

MAKERERE UNIVERSITY

GENDER AND AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT

Study guide prepared for the Bachelor of
Science in Agriculture program,
Makerere University

DECEMBER 2024



MAKERERE UNIVERSITY



GREAT
GENDER-RESPONSIVE
RESEARCHERS
EQUIPPED FOR
AGRICULTURAL
TRANSFORMATION



CGIAR

GENDER
Platform

Contributors:

Losira Nasirumbi Sanya, Okech Moses, Mitala Yekosan, Florence Birungi Kyazze, Nabushawo Mutambo Harriet, and Elizabeth Asiimwe.

Design:

Kimbugwe Fredrick

Recommended Citation:

Sanya N.L., Okech M., Yekosan M., Kyazze F. B., Nabushawo M. H., Asiimwe E. (2024).

Gender and Agricultural Development. Study guide prepared for the Bachelor of Science in Agriculture program, Makerere University. Kampala, Uganda

The views expressed in this publication are those of the contributors and do not necessarily represent those of Makerere University or the CGIAR Gender Platform.

Reusers can distribute, remix, adapt, and build upon the material in any medium or format, for non commercial purposes only.

Acknowledgement

“This work was carried out under the CGIAR GENDER Impact Platform, which is grateful for the support of CGIAR Trust Fund contributors: www.cgiar.org/funders.”

Contents

LECTURE 1	9
INTRODUCTION TO GENDER	9
1.1 Introduction	9
1.2 Defining Sex and Gender	9
1.3 Defining other Gender Related concepts	13
1.3 Defining other Gender Related concepts	18
LECTURE 2	27
Gender Social System	27
2.1 Introduction	27
2.2 How the Gender System is Learnt and Reproduced	28
LECTURE 3	30
UNDERSTANDING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN GENDER AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT	30
3.1 Introduction	30
3.2 Why Gender is a Development Issue	31
3.3 Development and Its Measurement	31
3.4 Placing gender in agricultural development	33
LECTURE 4	38
WHY GENDER MATTERS IN AGRICULTURE AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT	38
4.1 Introduction	38
4.2 Gendered nature of agricultural practices	38
4.3 Agriculture and Rural Development	39
4.4 Constraints to rural agricultural development	39
LECTURE 5	43
A THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVE OF THE GLOBAL GENDER AND DEVELOPMENT TRAJECTORY	43
5.1 Introduction	43
5.2 Waves of feminism	44
5.3 UN Women and Inclusion	45
LECTURE 6	48
GENDER APPROACHES TO DEVELOPMENT	48
6.1 Introduction	48
6.2 Women in Development Approach	48
6.3 Gender and Agricultural Development	50
6.4 Men and masculinities	52
6.5 Gender Transformative Approaches	53
LECTURE 7	55

INTRODUCTION TO GENDER ISSUES IN AGRICULTURAL VALUE CHAIN	55
7.1 Introduction	55
7.2 Gender Issues	55
7.3 Agricultural Value Chain	56
7.4 Elements of a Value Chain	57
7.5 Importance of Gender Perspectives in Understanding Agricultural Value Chains Gender Differences in Value Chain Participation	58
7.6 Identifying Gender Issues in Agricultural Value Chains	59
LECTURE 8:	63
GENDER ISSUES IN LAND USE IN AGRICULTURE AND THEIR IMPLICATIONS FOR AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT	63
8.1 Introduction	63
8.2 Critical gender issues related to land ownership and usage	63
8.3 Implications of Gender Issues for Agricultural Development	64
LECTURE 9:	66
GENDER ISSUES IN AGROFORESTRY AND THEIR IMPLICATIONS FOR AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT	66
9.1 Introduction	66
9.2 Challenges that women face in participating fully in agroforestry	66
9.3 Implications of Gender Issues for Agroforestry	67
LECTURE 10:	69
GENDER ISSUES IN LIVESTOCK MANAGEMENT AND THEIR IMPLICATIONS FOR AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT	69
10.1 Introduction	69
10.2 Gender issues in Livestock Management	69
10.3 Implications of Gender Issues in Livestock	70
LECTURE 11	72
GENDER ISSUES IN AGRICULTURAL SERVICE DELIVERY AND THEIR IMPLICATIONS FOR AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT	72
11.1 Introduction	72
11.2 Gender Issues in Agricultural Extension Delivery	72
11.3 Gender issues in agricultural profession	75
11.4 Gender Issues in ICT and digitalization	76
11.5 Gender Issues in Agro-input supply	77
11.6 Gender Issues in agro-credit and financial services	77
11.7 Implications of gender issues in service delivery	80

LECTURE 12	82
GENDER ISSUES IN AGRICULTURAL MARKETING AND ENTREPRENEURSHIP, AND THEIR IMPLICATIONS FOR AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT	82
12.1 Introduction	82
12.2 Gender Issues in Agricultural Marketing	82
12.3 Impacts of Gender Issues in Agricultural Marketing	83
12.4 Gender issues in Entrepreneurship	83
LECTURE 13	85
INTRODUCTION TO SOCIAL AND GENDER ANALYSIS	85
13.1 Introduction	85
13.2 Social analysis	85
13.3 Gender analysis	85
13.4 Sex-disaggregated data	86
13.5 The relevance of social and gender analysis in policy, programming and project interventions	88
13.6 Intersectionality in gender and social analysis	89
13.7 The value of considering intersectionality	89
13.8 Dimensions (elements) of social and gender analysis	89
13.9 How to conduct social and gender analysis	92
LECTURE 13	95
INTRODUCTION TO GENDER ANALYSIS FRAMEWORKS AND TOOLS	95
14.1 Introduction	95
14.2 The Harvard Analytical Framework	96
14.3 Gender Analysis Matrix (GAM)	97
14.4 The Moser Framework	99
14.5 Women's Equality and Empowerment Framework	101
LECTURE 15	103
GENDER BASED CONSTRAINTS AND OPPORTUNITIES	103
15.1 Introduction	103
15.2 Gender-based constraints	103
15.3 Gender-based opportunities	104
15.4 Women empowerment	104
LECTURE 16	108
STRATEGIES FOR ADDRESSING GENDER BASED CONSTRAINTS	108
16.1 Introduction	108
16.2 Women's Agency in Rural Development	108
16.3 Women's Empowerment Framework in Practice in Uganda	109
16.4 Women Empowerment Strategies and Indicators	110

Abbreviations and acronyms

AVC	Agricultural Value Chain
GAD	Gender and Agricultural Development
GBCs	Gender-Based Constraints
GBOs	Gender Based Opportunities
GENDER	Generating Evidence and New Directions for Equitable Results impact platform
GREAT	Gender-responsive Researchers Equipped for Agricultural Transformation project
GTA	Gender Transformative Approaches
IFPRI	International Food Policy Research Institute
ILO	Intended Learning Outcome
Mak	Makerere University
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
PGNs	Practical gender needs
RBE	Reach, Benefit and Empower framework
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
SGNs	Strategic gender needs
WID	Women in Development

Introduction

Welcome to the course, *Gender and Agricultural Development*. It is a CORE (required) course for the **Bachelor of Science in Agriculture**. As you will note, gender is a critical aspect of every sphere of life including the social, political and economic. Empirical evidence shows that gender has significant implications on sustainable development. In this course, you will be able to learn the difference between the concept gender and sex, gain clarity on how our social cultural systems contribute to gender inequality thus undermining sustainable development. The course will enable you understand the historical roots and evolution of gender and development theories and approaches and be able to carry out gender analysis of communities and development programs. Ultimately, you will develop skills to integrate gender into agricultural interventions so as enhance to impact.

Course Description

This course raises awareness on why gender matters in agricultural development. It equips you with knowledge on the basic gender concepts and theories relevant to agricultural development. It creates awareness on the role of gender in food systems, agricultural innovations, agribusiness, agricultural resource utilization and management. It traces the trajectory of how gender integration in development has evolved globally over time; provides an overview of how gender shapes and influences innovation, agriculture and food systems in Sub-Saharan Africa. The course also covers gender issues, gender-based constraints in agricultural value chains and gender analysis, and discusses effective strategies for gender responsive agricultural development interventions.

Learning Outcomes

By the end of the course, you should be able to;

1. Define gender and related concepts
2. Explain the historical roots and evolution of gender and development approaches
3. Analyze gender-based constraints in agriculture value chains
4. Conduct gender analysis of agricultural communities and programs
5. Develop effective strategies for addressing gender-based constraints in agriculture
6. Demonstrate a positive attitude towards gender responsiveness at a personal and professional level.

Summary of Study Topics

1. Introduction to the course and Gender concepts
2. How gender is learnt and reproduced (*The social system*)
3. Understanding the relationship between gender and development
4. Why gender matters in agriculture
5. Gender and development trajectory
6. Gender approaches to development
7. Introduction to gender issues in Agricultural Value Chains
8. Gender issues in agricultural production and their implications for development
9. Gender issues in agricultural service delivery and their implications for development
10. Gender issues in agricultural marketing and entrepreneurship, and their implications for development

11. Introduction to social and gender analysis
12. Gender Analysis frameworks and tools
13. Gender-based constraints and opportunities in agricultural systems
14. Strategies for addressing gender-based constraints

Course Unit Assessment

Your progress during this course will be assessed in different forms including *participation* in tasks, ability to *complete the assignments* during the course, and undertake an *examination* that shall be given at the end of the course. A feedback evaluation will also be done to help improve future sessions for the course unit. In summary, the course evaluation will be as follows:

■ Progressive and reflective assessments	30
■ Written and tutor-marked assignments (Quizzes and Tests):	30
■ University Examination:	40
Total	100

DETAILED COURSE CONTENT

LECTURE 1

INTRODUCTION TO GENDER

1.1 Introduction

In our lives, we often hear the words “sex” and “gender”, and many of us have been asked about our sex at some point. But do we ever really understand the difference between the two? Do we know what each term means and how it shapes our lives? These concepts play an important role in defining our identities, experiences, and interactions with the world around us. In this section, we will explore these concepts and other important terms used in gender discussions, helping us gain a deeper understanding of how they influence our daily lives and societal norms. I am sure you have heard the president or a minister use some of these words to explain social challenges or goals attained in a speech.

Intended Learning Outcomes



By the end of this lecture, you should be able to:

- (i) Explain gender concepts and the relationship between them.
- (ii) Discuss the linkages between gender and development
- (iii) Distinguish between common concepts and words used in gender studies and practice

1.2 Defining Sex and Gender



Activity 1.1:

The terms “Sex” and “Gender” are commonly used in discussions.
Write the definitions of “sex” and “gender”.

In your definitions, you may have used the definition for “gender” and “sex” interchangeably, thinking the two mean the same thing. Below, the two concepts are defined and detailed description with illustrated examples shared. Table 1 below also provides a clear distinction between the two terms.

Distinction between sex and gender

Sex refers to the biological differences between males and females based on morphological features. In many species, two broad categories based on these attributes are exhibited. For instance, in plants, male flowers consist of stamens made up of filaments and anthers that produce pollen grains, while female flowers have ovaries containing ovules, as well as stigmas and styles for pollen reception. Similarly, in humans, biological differences manifest right from fertilization, where males typically originate from gametes with X and Y chromosomes (XY), while females originate from two X chromosomes (XX). These differences are immediately portrayed during fetal development, and with advances in science, mothers can identify the sex of the baby children before birth using modern technologies like ultrasound scans. These physical differences in genitalia are assessed by doctors at birth, allowing a child to be identified as either female or male on their first document, the birth certificate. As the child grows, these differences can be identified as early as two weeks, and they progressively develop. At puberty, these distinctions become even more pronounced, with males typically developing beards, a deeper voice, increased muscle size, and broader shoulders, while females develop breasts, start to menstruate, experience wider hips, and undergo changes in body fat distribution, resulting in rounder faces and a softer body contour.

