in agricultural development.

**TABLE 7: Recommendations for Program Design for Different Enterprises**

Type of enterprise	Recommendation
<b>Large agricultural enterprises Processing and/or packing plants</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Upgrade women’s workforce skills.</li> <li>• Design gender-sensitive training for managers and workers.</li> <li>• Improve the policy and regulatory framework to reduce gender wage gaps and discrimination in hiring and promotion and to promote occupational safety.</li> <li>• Develop programs to assist businesses in providing services to women workers and parents.</li> </ul>
<b>Independent private farmers</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Foster equitable participation in decision-making processes, e.g., in producer cooperatives, water user associations.</li> <li>• Identify agricultural technologies and rural services that will reduce women’s working time, as well as their financial and labor constraints.</li> <li>• Design mechanisms that explicitly reward women’s unpaid contribution to private farming.</li> <li>• Ensure delivery systems of agricultural services and information reach both men and women.</li> <li>• Advocate for gender-equitable land policies and for enforcement of existing policies that do provide for gender equity.</li> <li>• Develop programs to provide women with agricultural credit through non-land-based collateral, such as contracts.</li> </ul>
<b>Garden plots</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Disseminate knowledge of nutritional crops suitable for garden plots to women.</li> <li>• Improve access to low-cost production, storage, and processing technologies.</li> </ul>
<b>Women entrepreneurs</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Facilitate greater linkages between women-owned businesses and the agricultural sector.</li> <li>• Strengthen the participation of women in business incubator programs.</li> <li>• Introduce women entrepreneurs to new opportunities in the agricultural sector, e.g., by providing them with training in organic production, processing, and input supply.</li> <li>• Encourage the development of enterprises to support women working in</li> </ul>

Type of enterprise	Recommendation
	<p>agriculture or agriculture-related activities.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Improve women’s ability to trade regionally in agricultural commodities by enhancing women’s participation in national and regional trade and commodity networks.</li> <li>• Develop programs to provide women with agricultural credit through non-land-based collateral.</li> </ul>

### RECOMMENDATIONS FOR PROGRAM DESIGN FOR VALUE CHAIN ACTORS

Table 8 summarizes key recommendations about value chain actors who are engaged in input supplies, producers and producer associations, crop processors and marketers.

**TABLE 8: Recommendations for Program Design for Value Chain Actors**

Value Chain Actor	Recommendation
<b>Input Suppliers</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Encourage women entrepreneurs to establish agro-enterprises.</li> <li>• Expand women’s participation in agricultural education.</li> <li>• Design gender-sensitive training for managers and workers.</li> <li>• Foster opportunities to link women-owned businesses to each other and to other actors in the value chain through trade fairs, farm demonstrations, and business associations and networks.</li> <li>• Improve the policy and regulatory framework to reduce gender wage gaps, discrimination in hiring and promotion, and promote occupational safety.</li> <li>• Develop programs to assist businesses in providing services to women farmers.</li> <li>• Streamline registration and business licensing processes.</li> </ul>
<b>Producers and Producer Associations</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Encourage producer organizations to recruit and retain women producers.</li> <li>• Foster equitable participation in association governance to allow women greater opportunities to join and run associations.</li> <li>• Identify agricultural technologies and rural services that will reduce women’s time, financial, and labor constraints.</li> <li>• Design mechanisms that reward women’s unpaid contribution to private farming.</li> <li>• Ensure that delivery systems of agricultural services and information reach both men and women.</li> <li>• Advocate for gender-equitable land policies and for enforcement of existing policies that do provide for gender equity.</li> <li>• Develop programs to provide women with agricultural credit through non-land-based collateral, such as contracts.</li> <li>• Introduce women entrepreneurs to new opportunities in the agricultural sector, e.g., by providing them with training in organic production, processing, and input supply.</li> </ul>
<b>Processors</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Improving access to lower cost or more efficient production, storage, and processing technologies.</li> <li>• Develop programs to provide women with agricultural credit through non-land-based collateral, such as contracts.</li> <li>• Strengthen the participation of women in business incubator programs.</li> <li>• Streamline registration and business licensing processes.</li> <li>• Develop or strengthen programs that provide business development skills to women.</li> </ul>