**Note it!**

Sex refers to the biological differences between males and females based on morphological features

Gender refers to how males and females of varying age groups are categorized as boys, girls, men, and women in different societies.

Before ultrasound scan technologies became popular, many mothers shopping at the excitement of expecting a baby ended up having it wrong. Many of us have embarrassing childhood photos, dressed in clothes of the opposite sex. However, of late, mothers can rush to baby store shops or local markets and selectively buy clothes for now the gender of the sex of the baby. This selective buying of clothes based on sex marks the beginning of the manifestation of societal expectations for these two sexes.

As the baby turns into a child it is taught to behave in specific ways: boys should not cry, while girls are expected to be humble and submissive, often required to kneel, whereas kneeling for boys is not acceptable. Girls are discouraged from riding bicycles, and climbing high places like walls. I hope you get the symbolism in the last example. At this point, we can identify that one group is facing many restrictions, while the other may be having some benefits or privileges already.

These differences also manifest in household chores, in that while boys fetch water and slash when bushes around the home grow thicker, girls are expected to cook daily, mop the house when it gets dirty, and wash clothes for the household. As they mature, these differences extend into society, with men and women doing different jobs, and having different privileges. From this, we see that gender revolves around societal constructions of these groups. As the course progresses, we will explore what shapes these differences and their impact on agricultural development. In brief, gender refers to the socially constructed differences between boys, men, girls, and women in a given society. These differences manifest in the status they hold, the responsibilities assigned to them, their access to resources and power, and the opportunities and privileges bestowed upon them based on their gender category. It is gender that determines how women and men, boys and girls are perceived, and how they are expected to think and act to fit into the organization of society. These socially assigned attributes differ from one society to another. Take, for example, the Asante (or Ashanti) of Ghana and the Minangkabau of Sumatra, Indonesia, where women inherit status and property directly from their mothers—something many women elsewhere cannot dream of or imagine. Furthermore, gender changes over time. When comparing the Ugandan woman of the 1960s to the Ugandan woman of today, there is a notable difference, starting with how they dress. Today, woman can wear trousers, move around freely, and speak openly, whereas the 1960 woman was confined to their home, dressed in a long large dress or gomesi, and was not allowed to speak unless no man was present.

**Note it!**

Gender revolves around societal constructions of these groups. It refers to the socially constructed differences between boys, men, girls, and women in a given society. These differences manifest in the status they hold, the responsibilities assigned to them, their access to resources and power, and the opportunities and privileges bestowed upon them based on their gender category



Case study on Gender

MERCY KILLINGS HOMICIDES TO SAVE BABIES FROM BURDENS OF WOMANHOOD

A mother's love for a child is one of the most universally agreed-upon phenomena across different societies. But what could possibly drive a mother to kill her own child? Upon

delivery, an examination of the newborn's genitals occurs to establish the child's sex, and the news spreads like wildfire to relatives and friends. The mother smiles, and as Judith Babirye put in her 2011 Hit Song Mama, mothers stop feeling the pain of birth upon seeing their newborn. However, what happens when the survival of the child depends on its

genitalia? In many parts of India, infanticides and foeticides have occurred silently for

centuries. Foeticide refers to the killing of a baby before birth, while infanticide is the killing of newborn female babies. Female infanticide in India can be overt, with mothers or nurses infusing poisons like opium or feeding the babies excessive salt immediately after birth. Some may pay midwives to inject the baby with lethal doses of insulin. Less direct means involve neglecting girl babies until they succumb to starvation or infections a few days after birth. With the rise of ultrasound scans, mothers in India are aborting more female fetuses than males.

In this patriarchal society, boys are valued as breadwinners who earn money while women remain at home, taking care of families and working the fields to support the household. Family work isn't valued, and women often face physical abuse for preparing food late or taking a nap after a long day in the rice fields. The fear of dowry compels some mothers to save their innocent daughters from the burdens of womanhood. In India, families of girls must provide gifts like jewelry, cash and land to the boy's family for marriage which often leads to pressure on the girl's family. Indian weddings symbolize fulfillment, drawing clan members from all walks of life and often being comparably costly to Ugandan weddings. As the marriage market becomes increasingly competitive, the financial burden of marrying off a girl child has intensified. Negotiations can be lengthy, with the boy's side emphasizing how kind they are to accept the burden of the girl. It's not uncommon for a girl to leave negotiations in tears after a wealthier family presents a better deal.

This has led to a shortage of available women due to years of natural selection, causing anger against women, which is sometimes expressed through violence. India ranks high in cases of rape and trafficking, with reports of women, particularly young girls, being trafficked from poorer regions. Middlemen often purchase these women, only to sell them to clients. Additionally, many Indian men engage in online abuse, paying substantial amounts for women to undress live on camera.

Similarly, in Uganda, where bride price is paid to the girl's family, the impacts of this practice remain the same on the girl child. Girl babies are referred to as kasukaali, linked to dowry payments, where men offer bags of sugar, local beers, traditional kiganda attire such as kanzu, and gomesi to the girl's family. Wedding programs on television stations labeled as 'Embaga n'emikolo' have made the marriage market more competitive as the Ugandan middle and upper class families pay large sums to show extravagant weddings to the entire nation as signs of achievement. Young girls bought off at high values post these on social media statuses to portray their worth to peers who later run after older men, promising to make them dream weddings negating previous efforts in fighting HIVAIDS.

As weddings become increasingly commercialized, dowry now includes televisions, cars, water tanks, solar systems and refrigerators. Consequently, many families choose not to send girl children to school, resulting in lower completion rates for girls compared to boys at higher education levels. Parents often view girls as commodities unworthy of formal education and send them to aunts (sengas) who teach them domestic roles, such as preparing meals for their husbands and caring for children. Sengas on a local television called Bukedde TV make it clear that girls' success depends not on education but on mastering the dark arts to satisfy the sexual desires of their men. Men are taught to be tough and authoritative by beating their wives, and denying women the opportunity to work is glorified with cultural and religious connotations.

It's common to see women peeling matooke in groups on mats in banana plantations during communal functions. Women traditionally engage in productive roles like digging which are taught to girls and passed on from generation to another through Kiganda

folklore, such as the story of Njabala, a bride who, not having been taught to dig, failed in her expected role of digging as a wife. The mother's ghost is said to come back to dig for the untrained child.

Domestic violence persists in many parts of Uganda, as men view women as

commodities. Men act as gatekeepers, preventing women from working, reinforcing the

notion that women are assets. Recent efforts to legislate against dowry have largely failed due to a male-dominated parliament fearing the loss of control over women and female legislators worrying about losing support from voters who benefit from the patriarch.


REFLECTION QUESTIONS

- (i) Discuss the concepts of sex and gender with reference to the Indian and Ugandan contexts as described in the story.
- (ii) Identify and discuss the gender roles assigned to women in both India and Uganda.
- (iii) How do social, cultural, and economic systems perpetuate gender inequality in these societies?
- (iv) In what ways does the marginalization of women affect the short-term and long-term development of society?
- (v) How do gender expectations in both contexts influence individuals' choices and societal outcomes?
- (vi) Deliver a five-minute speech convincing women in India not to kill baby girls.
- (vii) As an agricultural officer in a community where girls are married off at a young age, outline ten points you would use to convince locals not to marry off their young daughters.

NOTE: These questions are for better learning, you are not required to submit the solutions.

1.3 Defining other Gender Related concepts

As we delve further into the understanding of gender, there are several concepts that relate to gender and which help us understand how gender is perceived. Activity 1.2 provides us with a starting point.

Activity 1.2: Reflection on gender concepts		
Before starting to read the contents in the section, write three definitions of each of the following terms:		
	(i) sex roles	(iv) social norms
	(ii) gender roles	(v) gender norms
	(iii) gender relations	(vi) socialization
	(vii) gender discrimination	(viii) gender oppression
		(ix) gender equity
		(x) gender equality

As you were completing the activity, you should have got a better understanding of the diverse spectrum of gender identities and expressions, and how these concepts interrelate and differ from one another. This foundational knowledge will help you engage more thoughtfully and inclusively with gender-related topics.

In different societies, there are **social norms**, acceptable ways of doing things that all people are expected to follow. Some of these norms, or ways of normality, are spelled out clearly, and people can easily identify them. However, many are informal rules that are not clearly outlined, yet they are widely understood and followed by members of that society. For example, most people know that greeting others is considered polite, so we greet each other. We smile when we meet strangers because this is part of accepted social behavior.

These social norms are deeply rooted in belief systems, and members within that society adopt them because they believe them better, or simply because they learned them from a young age through a process of **socialization**. Some of these norms are reinforced through rewards and punishments, especially during this process of socialization. Even in formal systems, such as workplaces or schools, there are norms that are widely accepted and followed. These norms are reproduced through socialization processes, meaning they are passed down from one lot of people to the next.

Among these social norms are **gender norms**, specific expectations regarding how boys, girls, men, and women should behave. For example, men are expected to be strong and assertive, while boys are seen as playful and sometimes mischievous. Girls are expected to be humble, responsible, and obedient, while women are generally expected to be nurturing and caring. When someone behaves outside of these expected roles, it can cause surprise or even outrage. For example, if a woman takes on a role traditionally associated with men, people may question, "How could a woman do that?" Similarly, if a man takes on tasks seen as women's work, it may lead to confusion or judgment.

people may question, “How could a woman do that?” Similarly, if a man takes on tasks seen as women’s work,



In-Text Question:

In any community well known to you, can you identify some gender roles ascribed to women and girls?

Sex roles are biological functions and reproductive capacities assigned to males and females based on their physiology. For females, sex roles include the production of female gametes (ova), childbearing, which includes conceiving, carrying a pregnancy, and giving birth, as they have a womb, and breastfeeding, facilitated by their ability to produce milk. For males, sex roles involve the production of male gametes (sperm) and fertilization, which provides the necessary gametes for conception to occur. Sex roles are universally consistent and rooted in biology, and they don’t change over time.

Gender roles refer to the tasks and responsibilities deemed appropriate for women and men, as reflected in socio-cultural norms and beliefs. For example, in many African cultures, girls are often responsible for cooking food, washing utensils, and keeping the home clean, while boys fetch water and care for animals. These roles are typically learned during childhood and can evolve over time due to social and political changes that arise from altered opportunities, such as increased access to education. For instance, women who have achieved high levels of education are more likely to move away from traditional roles in the kitchen to take on more supportive roles, such as paying tuition and buying food—responsibilities that were previously assigned to men. Changes in the economic environment or periods of social upheaval, including disasters, wars, or post-conflict situations, can also influence the evolution of gender roles.

Gender norms include **gender relations**, how boys, girls, men and women should interact with each other, including who controls resources, who benefits from opportunities, and who should take on more specific roles. These differences in expectations often result in varying treatment for men, women, boys, and girls. These gender norms are embedded within a community’s broader social norms.

From these norms, gender discrimination arises, the preferential or restrictive treatment of one sex over another, where one group is disadvantaged because the other is favored. Gender discrimination can be **covert discrimination** where hidden or subtle actions that are not immediately recognizable to either the person discriminating or the victim. For example, women might be passed over for promotions without an obvious reason, or their contributions in a professional setting might be minimized, making it difficult to detect the bias at first. On the other hand, **overt discrimination** is more explicit and easily recognizable. This form of discrimination is clear, deliberate, and publicly expressed, such as when women are outright banned from attending events or denied specific job opportunities based on their gender.

Another type is **individual discrimination**, which involves isolated incidents where an individual makes decisions that favor one gender over another. For example, a father might give more resources to his son over his daughter, or a hiring manager might refuse to promote a woman, despite her qualifications. On the other hand, **structural discrimination** is more deeply rooted and reflects how society is organized. It encompasses societal norms, policies, and practices that systematically disadvantage women, such as lower wages for female-dominated professions or cultural expectations that women take on unpaid domestic roles. Related to this is **institutional discrimination** where discriminatory practices are embedded within organizations, institutions, or policies. For instance, a workplace that systematically denies maternity leave to female employees engages in institutional discrimination.

Gender Roles

Gender roles refer to the socially expected behaviors and responsibilities assigned to men and women based on social expectations and contextual factors. Roles of men and women are classified under three broad categories: **Productive, Reproductive, and Community management roles**. These are defined in the Table below:



Source:

<https://www.centerforfinancialinclusion.org/gender-norms-on-and-off-the-farm-engaging-smallholder-women-in-finance-and-climate-smart-agriculture>

Productive roles

- Refers to work done which contributes to the income and economic welfare of the household and community including the production of goods and services for income or subsistence
- This nature of work is done by both women and men in exchange for payment
- Typically involves activities in the formal labor market or other income-generating endeavors
- Varied occupations and professions fall under this category
- Recognized as contributing to the economic output and development of society



Source: GREAT Project

Reproductive roles

- Refers to work done which is required to guarantee the maintenance and well-being of all family members. This type of work is mostly unpaid thus less valued yet important.
- It includes child-rearing responsibilities, care activities and domestic tasks.
- Primarily performed by individuals within the family unit
- Often unpaid or undervalued in terms of monetary compensation



Source:

<https://cdn.ghanaweb.com/imagelib/pics/309/30995186.jpg>

Community Management roles

Primarily focuses on the management and provision of resources

Aims to ensure the functioning and well-being of the community as a whole

Includes activities such as organizing public services, infrastructure development, and resource allocation

Essential for the sustainability and growth of the community



Note:

Although all these roles have to be played side by side with engagement from both men and women, existing evidence indicates that women perform more of reproductive roles (i.e. unpaid care work) as compared to men (see **Figure 1**).

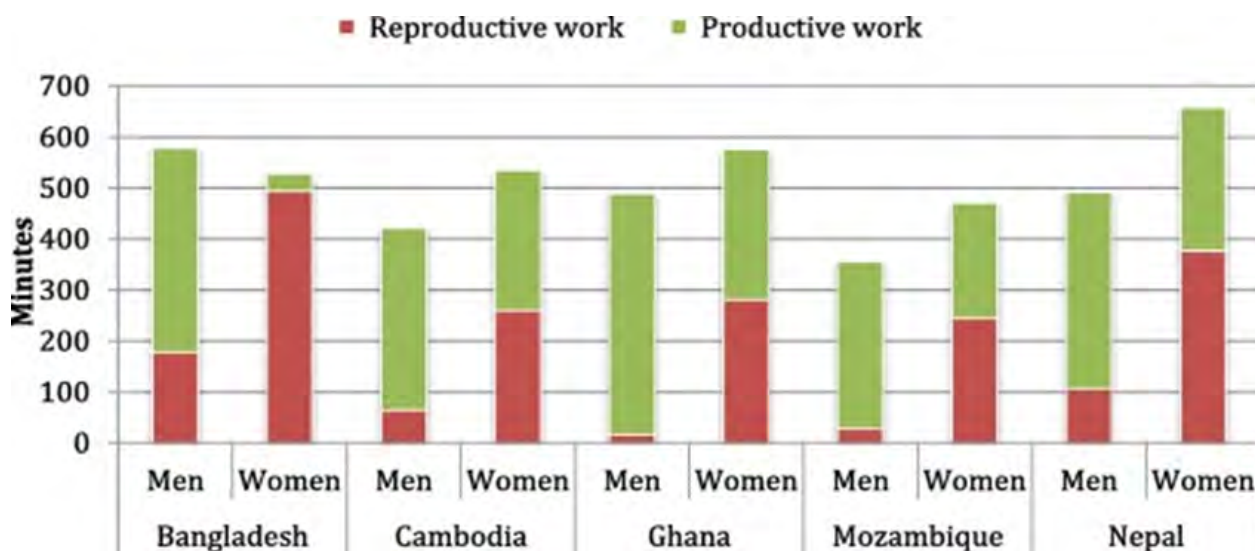


Figure 1: Time spent in productive and reproductive roles by women and men

Source: Komatsu, Malapit and Theis (2018)

This Figure shows that women spend more time on reproductive work than men, and less time on productive work. In most cases, the heavy engagement of women in unpaid care work limits their ability to engage in profitable work. The gender gap in time spent on reproductive and productive roles has a number of implications for women’s economic and social well-being and consequently uptake of agricultural innovations.

Gender Stereotypes

Gender stereotypes are generalized beliefs or assumptions about the characteristics, roles, and behaviors that are considered appropriate for men and women. These stereotypes often create rigid expectations about how men and women should behave and what they can or cannot do.

The figure below explains the concept of gender stereotype and stereotyping:

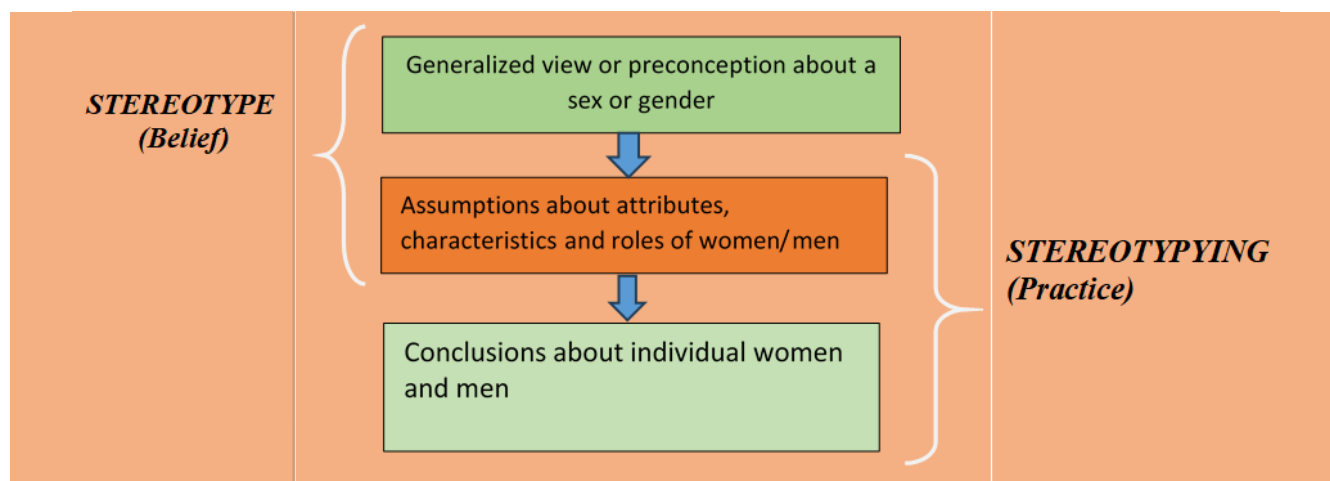


Figure 2: Gender stereotypes and gender stereotyping process

How Gender Stereotypes Arise

Gender stereotypes are embedded in the cultural norms and traditions of societies. For centuries, many cultures assigned distinct roles to men and women. Men were often seen as protectors and providers, while women were viewed as caretakers and homemakers. These long-standing roles have led to deeply rooted assumptions about the abilities and traits of men and women. Socialization plays a key role in the formation of gender stereotypes. From an early age, boys and girls are encouraged to behave according to traditional gender roles. Boys might be pushed towards physical activities and leadership roles, while girls are taught to be nurturing and cooperative. These early messages contribute to how children see themselves and their capabilities.

The media plays a role in shaping and reinforcing gender stereotypes. In television shows, movies, advertisements, and even children's books, men are frequently portrayed in leadership or aggressive roles, while women are often depicted in domestic or emotional roles, which normalizes stereotypes.

Religious teachings and historical contexts have also played a part in establishing traditional gender roles. In many religious texts, men are portrayed as authority figures, while women are encouraged to be obedient and supportive. These messages continue to influence gender roles in many societies today. Institutions, such as educational systems and workplaces, also perpetuate gender stereotypes. In many cases, men are more likely to be seen in leadership roles, and women are more likely to be in caregiving or supportive roles, reinforcing the stereotype that men are more suited for decision-making, while women are better at nurturing.



In-text question

From the text above, what are the examples of gender stereotypes in any community well known to you?

Examples of Gender Stereotypes

Women are naturally nurturing and better suited for caregiving roles: This stereotype assumes that women are better at taking care of children and the elderly, which leads to more women being expected to stay home and manage domestic tasks.

Women are emotional and overly sensitive, which suggests that women are driven by their emotions and are less capable of making rational decisions, particularly in leadership.

Women are physically weaker than men, with an assumption that women lack the physical strength or stamina for physically demanding jobs, such as construction or military roles.


Women are less interested in science, technology, engineering, and math (STEM), which assumes that women are naturally less inclined towards fields like engineering or computer science, which has contributed to the underrepresentation of women in these fields.

Women are better at multitasking than men. Even though this stereotype may seem positive, it often leads to women being assigned more domestic or clerical tasks, assuming they can handle multiple responsibilities at once.

Men are providers and should be the breadwinners. This stereotype assumes that men must take on the financial responsibility for their families, which can create pressure for men to prioritize work over family or personal

Table 1: Distinctions between Gender and Sex

Sex (male/female)	Gender (men/women)
Biologically defined and genetically acquired differences between males and females	Socially defined and culturally learned differences between men and women (masculinity femininity)
Biological characteristics	Socially constructed/expected set of roles, responsibilities, behaviors associated with being a girl and boy or women and men
Defines males and females independently of each other	Defines men and women with reference to the socio-cultural power relations between them (entitlements, positions)
The definition is universal	Definitions of men and women varies from place to place/ over time/ context



Summary

You have been able to reflect that there is a distinct difference between sex and gender. While **sex** refers to the biological difference between males and females and is naturally assigned e.g being a mother; **gender** is a social construct that defines the way people see themselves but also sets standards on expectation of behavior, for instance, boys being told to '*be strong like a man*', to imply men don't cry easily or show pain.

1.3 Defining other Gender Related concepts

As you were completing the activity, you should have got a better understanding of the diverse spectrum of gender identities and expressions, and how these concepts interrelate and differ from one another. This foundational knowledge will help you engage more thoughtfully and inclusively with gender-related topics.

In different societies, there are social norms, acceptable ways of doing things that all people are expected to follow. Some of these norms, or ways of normality, are spelled out clearly, and people can easily identify them. However, many are informal rules that are not clearly outlined, yet they are widely understood and followed by members of that society. For example, most people know that greeting others is considered polite, so we greet each other. We smile when we meet strangers because this is part of accepted social behavior.

These social norms are deeply rooted in belief systems, and members within that society adopt them because they believe them better, or simply because they learned them from a young age through a process of socialization. Some of these norms are reinforced through rewards and punishments, especially during this process of socialization. Even in formal systems, such as workplaces or schools, there are norms that are widely accepted and followed. These norms are reproduced through socialization processes, meaning they are passed down from one lot of people to the next.

Among these social norms are gender norms, specific expectations regarding how boys, girls, men, and women should behave. For example, men are expected to be strong and assertive, while boys are seen as playful and sometimes mischievous. Girls are expected to be humble, responsible, and obedient, while women are generally expected to be nurturing and caring. When someone behaves outside of these expected roles, it can cause surprise or even outrage. For example, if a woman takes on a role traditionally associated with men,

Consequences of Gender Stereotypes



Activity

Now that you have learnt what gender stereotypes are, what are their consequences?