Value Chain Actor	Recommendation
Marketers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Facilitate greater linkages between women-owned businesses and the agricultural sector.</li> <li>Improve women's ability to trade regionally in agricultural commodities by enhancing women's participation in national and regional trade and commodity networks.</li> <li>Develop programs to provide women with agricultural credit through non-land-based collateral, such as contracts.</li> </ul>

### RECOMMENDATIONS FOR POLICIES, LAWS AND INSTITUTIONS

Table 9 summarizes key recommendations related to gender opportunity and equity for policy, strategy, law and institutions in the agriculture sectors of E&E countries.

**TABLE 9: Recommendations for Policies, Strategies, Laws, and Institutions**

Type of intervention	Recommendation
Policy & Strategy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Include gender analysis and sex-disaggregated data in policies, studies and development plans.</li> <li>Facilitate policy working groups for development of gender policies in agriculture.</li> <li>Promote gender awareness-building, strategies for building agribusiness and greater income opportunities for women, strategies for building gender equity, and gender stakeholder consultations.</li> </ul>
Law & Regulations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Reduce discrimination in hiring and promotion.</li> <li>Overcome constraints against women to obtain land rights.</li> <li>Enable use of collateral other than land rights to access loans for farming and agri-business.</li> <li>Amend regulations and by-laws on water user associations and producer and marketing organizations to enable women to become members and officers.</li> </ul>
Institutions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Support women's membership and leadership in water user associations.</li> <li>Support women's membership and leadership in producer and marketing cooperatives.</li> <li>Build networks, support mechanisms, and training organizations to assist women-owned agribusinesses.</li> </ul>

### RECOMMENDATIONS FOR PROGRAM MANAGEMENT

Table 10 provides recommendations for how to improve USAID program management for projects and programs related to gender equity and opportunity in agricultural development.

**TABLE 10: Recommendations for Program Management**

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Require new agricultural and entrepreneurship programs to conduct gender assessments and collect baseline data on men's and women's levels and sources of income and other assets.</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Improve the skills of program managers to design, manage, and monitor progress toward gender equality in agriculture-related activities.</li> </ul>

## RECOMMENDED PRINCIPLES FOR GENDER-AWARE PROJECT MONITORING AND EVALUATION

Table II summarizes key recommendations for principles that should be applied when designing and implementing gender sensitive project monitoring and evaluation.

**TABLE II: Recommended Principles for Gender-aware Project Monitoring and Evaluation**

• Disaggregate by sex all indicators that count individuals.
• Measure progress using indicators at multiple levels of impact.
• Use household- and individual-level indicators to clarify the gender dynamics that shape resource allocation and livelihoods.
• Develop indicators that measure, disaggregate by gender, and compare differences in adoption rates, labor and time use, income, and productivity.

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# **APPENDIX I: GENDER-SENSITIVE INDICATORS FOR ECONOMIC GROWTH, AGRICULTURE, AND TRADE-RELATED ACTIVITIES<sup>11</sup>**

## **Changing Agricultural Production Patterns and Increasing Income**

- Number and percentage of entrepreneurs who move into a higher part of the value chain, disaggregated by sex.
- Number and percentage of participants cultivating cash crops, disaggregated by sex.
- Number and percentage of producers who adopt new cash crops, disaggregated by sex.
- Changes in income for producers of new crops, disaggregated by sex.
- Change in household nutritional status.
- Change in women's or household income.
- Number of economic activities developed that are home based.
- Number of women who become engaged in new home-based economic activities.
- Change in women's or household's consumption.
- Analysis of time use by rural producers, disaggregated by sex.