Having considered consequences of gender stereotypes, let us look at some of them in detail:

Gender stereotypes limit women's access to leadership positions, career advancement, and opportunities in male-dominated fields such as science, technology, and engineering. Women who do not conform to traditional gender roles may also face social backlash.

Gender stereotypes place pressure on men to conform to traditional notions of masculinity, often discouraging emotional expression or caregiving roles. Men may feel obligated to take on financial burdens and leadership positions even when it conflicts with their personal desires.

Gender stereotypes perpetuate inequality by limiting the potential of individuals based on their gender. This can lead to unequal economic participation, skewed decision-making, and social exclusion, which harms overall societal progress.

Gender Needs

In our society, the needs of boys, girls, men, and women are different, and we refer to these as gender needs. Gender needs are the specific needs and requirements of individuals based on their gender. They recognize that men and women often have different roles, responsibilities, and access to resources within a given society. The needs or requirements differ based on these gender roles, and two broad categories of gender needs exist.



Terminology: Gender needs

Gender needs are the specific needs and requirements of individuals based on their gender.

Classification of gender needs

Gender needs can either be practical or strategic. In this section, we will learn the difference between the two and examples of each.

Practical gender needs

Practical gender needs (PGNs) are needs that relate to the immediate, everyday necessities arising from the socially assigned roles of women and men within their communities. These needs are often linked to basic survival and improving living conditions, such as access to food, clean water, healthcare, and appropriate technologies. The satisfaction of these needs can improve the immediate quality of life without challenging or changing the existing gender power relations. Practical needs tend to be short-term and focus on the welfare of specific individuals. They can often be addressed by providing tangible inputs that directly address the concerns of daily life, such as sanitation facilities or improved cooking technologies. Examples of practical gender needs include adequate food and nutrition, shelter and housing, maternal and reproductive health services, child health services, basic literacy and numeracy skills, access to credit and financial services, skills training for income generation, and improved cooking stoves.

Strategic gender needs

Strategic gender needs (SGNs) refers to those needs that arise from the social position of women in relation to men. These needs are connected to the systemic disadvantages and power imbalances that women face, such as the lack of access to resources, decision-making power, and legal rights. Strategic needs tend to be long-term and are common to nearly all women, regardless of their specific circumstances. Addressing these needs requires interventions that focus on eliminating gender inequalities and transforming societal structures. This might involve promoting women's education, ensuring equal pay, improving political participation, or reforming laws to give women access to land and other critical resources. Addressing strategic needs requires challenging and shifting the power dynamics that maintain gender disparities, leading to more equitable relationships between men and women. Examples of strategic gender needs include, equal say in household decisions, representation in community leadership roles, participation in policy-making at all levels, equal pay for equal work, access to all types of employment and career advancement, and equal property and inheritance rights.



In-text question

How do practical gender needs compare with strategic gender needs?

Comparison of Practical and Strategic Gender Needs

The table below shows the comparison between practical and strategic gender needs:

Comparison of Practical and Strategic Gender Needs

Aspect	Practical Gender Needs	Strategic Gender Needs
Aim	Immediate, basic needs within existing roles.	Long-term change, challenging gender roles.
Timeframe	Short-term, quick results.	Long-term, gradual change.
Nature of Change	Works within current structures.	Seeks to change social structures.
Focus	Basic survival, living conditions.	Equality, empowerment, rights.
Addressing Inequalities	Improves conditions, doesn't reduce inequality.	Reduces gender inequalities.
Resistance	Less resistance, aligns with norms.	Faces resistance, challenges norms.
Policy Approach	Targeted interventions, welfare programs.	Systemic change in laws, policies.
Beneficiaries' Awareness	Easily identified by beneficiaries.	May need consciousness-raising.
Empowerment	Improves life quality but not empowerment.	Directly linked to empowerment.
Measurement	Short-term, easily measured.	Harder to measure, long-term progress.

Gender Disparities

This refers to the unequal access to resources, opportunities, status, and well-being between men and women, institutionalized through social norms, laws, and customs. These disparities are the root causes of the observable differences in outcomes between genders, gender gaps. They shape the conditions in which men and women operate.

Examples of Gender Disparities:

In many rural and agricultural communities, girls face more barriers to accessing education due to poverty, and early marriage. A disparity will arise as girls are less likely to attend and complete school compared to boys, leading to unequal levels of educational attainment.

Legal restrictions, inheritance laws, and cultural practices often prevent women from owning or inheriting land. The disparity in this is that men generally have greater control over land and productive resources, limiting women's capacity for large-scale farming and economic independence.

Women often face barriers in accessing inputs such as credit, high-quality seeds, fertilizers, and technology. In the end a disparity arises, men tend to receive more support and resources, leading to unequal access to the tools needed for improving agricultural productivity.

Social norms and biases restrict women's participation in leadership roles within agricultural cooperatives, policymaking bodies, and research institutions. With these, the disparity is that more men hold leadership positions, limiting women's involvement in decision-making processes.

Women are more likely to be responsible for unpaid domestic work, such as childcare, cooking, and cleaning. The disparity at the end of the day is women's time and capacity to engage in agricultural or professional activities, leading to further economic disadvantages.

Gender Gaps

Gender gaps are the measurable outcomes of the disparities between men and women. These gaps are the visible differences in status, performance, or access to resources and manifest in several sectors, including agriculture, education, and health.

Examples of Gender Gaps in Agriculture:

Because women have lower educational attainment and may be participating in higher level agricultural training, there is a gap in the number of female extension professionals compared to males.

There is a gender gap in the average farm size between men and women, in that women farm lands are often smaller than those owned by men. This is a gender gap that arises from a disparity of men generally having greater control over land and productive resources, which arises from legal and cultural restrictions that limit women ownership of land. Understanding how gender gaps arise requires one to go beyond roots to the root hairs, and may be nodules.

Women achieve less productivity per hectare than men and this gender gap arises from a disparity of unequal access to essential inputs like fertilizers, improved seeds, and modern technology.

Women are underrepresented in agricultural extension programs and training sessions compared to men and this gap arises from a disparity of lower participation in training sessions due to societal norms and time constraints.

Connecting Gender Disparities and Gender Gaps

Gender gaps are the visible outcomes of gender disparities. For instance, the gender gap in educational attainment expressed statistically as lower completion rates for girls is a direct outcome of disparities in access to education where, societal expectations and resource allocation favor boys. Similarly, the gender gap in agricultural productivity results from disparities in access to land, financial resources, and agricultural inputs.

Social Inclusion

Social inclusion refers to efforts by individuals, organizations, or governments to improve the conditions under which different groups participate in society, aiming to enhance the ability, opportunity, and dignity of those historically disadvantaged or marginalized based on their identity. In Uganda the following groups of disadvantaged people can be used to illustrate this:

Indigenous Tribes: Certain tribes, such as the Batwa, Benet, and Karamojong, have been historically excluded from development efforts. Their remote locations and traditional lifestyles often result in a lack of access to basic services like education, healthcare, and infrastructure.

Societies Affected by Wars: Communities impacted by civil wars, particularly in northern Uganda, have faced significant disruptions. Conflicts have destroyed schools, hospitals, and other public services, leading to lower completion rates in education and limited access to healthcare. The long-lasting effects have marginalized entire generations.

Youth with Disabilities: Young people with disabilities often encounter additional barriers to education, employment, and social participation due to limited access to disability-friendly infrastructure and inclusive policies.

Marginalized Religious Groups: Certain religious communities in Uganda have historically faced marginalization. When schools were affiliated with specific religions, many individuals from minority religious sects were excluded due to a lack of available institutions, limiting their social and economic opportunities.

Gender Exclusion: Girls, especially in rural areas, have been historically excluded from education. Societal expectations often require them to marry at a young age instead of pursuing schooling, depriving them of educational opportunities and perpetuating cycles of poverty while limiting their participation in economic and social life

Gender Equality

Gender equality refers to a state in which women and girls enjoy equal rights, opportunities and entitlements in all facets of life as men and boys with absence of any discrimination on the basis of a person's gender (Reeves & Baden, 2000).

It focuses on providing equal opportunities and resources for both men and women, ensuring that everyone, regardless of gender, has the same opportunities to succeed. It emphasizes the importance of ensuring that everyone has the same access to resources and opportunities, regardless of gender. The goal is to eliminate discrimination and create a level playing field where men, and women can participate fully in all aspects of society.



Note:

Gender equality *does not* mean that men and women are the same but that their access to rights, opportunities, and life chances are not limited by the gender system.

From the analysis above, we note that promoting gender equality should be seen as central in all agricultural interventions.

Key Aspects of Gender Equality

Equal Opportunities: Gender equality ensures that individuals have the same chances to pursue education, employment, and leadership roles without facing discrimination based on their gender.

Resource Allocation: It involves distributing resources equitably, such as providing equal amounts of agricultural inputs like fertilizers and seeds to both men and women farmers.

Access to Services: Gender equality focuses on ensuring that all individuals can access essential services, including education, healthcare, and legal rights, without gender-based barriers.

Representation: It promotes equal representation of genders in decision-making processes and leadership roles across various sectors, including politics, business, and community organizations.

Social Norms: Gender equality challenges societal norms and stereotypes that limit opportunities for individuals based on their gender, fostering a culture of respect and inclusion.

Examples of Gender Equality:

Ensuring that boys and girls receive equal education funding and resources, leading to similar school attendance rates and completion levels. For instance, scholarship programs can be designed to provide 200 scholarships to both boys and girls.

Programs that distribute equal amounts of fertilizers and seeds to both men and women farmers can help level the playing field. For example, a local NGO distributing fertilizer equally among men and women ensures both genders have the same opportunity to increase their crop yields.

Implementing laws that require equal pay for men and women performing the same job, thereby promoting fairness in the workplace. For instance, a company that conducts regular salary audits to ensure that male and female employees receive equal compensation for their roles demonstrates a commitment to gender equality.

Encouraging equal representation of men and women in political offices can lead to more balanced decision-making. For instance, implementing quotas that require equal percentage of candidates in elections to be women can help achieve gender parity in government.

This approach acknowledges that men and women often start from different positions due to historical and systemic inequalities. It focuses on providing additional support to those who need it most to achieve fairness.

Gender Equity

Gender equity refers to the fair treatment of individuals of all genders, recognizing their unique needs and challenges.



Note:

Unlike gender equality, which focuses on providing the same opportunities to everyone, gender equity addresses historical injustice and systemic inequalities that create different starting points for men and women.

Gender equity emphasizes fairness by offering additional support and resources to those who are disadvantaged. Gender equity recognizes the differences in needs and interests which may also require a redistribution of power and resources to achieve equitable outcomes. Hence, gender equity is a mechanism that leads to gender equality. Gender Equality is the goal with gender Equity being the means to achieve it.

Key Aspects of Gender Equity

Recognition of Differences: Gender equity acknowledges that societal norms and discrimination create varying barriers for men and women.

Targeted Support: It involves initiatives that provide additional resources and support to marginalized groups. For instance, women might receive specialized agricultural training or access to financial services to help them thrive.

Empowerment: The aim is to empower individuals by equipping them with tools and opportunities suited to their specific contexts. This can include mentorship for women in leadership roles or financial literacy courses for those with limited education.

Policy Implementation: Effective gender equity often necessitates policies that actively promote fairness, such as quotas for women in leadership positions and gender-sensitive budgeting.

Outcome-Focused: The goal is to foster an environment where everyone, regardless of gender, can achieve similar outcomes

Examples of Gender Equity programs:

Targeted Training Programs for Women: Offering specialized agricultural training for women can enhance their skills and productivity. For example, a program that teaches women how to use modern farming techniques can lead to higher crop yields and greater economic independence.

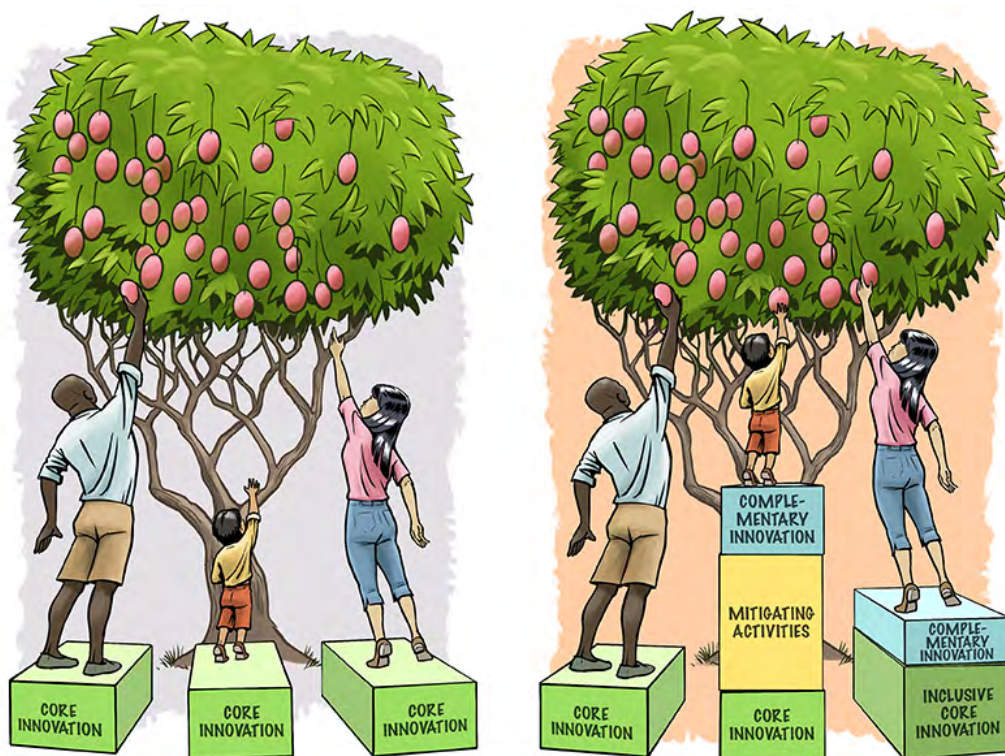
Microloans for Women Farmers: Providing microloans to women to help them secure land and resources can empower them economically. For instance, a local bank offering low-interest loans specifically to women farmers enables them to invest in their businesses and improve their livelihoods.

Flexible Work Hours and Childcare Support: Implementing policies that allow for flexible work hours or provide childcare support for women can help them balance work and family responsibilities. For example, a company that offers on-site childcare facilities can encourage more women to remain in the workforce.

Mentorship Programs for Women Leaders: Establishing mentorship programs to support women aspiring to leadership roles can empower them to pursue their goals. For instance, a professional organization that pairs experienced women leaders with young women can provide guidance and encouragement for career advancement.

Creating Safe Spaces for Women: Establishing community centers where women can meet, share experiences, and access resources can help them overcome barriers to participation. For example, a women’s cooperative that offers workshops on financial literacy and entrepreneurship can empower women to start their businesses and improve their economic status

Activity 1.2: Reflection on gender equality and equity



Source: <https://www.genderupforscaling.org/>

Let us assume that the people in the illustration are **small scale farmers**.

From the two images above which one represents equity?

Why is equity important?

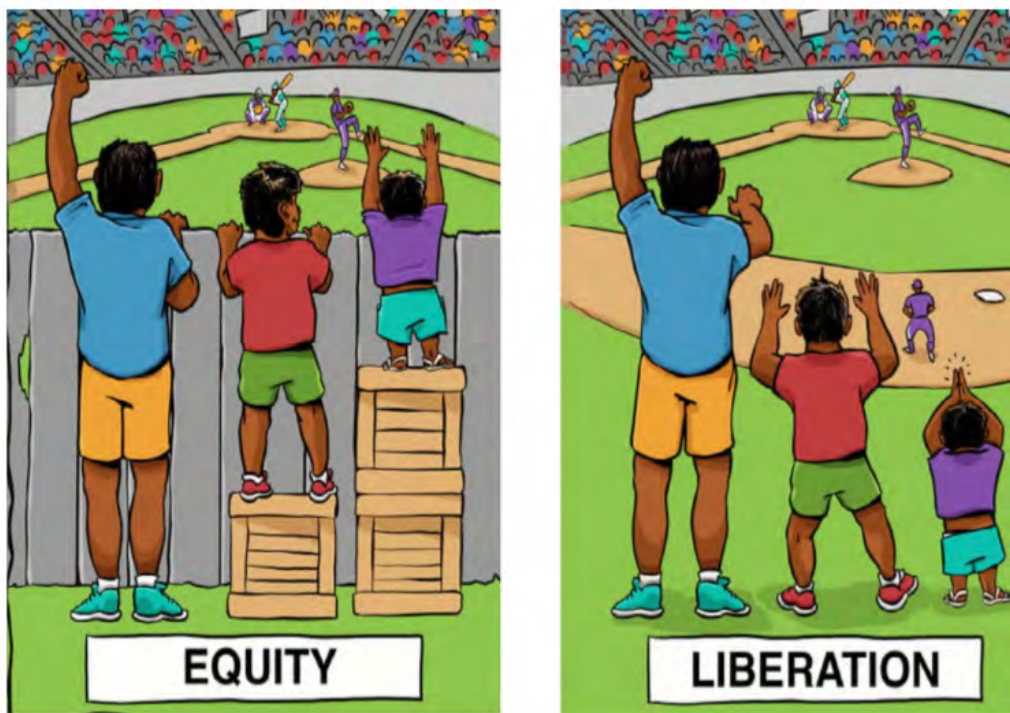
I don't know what your answers are, but I am sure they are interesting. In addition to your answers, I would also like to provide further explanation about the illustrations above. From the two images above, the image on the LEFT shows that they are treated equally or in the same way to access the core innovation (the core innovation could be access to improved seed and fertilizer, information on pest and disease management).

The differences in what they need to reach the fruits is not taken into consideration. This leads to imbalances in their ability to access the fruits. The taller one reaches them easily but the shorter ones don't. This shows that equal or same treatment of individuals when their needs are different may lead to unequal outcomes.

Another scenario is shown in the second picture. The image on the RIGHT illustrates equity whereby people (men and women) are treated differently based on their needs such that in the end all are at par.

The second image illustrates that each farmer received the same core innovation although additional incentives were given to the other two shorter farmers to enable them all achieve the same outcome. This can be achieved through additional mitigating and complementary interventions to the core agronomy innovations.

To achieve gender equality, these could be gender transformative approaches (to be discussed in detail during the topic on Gender approaches to development) aimed at challenging discriminatory gender norms that cause inequality. Removing systemic barriers ultimately leads to gender equality (see figure below). The desirable outcome of gender transformative approaches is liberation where men, women and other socially disadvantaged groups have the liberty to make strategic life choices that address their unique needs and interests.



Source: Nchanji, Siri and Odhiambo, 2022.



Summary

In this lecture you have learnt that gender is at the heart of the current discourse of development because of identified differences between men and women. Gender is socially constructed while sex is biological. Gender relations are deeply interwoven within social norms of a given society. People are socialized to accept and normalize certain gender norms over a lifetime. While gender equality is important, equity remains the key focus towards its attainment over time.



Self-Assessment

- List some examples of gender stereotypes for men, women e.g in selection of careers, abilities etc....
- List examples of gender discrimination in our society.
- List examples of gender oppression in our society.
- How do these issues related to gender stereotypes, discrimination and oppression affect household welfare and livelihoods?



Further Readings


- Risman, B. J. (2004). Gender as a Social Structure: Theory Wrestling with Activism. *Gender & Society*, 18(4), 429–450. Available online at: <https://doi.org/10.1177/0891243204265349>
- Connell, R.W. (2002). 'Gender Relations' in *Gender, Polity* (Available here) https://books.google.co.ug/books/about/Gender.html?id=9t4xT-mV5m4C&redir_esc=y
- Bandura, Albert (1971) Social learning theory, General Learning Press, New York Available here http://www.asecib.ase.ro/mps/Bandura_SocialLearningTheory.pdf
- Watch the YouTube video on what is Gender role Sociolisation available at: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=K-RvJQxqVQc>
- Reeves H and Baden, S. (2000). "Gender and Development: Concepts and Definitions". <https://courseware.cutm.ac.in/wp-content/uploads/2020/05/Gender-and-Development-Concepts-and-Definitions.pdf>
- Momsen, J. (2019). *Gender and development*. Routledge.
- Jaquette, J. S. (2017). Women/gender and development: the growing gap between theory and practice. *Studies in Comparative International Development*, 52, 242-260.
- Cleaver, F. (Ed.). (2002). *Masculinities matter!: Men, gender and development*. Zed Books.
- UN Women. (2024). Concepts and definitions. Retrieved June 27, 2024 from <https://www.un.org/womenwatch/osagi/conceptsanddefinitions.htm>


LECTURE 2

GENDER SOCIAL SYSTEM

2.1 Introduction

This session invites you to think about gender beyond being a concept, but as a social cultural system, that perpetuates inequalities between men, women, girls and boys in society and how this affects development. The content covered here includes: how the gender system is learnt and reproduced; how the gender system leads to inequalities; and how the inequalities impact agriculture and sustainable development.

	<p>Intended Learning Outcomes</p> <p>By the end of this lecture, you should be able to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (i) Describe how the gender system is learnt and reproduced (ii) Explain how the gender system leads to inequalities
---	--

	<p>Activity 2.1: Now reflect on how the gender social cultural system positions and values men and women in your society and respond to the following questions:</p>	
	Questions	Answer
	List two ways in which the gender system favours men.	
	List two ways in which the gender system favors women.	
	List two ways in which the system disadvantages men.	
	List two ways in which the system disadvantages women.	

As you were completing Activity 2.1, you must have reflected on the way gender social cultural system positions and values men and women. Both men and women are advantaged and disadvantaged in some way by the gender system. Let us now explore the various aspects of the gender system.

2.2 How the Gender System is Learnt and Reproduced

Gender system is learnt through a process of gender socialization. Members of a particular community learn their culture's gender-related rules, norms, and expectations. Rules and norms are set by society to govern the behaviors of men, women, girls and boys. Each society has mechanisms to inculcate these gender norms through institutions such as the family, church, clan, or schools so that boys and girls internalize them early in life through the process of socialization.



Activity 2.2: Reflection on types of socialization

Watch the YouTube video on what is Gender role Socialization available at: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=K-RvJQxqVQc>

After watching the video, list the different types of socialization.

There are rules in each society that are always invisible but powerful guides to the do's and don'ts. In some cases, there are rewards and punishments for non-compliance.

The agents/influencers of this process include families (parents, relatives); schools, religious and cultural institutions, peers, and the media. Children begin to develop their own beliefs about gender and ultimately form their own gender identity thus allocating roles and responsibilities right from a tender age.



Activity 2.3: Reflection on social and gender norms in agriculture

Identify an example of a social norm and gender norm in agricultural production.