## **Extension services, technologies, and finance**

- Number of new extension agents hired, disaggregated by sex.
- Number of users of technology, disaggregated by sex.
- Wages for workers in new positions (post-training) compared to former positions.
- Number of women who gained/retained a traditional position within the sector.
- Number of new livelihood opportunities developed, disaggregated by sex.
- Number and value of loans to small producers, disaggregated by sex.
- Number and percentage of new bank officers hired, disaggregated by sex.

## **Infrastructure and Rural Services**

- Number of hours spent collecting fuel or water before and after project initiated, disaggregated by sex.
- Quantitative change in hours of household labor by time and task allocation, disaggregated by sex.
- Number of bicycle owners, disaggregated by sex.
- Number of bus riders on women-only buses.
- Number of women who report increased mobility after project launched.
- Number of users of water/energy, disaggregated by sex.

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11. Adapted from: [http://transition.usaid.gov/our\\_work/cross-cutting\\_programs/wid/pubs/Gender\\_Sensitive\\_Indicators\\_2.pdf](http://transition.usaid.gov/our_work/cross-cutting_programs/wid/pubs/Gender_Sensitive_Indicators_2.pdf)

### **Labor Laws and Workplace Conditions**

- Reports of labor law violations, disaggregated by sector and sex of worker.
- Number of workers who go to legal projects for assistance, disaggregated by sector and sex.
- Reports of gender-based, labor rights violations by sector, by sex.
- Number of factories that adopt gender-specific codes of conduct.
- Changes in knowledge, attitudes, and behaviors related to living wage campaigns.
- Number of female and male leaders involved in living wage campaigns.

### **Export-Oriented Clusters and Value Chains**

- Number of exporters entering new clusters, disaggregated by sex.
- Average sales of women- and men-owned export businesses by sector and size of business.
- Number of workers employed in sectors per year, disaggregated by sex (after workforce development activities).
- Salaries of workers employed per year, disaggregated by sector, sex and job category (after workforce development activities).
- Number of “female value chains” developed by sector.
- Change in income of women engaged in value chains of selected crops, including women-dominated chains, measured annually.
- Marketing practices adopted by enterprises as evidenced by business plans, reorganization, product design, and pricing and strategic linkages with other firms or subsectors, disaggregated by the size of enterprise and sex of owner.
- Number of women entrepreneurs involved in creation of web portals for women.
- Number of links established with Fair Trade organizations for women’s goods and annual sales from Fair Trade contracts.
- Number of links/contracts established with other entrepreneurs to form a women’s goods cluster, and annual sales from this link.
- Annual sales for women artisans via the Internet (e-commerce), in person, at markets, in stores, and through other channels.
- Annual sales from contracts with supermarkets, disaggregated by sex of exporter.

### **Reduction of Customs-related Operational and Administrative Constraints**

- Number of exporters in the country, disaggregated by sex.
- Number of policy measures implemented to address costs of customs procedures and constraints on poor producers.
- Number of women’s groups, associations, and women leaders engaged in advocacy for pro-poor customs policies.
- Number of users of online customs forms, disaggregated by sex.
- Number of customs forms processed online, disaggregated by sex.

### **Business Services and Training for SMES**

- Number of new entrants entering the SME sector assisted by project, disaggregated by sex.
- Percentage of ownership of businesses disaggregated by sex of owner and sector.
- Average size of loans by sector and size of business, disaggregated by sex of business owner.
- Number of women's associations created or assisted.
- Number of gender-sensitive policies implemented in areas that will assist entrepreneurs.
- Number of loans dispersed through funding mechanism.
- Number of clients who receive loans, disaggregated by sex.
- Number of clients who receive pre- and post-investment counseling, disaggregated by sex.
- Number of clusters developed that present opportunities for women owners and workers.
- Number of workers employed per year, disaggregated by sex.
- Salaries of workers employed in cluster, disaggregated by sex and job category.
- Number of onsite daycares provided.