Summary

In this lecture you have discovered that gender is indeed not a mere concept but a socio-cultural system that organizes identities, practices, power relations (production, reproduction) and entitlements of men and women, girls and boys in society. It is an important lens through which we should understand people and their relationships, and how these translate into opportunities and constraints – at various domains essential for livelihood improvement.

Now that we have learnt what socialization is, attempt the self-assessment questions below:



Self-Assessment

Now reflect on your personal life regarding how you learnt your gender roles and relations as a man/boy and woman/girl based on the questions below

	Questions	Answer
	Who did you learn from?	
	Where did you learn from?	



Further Readings

- Risman, B. J. (2004). Gender As a Social Structure: Theory Wrestling with Activism. *Gender & Society*, 18(4), 429-450. Available online at: <https://doi.org/10.1177/0891243204265349>
- Kretchmar, J. (2011). Gender socialization. of Salem Press. *Sociology reference guide. Gender roles & equality*, 41-52.
- Connell, R.W. (2002). 'Gender Relations' in *Gender, Polity* (Available here) https://books.google.co.ug/books/about/Gender.html?id=9t4xT-mV5m4C&redir_esc=y
- Unpacking the Gender System: A Theoretical Perspective on Gender Beliefs Cecilia L. Ridgeway and Shelley J. Correll *Gender & Society* 2004 18: 510 Cecilia L. Ridgeway and Shelley J. Co (Available here) <https://www.wikigender.org/wiki/social-institutions-and-gender-index-2012/>
- <https://www.oecd.org/dev/development-gender/Uganda%20SocInstitut%20SIGI%2020x20-web-2.pdf>
- What is Gender role Sociolisation- Utube video available on the link below: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=K-RvJQxqVQc>
- Bandura, Albert (1971) *Social learning theory*, General Learning Press, New York: http://www.asecib.ase.ro/mps/Bandura_SocialLearningTheory.pdf

LECTURE 3

UNDERSTANDING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN GENDER AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

3.1 Introduction

Gender equality in agriculture enhances productivity, sustainability, and community well-being by ensuring equitable access to resources, opportunities, and decision-making across all components of agricultural development. In this lecture, we discuss the relationship between gender and sustainable agricultural development. This topic will help you broaden your understanding of how gender shapes agrarian development.



Case Study on Gender Issues in Agricultural Finance Learning Outcomes

By the end of this lecture, you should be able to:

- (i) Explain the concept of sustainable development and its relevance to agricultural development.
- (ii) Describe the relationship between gender, sustainable agricultural development
- (iii) Explain how gender affects sustainable agricultural development



Activity 3.1

Gender plays an important role in the development of communities and nations. List any links between gender and development.

I know from activity above, you have mentioned several links between gender and development. In the section below I will highlight some connections between the two:

Development is undermined when:

- One section of society (for instance women or the poor) inequitably participates and/or benefits from development efforts;
- Inappropriate use of resources by development interventions undermines the capacity of future generations to meet their needs (United Nations, 1987).
- The interdependent and mutually reinforcing pillars of sustainable development are economic development, social development, and environmental protection (The United Nations 2005 World Summit).



Activity 3.2

On a piece of paper or any medium of your choice, mention any three reasons why understanding gender issues is important for development.

3.2 Why Gender is a Development Issue

- Although women play a crucial role in the development process, their contributions are often not recognized. For instance, women's domestic roles such as child care and cooking are often ignored yet this allows households time to focus on other developmental work.
- Inequalities between women and men that result in women having less access to development resources of a society. For instance, women have limited access to credit facilities because most of them do not own high value assets like land or property often required as collateral by financial institutions.
- Gender is not just about development for women and meeting women's needs but about the unequal social relationships between women and men that are invested with power and socio-cultural systems.

3.3 Development and Its Measurement

Various indicators are used to measure development, including Gross Domestic Product (GDP), Human Development Index (HDI), Gini Coefficient, Poverty Headcount Ratio, and Gender Development Index (GDI). Since the mid-20th century, efforts have been made to guide global sustainable development, which has become central to ensuring that no country, region, or individual is left behind in the pursuit of progress. Sustainable development is development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs.

Global efforts to achieve sustainable development have been steering goals, established by international organizations, such as the United Nations and the World Bank, shaping strategies to achieve comprehensive development targets. This journey began with the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), implemented from 2000 to 2015, followed by the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), introduced in 2015 and set to be achieved by 2030. These goals have all recognized the importance of involving women in development and articulate several targets aimed at promoting gender equality, empowering women, and ensuring their participation in decision-making processes.

Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and Women

The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), launched in 2000, comprised eight objectives aimed at eradicating extreme poverty and promoting sustainable development by 2015. Women were recognized as essential to the success of these global targets. The MDGs emphasized gender equality, with Goal 3: Promote Gender Equality and Empower Women specifically focused on improving the status of women across various areas, including education, health, and economic participation.



In-text question

What are the key MDG target related to women?

Key MDG targets related to women included:

- Goal 3: Eliminating gender disparity in education: This target aimed to eliminate gender imbalances in primary and secondary education by 2005 and achieve equality at all levels by 2015. Ensuring equal access to education for girls, empowered women and provided them with the skills to contribute to their communities and the economy.
- Goal 5: Improving maternal health: This goal aimed to reduce maternal mortality by three-quarters between 1990 and 2015. It highlighted the importance of accessible healthcare services for women, including prenatal and postnatal care. Addressing maternal health issues aimed to save lives and improve family well-being, recognizing that healthy mothers support healthy societies.

Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and Women

The SDGs, established in 2015, replaced the MDGs with 17 broader goals designed to achieve global sustainability by 2030. Gender equality remains a priority, explicitly identified in SDG 5: Achieve Gender Equality and Empower All Women and Girls. Women are not only the focus of SDG 5, but also integral to achieving many of the other goals.



Figure 1: Sustainable Development Goals | Source: <https://sdgs.un.org/goals>

Key SDGs and Targets Related to Women:

SDG 5: Gender Equality

- **Target 5.1:** End all forms of discrimination against all women and girls everywhere.
- **Target 5.2:** Eliminate all forms of violence against women and girls, including trafficking and sexual exploitation.
- **Target 5.4:** Recognize and value unpaid care and domestic work through public services, infrastructure, and social protection policies.
- **Target 5.5:** Ensure women's full and effective participation in leadership at all levels of decision-making in political, economic, and public life.
- **SDG 3:** Good Health and Well-being
- **Target 3.1:** Reduce the global maternal mortality ratio to less than 70 per 100,000 live births.
- **Target 3.7:** Ensure universal access to sexual and reproductive health services.
- **SDG 4:** Quality Education
- **Target 4.1:** Ensure that all girls and boys complete free, equitable, and quality primary and secondary education.
- **Target 4.5:** Eliminate gender disparities in education and ensure equal access for vulnerable populations.

SDG 8: Decent Work and Economic Growth

- **Target 8.5:** Achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all women and men, including for young people and persons with disabilities.

SDG 10: Reduced Inequalities

- **Target 10.2:** Empower and promote the social, economic, and political inclusion of all, irrespective of sex, age, disability, race, ethnicity, origin, or economic or other status.

Women's empowerment and gender equality are foundational to achieving sustainable development. They are recognized not only as fundamental human rights but also as catalysts for economic growth and social progress. SDG 5, along with other goals, emphasizes the need to address the unique challenges that women face in areas such as health, education, employment, and political participation.

3.4 Placing gender in agricultural development

Development is a broad concept referring to improvement, growth, or progress within societies, economies, or specific sectors. In simplest terms, it refers to positive transformation that leads to increased well-being, economic prosperity, social inclusion, and environmental sustainability. We can study development at various levels—such as individuals, where, for example, children may be seen as having slow development; lowly developed communities, like slums, and developed urban communities equipped with technologies like CCTV cameras; and national economies, where we examine indicators such as Gross Domestic Product (GDP), literacy rates, health outcomes, poverty reduction, and equitable access to resources and opportunities.

In agricultural terms, agricultural development refers to improvements in the capacity and efficiency of agricultural systems, encompassing all aspects from production to processing, distribution, and utilization of agricultural products. This may include innovations in farming techniques and means of production, enhanced productivity and security, improvements in the livelihoods of farmers, and resilience to environmental changes. This development in agriculture is a goal that must be pursued by all societies, as it supports the livelihoods of a large portion of the population, especially in developing nations.

Women are an essential component of agrifood systems in sub-Saharan Africa, making up 49% of the workforce, 11% above the global average. Women in Sub-Saharan Africa, represent 45% of agricultural employment, with the highest participation rates reaching 48% in Central and Eastern Africa. They also account for 59% of off-farm workers, with West Africa showing a particularly high rate of 64%. Despite their contributions, they encounter challenges, ranging from land ownership, where men possess more land than women in 28 out of 32 countries with available data. Even the land they own is often more degraded and insecure. Women bear the burden of unpaid domestic and care work, dedicating more time to these tasks than men—between 2.41 hours per day in South Africa and 10.2 hours in Mali. This limits their ability to engage in market activities and diminishes their potential within agrifood systems, underscoring the fact that agricultural development cannot be achieved with the exclusion of women.

Why gender disparities must be effectively addressed in order to achieve agricultural development

In recent centuries, there has been increasing recognition of gender's role in agricultural development, a belief that agricultural development cannot be achieved until gender disparities are effectively addressed. Proponents of this have raised the following arguments:

1. **Economic Efficiency:** Gender equality enhances productivity, as women constitute a large portion of the agricultural workforce, especially in developing countries, yet they continue to lack access to production resources such as land, technology, and credit. The argument goes that if women had the same access to productive resources as men, agricultural yields could increase by 20-30%, improving food security and reducing poverty (FAO, 2011).
2. **Social Equity and Inclusion:** The need for gender equality is also a matter of social justice, as it is unfair for us to have one category, the largest of our human race, left out. It is only fair for us to recognize that our sisters and mothers should have the same opportunities to succeed in a field where they invest a lot of energy and enjoy the benefits from their labor.
3. **Improved Family and Community Outcomes:** Household food security is centered around women. However, society has unfairly given women the burdens of deciding what food to eat, cooking it, and serving it on our dining tables or mats under the tree in rural settings. Studies have also shown that when women capture a lot of income from agriculture, they are more likely to invest in their family's well-being, such as better food, health, and education for the entire family. Therefore, empowering women in agriculture enhances the well-being of families and communities, generating positive ripple effects across generations.

4. **Sustainability:** Promoting gender equality in agriculture contributes to sustainability. Women often prioritize long-term community and environmental well-being and are more likely to adopt sustainable farming practices. They also possess valuable indigenous knowledge related to agricultural production, biodiversity, and conservation that we miss out on when we neglect them in agricultural development efforts.
5. **Resilience to Crises:** Gender equality that empowers women can help communities adapt to challenges, as they often manage crucial resources like water, food, and energy. It is women who engage in food preservation; for example, women are more likely to engage in activities that preserve food for hard times, like drying cassava, drying maize, and storing millet for the future. Empowering women strengthens households and communities' resilience to various crises, including climate change and economic downturns.
6. **Innovation and Knowledge Sharing:** Women often bring unique perspectives and innovative solutions to agricultural challenges. By including women in agricultural development initiatives, their insights can lead to more effective problem-solving and knowledge-sharing practices. Gender-diverse teams are shown to be more innovative and effective in addressing complex agricultural challenges, ultimately driving growth and resilience.
7. **Access to Knowledge and Technology:** As gender has been recognized in various contexts, including agriculture, it has been shown that women and men have different levels of access to resources such as land, agricultural information, credit, training, and technology. These disparities have been acknowledged in both political and academic discourses as critical hindrances to agricultural development. It is widely accepted that true agricultural development can only be achieved when all individuals have equitable access to these essential resources.
8. **Market Access and Value Chains:** Agriculture can only be sustained when farmers obtain adequate incomes from the sale of their produce to invest in inputs for the next seasons. It has been shown that there are differences in how women and men engage in different stages of the value chain and, ultimately, the value they can capture. There is a desire to ensure that the largest proportion of the labor force can achieve favorable outcomes and continue to engage in agriculture. Including gender in agricultural development recognizes the need to dismantle these barriers, enabling women to engage more fully in market activities and enhance their contributions to local and national economies. Research indicates that when gender disparities in market access are addressed, women's participation in agricultural value chains increases, leading to inclusive economic growth.



Case study on Gender and Development

Read the case study below titled '*A century after world war reflections*'

MERCY KILLINGS HOMICIDES TO SAVE BABIES FROM BURDENS OF WOMANHOOD

A mother's love for a child is one of the most universally agreed-upon phenomena across different societies. But what could possibly drive a mother to kill her own child? Upon delivery, an examination of the newborn's genitals occurs to establish the child's sex, and the news spreads like wildfire to relatives and friends. The mother smiles, and as Judith Babirye put in her 2011 Hit Song Mama, mothers stop feeling the pain of birth upon seeing their newborn. However, what happens when the survival of the child depends on its genitalia? In many parts of India, infanticides and foeticides have occurred silently for centuries. Foeticide refers to the killing of a baby before birth, while infanticide is the killing of newborn female babies. Female infanticide in India can be overt, with mothers or nurses infusing poisons like opium or feeding the babies excessive salt immediately after birth. Some may pay midwives to inject the baby with lethal doses of insulin. Less direct means involve neglecting girl babies until they succumb to starvation or infections a few days after birth. With the rise of ultrasound scans, mothers in India are aborting more female fetuses than males.

In this patriarchal society, boys are valued as breadwinners who earn money while women remain at home, taking care of families and working the fields to support the household. Family work isn't valued, and women often face physical abuse for preparing food late or taking a nap after a long day in the rice fields. The fear of dowry compels some mothers to save their innocent daughters from the burdens of womanhood. In India, families of girls must provide gifts like jewelry, cash and land to the boy's family for marriage which often leads to pressure on the girl's family. Indian weddings symbolize fulfillment, drawing clan members from all walks of life and often being comparably costly to Ugandan weddings. As the marriage market becomes increasingly competitive, the financial burden of marrying off a girl child has intensified. Negotiations can be lengthy, with the boy's side emphasizing how kind they are to accept the burden of the girl. It's not uncommon for a girl to leave negotiations in tears after a wealthier family presents a better deal.

This has led to a shortage of available women due to years of natural selection, causing anger against women, which is sometimes expressed through violence. India ranks high in cases of rape and trafficking, with reports of women, particularly young girls, being trafficked from poorer regions. Middlemen often purchase these women, only to sell them to clients. Additionally, many Indian men engage in online abuse, paying substantial amounts for women to undress live on camera.

Similarly, in Uganda, where bride price is paid to the girl's family, the impacts of this practice remain the same on the girl child. Girl babies are referred to as kasukaali, linked to dowry payments, where men offer bags of sugar, local beers, traditional kiganda attire such as kanzu, and gomesi to the girl's family. Wedding programs on television stations labeled as 'Embaga n'emi-kolo' have made the marriage market more competitive as the Ugandan middle and upper class families pay large sums to show extravagant weddings to the entire nation as signs of achievement. Young girls bought off at high values post these on social media statuses to portray their worth to peers who later run after older men, promising to make them dream weddings negating previous efforts in fighting HIV/AIDS.

As weddings become increasingly commercialized, dowry now includes televisions, cars, water tanks, solar systems and refrigerators. Consequently, many families choose not to send girl children to school, resulting in lower completion rates for girls compared to boys at higher education levels. Parents often view girls as commodities unworthy of formal education and send them to aunts (sengas) who teach them domestic roles, such as preparing meals for their husbands and caring for children. Sengas on a local television called Bukedde TV make it clear that girls' success depends not on education but on mastering the dark arts to satisfy the sexual desires of their men. Men are taught to be tough and authoritative by beating their wives, and denying women the opportunity to work is glorified with cultural and religious connotations.

It's common to see women peeling matooke in groups on mats in banana plantations during communal functions. Women traditionally engage in productive roles like digging which are taught to girls and passed on from generation to another through Kiganda folklore, such as the story of Njabala, a bride who, not having been taught to dig, failed in her expected role of digging as a wife. The mother's ghost is said to come back to dig for the untrained child.

Domestic violence persists in many parts of Uganda, as men view women as commodities. Men act as gatekeepers, preventing women from working, reinforcing the notion that women are assets. Recent efforts to legislate against dowry have largely failed due to a male-dominated parliament fearing the loss of control over women and female legislators worrying about losing support from voters who benefit from the patriarch.



REFLECTION QUESTIONS

- (i) Write a letter to our grandmothers who lived through the World War, explaining how women's roles have positively changed. Additionally, discuss the few challenges that still exist in your society.



Tip

Use statistics and local examples to support your points.

- (ii) In response to your letter, your grandmothers have asked you to outline approaches that the world should take to ensure their dreams are fulfilled. Assure them of certain steps that can be taken at both community and national levels.
- (iii) Discuss what gender stereotypes are, how they emerge, and how they are sustained across generations.
- (iv) Using examples of gender relations in different species, explain what lessons we can learn from these examples.
- (v) Differentiate between equality and equity programs as used by FIFA.
- (vi) Identify a problem affecting women in your community and outline equity and equality programs that you will implement to address it.

Further Readings

- Risman, B. J. (2004). Gender as a Social Structure: Theory Wrestling with Activism. *Gender & Society*, 18(4), 429-450. Available online at: <https://doi.org/10.1177/0891243204265349>
- Connell, R.W. (2002). 'Gender Relations' in *Gender, Polity* (Available here) https://books.google.co.uk/books/about/Gender.html?id=9t4xT-mV5m4C&redir_esc=y
- Bandura, Albert (1971) Social learning theory, General Learning Press, New York Available here http://www.asecib.ase.ro/mps/Bandura_SocialLearningTheory.pdf
- Watch the YouTube video on what is Gender role Sociolisation available at: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=K-RvJQxqVQc>
- UN Women. (2024). Concepts and definitions. Retrieved June 27, 2024 from <https://www.un.org/womenwatch/osagi/conceptsanddefinitions.htm>



LECTURE 4

WHY GENDER MATTERS IN AGRICULTURE AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT

4.1 Introduction

In the last lecture, you learnt about the relationship between gender and development. This knowledge should have given you even more interest in understanding the crucial role of gender in the field of agriculture. In this lecture, we learn about some of the reasons why gender matters in agriculture and rural development.

Social expectations and practices associated with being a man (masculinities) – their diversity, fluidity, and constant changing roles/power - hold back gender equality progress. In most cases, gender is not usually drawn upon to inform agricultural related interventions including breeding new crop varieties/animal breeds, developing agronomic solutions for land management, soil fertility management, pest and disease control, and scaling technologies and innovations among others.



Intended Learning Outcomes

By the end of this lecture, you should be able to:

- (i) Explain the gendered nature of agricultural practices in rural areas.
- (ii) Discuss how each gendered nature of agricultural practices contributes to shaping developmental outcomes.

This topic therefore facilitates your understanding of how gender practices affect farming systems, practices and agricultural productivity and their implications for rural development.

4.2 Gendered nature of agricultural practices

Agriculture is the backbone of many economies of developing countries and women play a crucial role in agriculture and development process. However, agricultural practices including technology development and scaling process are highly gendered. Differences exist among men and women in terms needs, priorities and preferences that shape agricultural systems and practices. In most cases, gender differences exist in allocation of resources, access to and control over productive resources, distributions of roles and responsibilities, participation and decision making among others. This result in gender inequality and exclusion at different levels of society as women experience unequal opportunities and their contributions less recognized. Important to note, whether women dominate or are excluded from participation in agricultural opportunities raises gender issues in agriculture as a sector.



Activity 4.1: Gender analysis and issues in Agriculture: A case of Uganda

- Read the presentation by Ndikuryayo, R. (2017) on Gender Statistics for Policy and Programming in the Agricultural Sector-Uganda
- Discuss the gendered nature of division of labour, land ownership and control, decision making and agricultural marketing among others. How does the gendered nature of agricultural practices impact agricultural and rural development:

Evidently, there are social processes and institutions that result in inequalities between men and women, usually to the disadvantage of women i.e. negative gender norms and practices, reflecting unequal power relations and fairly rigid gender divisions of labour at the household level. For instance;

- High burdens of unpaid care and domestic work leave women less able than men to invest their time in profitable agricultural work
- Social norms also create the expectation that women will work on plots that are controlled by or jointly with their husbands before working on their own

4.3 Agriculture and Rural Development



Activity 4.2

Using any medium of your choice, list three ways in which agriculture contributes to rural development.

Three-quarters of the world's poor live in rural areas and most earn their living from farming. Enhancing agricultural productivity is thus essential to achieving poverty reduction. Productivity growth in agriculture is also the driving force behind structural transformation.

As you might have learnt by now, the majority of populations in the developing world live in rural areas. In Uganda, smallholder agriculture is the main economic activity and is practiced mostly by rural populations. Most of the extreme poor – about 80 percent – live in rural areas (Castaneda, *et al.*, 2018). The rural extreme poor are different from the urban extreme poor and the non-poor. Their incomes depend greatly on agricultural activities, either from work on their own farms, or in agricultural wage employment. This reliance on agriculture makes the rural extreme poor highly vulnerable to climatic shocks and weather events. While agriculture plays a big role in their income and food security, the rural extreme poor also diversify their sources of income in other nonagricultural activities.

The implication of all these is that agriculture remains a major driver for development especially in rural areas and therefore deserves more focus if rural transformation is to be realized.

4.4 Constraints to rural agricultural development



Activity 4.3

Make a list of five major factors that constrain agricultural development in rural areas

There are a number of constraints to rural agriculture. One such constraint is the issue of masculinity, the notion of; being a 'man' and how it affects the uneven distribution of power in the household when it comes to important decision-making over agronomic issues.

Focusing on men's roles, practices and expectations in agronomy is key in understanding decision-making patterns in the household because:

- 1) It informs who to consult and involve while introducing agricultural interventions.
- 2) Excluding men in the design, promotion, training on agricultural innovations is detrimental to positive change
- 3) Provoke male hostility, e.g., withdrawing from agricultural productivity altogether.
- 4) Triggering gender-based violence in homes.

The rural extreme poor live across diverse landscapes. Their livelihoods, the challenges they face and the potential pathways out of poverty are conditioned by the territories in which they live, including the agro-ecological systems, productivity of natural resources, linkages to urban areas and population density. While remote areas may lack access to markets and services, they tend to be rich in natural resources and biodiversity (Figure 1). Rough estimates indicate that about 40 percent of the rural extreme poor - around 250 million people- live in forests and savannahs (FAO, 2018a), where agricultural potential is less but natural resources can provide alternative sources of income. The greatest number, 159 million, live in Sub-Saharan Africa.

In relative terms, most of the rural extreme poor in Latin America live in forested areas. Two thirds of the land used for agriculture globally is grassland. In most of these grasslands, highly variable precipitation rates result in pasture being available in ephemeral and unpredictable concentrations. Extensive and usually mobile pastoral systems have co-evolved within this particular agricultural environment.

Climate change related events, such as drought, flooding, and severe storms, disproportionately affect rural communities living in extreme poverty who lack resources and have low adaptive capacity to cope with the impacts of climate stresses and shocks. These events could push an additional 100 million into poverty if no adequate action is taken (FAO, IFAD, WFP, WHO & UNICEF, 2018).

It is widely recognized by international actors such as the World Bank, FAO, IFAD, UNDP that gender equality is critical in agriculture, which is the backbone of several developing economies (Fortman, 2019; UNDP, 2016). Many women depend on agriculture for their livelihoods and yet face numerous gender inequalities culminating into gender-based constraints that impede sustainable development and agricultural growth.

Therefore, gender is at the heart of the current discourse of development because of identified differences between men and women. Addressing gender in agricultural and rural development interventions is not just about development for women and meeting women's needs but about the transforming the unequal social relationships between women and men that are invested with power and socio-cultural systems.

Evidence shows that equalizing women's access to agricultural inputs could raise crop production by up to 19 per cent, boost agricultural and overall GDP and lift hundreds of thousands of people out of poverty;

- Evidence shows that women's equal access to agricultural inputs could address gender gaps in agricultural productivity and align with broader goals of sustainable development, namely, poverty reduction, food security, and other desirable economic and social outcomes (FAO, 2011; World Bank, 2012):
- Raise crop production by up to 19% and boost agricultural GDP, reducing poverty and improving livelihoods.
- Increase yields on their farms by 20-30%, significantly contributing to overall agricultural output.
- Reduce the number of hungry people worldwide by 12-17%, benefiting around 100-150 million individuals.
- Enhance women investment of their earnings in their families' well-being, leading to positive social and economic impacts.

Closing the gender gap in agricultural productivity also corresponds with a substantial reduction in poverty. It is therefore vital to give full consideration to gender issues for successful agricultural and rural development programmes.

Note:



From the above accounts, we have seen that rural agriculture is hampered by a number of constraints and therefore requires close scrutiny if any plausible development is to take place.

Summary

Agriculture is the backbone of many economies of the developing countries.

Rural agriculture is women-dominated yet faced with a number of constraints.

One such constraint is power relations shaped around masculinity.

Understanding masculinities and consideration of these in the design and promotion of agricultural solutions/innovations is key to ensure that agricultural activities meet the priority needs of men and women farmers.

Women and men's participation in and benefiting from using agricultural innovations/solutions.

Ensure that agricultural innovations **do no harm** to both men and women's lives.

Resilient norms that constrain men from participating in gender change are identified & transformed.

Rural agricultural activities are built around gender roles which have implications for output and productivity. It is therefore vital to give full consideration to understanding of gender issues for successful rural development programmes.



Self-Assessment

Read the article: Johnson, N., Balagamwala, M., Pinkstaff, C., Theis, S., Meinzen-Dick, R., & Quisumbing, A. (2017). How do agricultural development projects aim to empower women. *International Food Policy Research Institute Discussion Paper, 1609*, 36. Available online at <https://www.academia.edu/download/110207165/131285.pdf>

Required

After reading the article, discuss key points on how agricultural programmes could be used to empower women.



Hint: Focus on issues around the design, structuring of roles, who participates in what activities? How key decisions are made? Who benefits from the resources, which innovations favour who?





Further Readings

- Deji, O. F. (2011). Gender and rural development: Introduction (Vol. 1). LIT Verlag Münster.
- Sachs, C. (2013). Gender and rural development. In Handbook of rural development (pp. 179-196). Edward Elgar Publishing. Recommended further readings for the course Unit
- Johnson, N., Balagamwala, M., Pinkstaff, C., Theis, S., Meinzen-Dick, R., & Quisumbing, A. (2017). How do agricultural development projects aim to empower women. International Food Policy Research Institute Discussion Paper, 1609, 36.
- FAO (2011). The State of Food and Agriculture. UN, Rome.
- World Bank, World Development Report (2012): Gender Equality and Development. World Bank, Washington DC. Available here: <https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/server/api/core/bitstreams/c3fd75a7-4636-541a-a18c-92463daf69e3/content>

LECTURE 5

A THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVE OF THE GLOBAL GENDER AND DEVELOPMENT TRAJECTORY

5.1 Introduction

The women's equality partially enjoyed today has not been achieved overnight; it is the result of the tireless efforts of numerous activists and organizations over centuries. In this lecture, we will explore the significant events that have shaped the equality we see today. This examination will focus on two major developments: the waves of feminism and the formation of UN Women. Understanding these pivotal moments will provide a deeper appreciation of the progress made in the fight for gender equality and help us place ourselves better in the ongoing struggle.



Intended Learning Outcomes

By the end of this lecture, you should be able to:

- (i) Discuss the historical roots and evolution of gender.
- (ii) Explain the main players in the gender narrative.
- (iii) Explain the key historical landmarks and declarations

Reflection on gender and development trajectory



Group Activity 5.1

Read about the global gender initiatives and declarations as well as the key historical events and landmarks.

In your groups, for each event that took place, discuss the rationale, when it took place, where it happened and the lead organizations involved. In the group solution, do not forget the following as the key issues of this topic:

- Why the gender initiatives
- Key player in the Gender and development trajectory
- Global gender initiatives and declarations
- Key historical events and landmarks

Further, highlight what the event or declaration says about gender, and what gender issues it targeted to address.

Summarize your group reflections and learning in 500 words and submit as you will be guided by the facilitator.

5.2 Waves of feminism

Feminism has unfolded through waves, each marked by unique goals and contexts.

Wave one

The First Wave (1848-1920) began with the Seneca Falls Convention, where pioneers Lucretia Mott and Elizabeth Cady Stanton convened the first gathering of women to demand voting rights, citizenship, property ownership, access to education, and leadership opportunities. This movement produced the Declaration of Sentiments, asserting that all men and women are equal. As a result, women gained the right to vote in Britain in 1918, achieving full suffrage in 1928, and the ratification of the 19th Amendment in the United States in 1920. Feminists believed securing the vote would enable them to address other pressing issues.

Wave two

The Second Wave (1960s-1980s) saw activists like Betty Friedan and Gloria Steinem reignite the fight for women's rights through activism and literature. Friedan's *The Feminine Mystique* (1963) challenged traditional gender roles, sparking discussions about women's rights. This wave focused on workplace equality, reproductive rights, and sexual liberation, leading to legal protections against gender discrimination, access to contraception and abortion, and increased educational and employment opportunities, fundamentally reshaping societal norms and asserting women's roles in public life.

During the second wave, there was a recognition of women's roles in development, marked by the UN designating 1974 as the International Year of Women and hosted a historic conference in Bucharest. This event marked the first international acknowledgment of women's roles in population dynamics and socio-economic development, emphasizing family planning and reproductive health as fundamental rights. With this conference, came the World Population Plan of Action, which encouraged tailored population policies and empowered women through education and healthcare.

Subsequent conferences built on these foundations, integrating women's rights into global policies. The Mexico Conference in 1984 adopted the World Plan of Action, setting targets for achieving gender equality in education, employment, and health. This initiated the United Nations Decade for Women (1975-1985), focusing on improving women's status and advocating for their full participation.

Wave three

The Third Wave (1990s) emphasized diversity and intersectionality, recognizing that traditional feminism often benefited privileged women. It sought to include marginalized voices, addressing the needs of women based on race, economic status, and class while advocating for sexual autonomy, reproductive rights, and combating gender-based violence.

Wave four

The Fourth Wave (2010s) was characterized by digital activism, using social media to amplify voices and foster global conversations about social justice. Movements like #MeToo and #TimesUp brought urgent attention to sexual harassment and systemic inequality, empowering survivors to share their stories and demand accountability. The #MeToo movement gained traction when actors like Alyssa Milano popularized the hashtag and Rose McGowan accused Harvey Weinstein of sexual harassment and assault in Hollywood, encouraging many survivors to speak out and demand change against such behavior.

In 1994, the International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD) in Cairo marked a shift from population control to a comprehensive understanding of reproductive health and rights. The Cairo Declaration established targets for universal access to reproductive healthcare and education by 2015, recognizing the connections between population growth and broader developmental goals. The 2019 Nairobi Summit on ICPD25 reaffirmed commitments to advancing sexual and reproductive health and rights while addressing unfinished business from the ICPD agenda, emphasizing global cooperation to achieve gender equality and empower women.



In-Text Question:

From the information provided above, what can you say about the evolution of feminism?

5.3 UN Women and Inclusion

To understand the journey toward women's equality, we can look at the inclusion of women in the United Nations, starting from the UN Charter to the establishment of UN Women today.

Inclusion of Women in the UN Charter (1945)

Gender equality at the UN can be traced to 1945 with the drafting of the United Nations Charter, which offered a framework for the advancement of women's rights, providing legitimacy to future initiatives, and the first mention of "equal rights of men and women."

Creation of the Commission on the Status of Women (1946)

Following the success of the UN Charter the previous year, the United Nations General Assembly established the Commission on the Status of Women (CSW), first as a sub-commission, and later gaining full status under the Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC). The newly founded Commission became the fulcrum for promoting women's political, economic, civil, social, and educational rights.

First Meeting of the Commission on the Status of Women (1947)

The newly founded Commission on the Status of Women held its first meeting in 1947, which was the first all-female government delegation. In this meeting, it declared its goal to eliminate discrimination and elevate the status of women globally. This meeting was key in ensuring women's voices would be part of international policy dialogues, connecting back to the gender equality ideals established in the UN Charter.

Building Legal Foundations for Gender Equality (1947–1962)

Between 1947 and 1962, the CSW concentrated on addressing discriminatory laws and drafting international conventions to safeguard women's rights. For the first time, gender-sensitive language was used in the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights, with terms like "humanity" used instead of "men."

Equal Pay for Equal Work and Political Rights for Women (1951–1952)

Through its work with the International Labour Organization (ILO), the Convention on Equal Remuneration for Men and Women (1951) was passed, marking a key step toward ensuring equal pay. In 1952, the Commission drafted the Convention on the Political Rights of Women, which was the first international treaty to guarantee women's rights to vote, run for office, and hold public office.

Declaration on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (1967)

In 1967, the CSW successfully led the drafting of the Declaration on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women, which provided a legal framework that defined women's rights and inspired future binding agreements, such as the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW).

International Women's Year and the First World Conference (1975)

In 1975, the UN celebrated International Women's Year, proposed by the CSW. This year marked a significant global effort to address gender issues and culminated in the first World Conference on Women in Mexico City. The conference brought 133 governments and 6,000 NGOs together, leading to the creation of the World Plan of Action, which outlined an agenda for the advancement of women over the next decade.

The United Nations Decade for Women (1976–1985)

Following the 1975 World Conference, the UN declared 1976 to 1985 the United Nations Decade for Women, where efforts were made to integrate gender equality into development policies, as it was accepted that development was not possible without women's participation.

The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) (1979)

Years of groundwork by the CSW led to the adoption of CEDAW, often described as the "international bill of rights for women," in 1979. It established a mechanism for monitoring the implementation of women's rights globally.

World Conference to Review and Appraise the Achievements of the UN Decade for Women (1985)

The Nairobi Conference of 1985 marked the end of the UN Decade for Women, evaluating global progress on women's rights. The conference produced the Nairobi Forward-looking Strategies for the Advancement of Women, which became a blueprint for gender equality until the end of the century. The conference noted that despite progress, much remained to be done, especially in women's participation in peace processes and economic empowerment.

Formation of UN Women (2010)

In 2010, UN Women was established to consolidate efforts within the UN system to promote gender equality. UN Women took over the responsibilities of the CSW, including providing analysis, mobilizing stakeholders, and supporting member states in the implementation of CEDAW. The establishment of UN Women signaled a new phase of institutional support for gender equality, building on the legacy of the CSW and ensuring greater coherence in UN efforts to promote women's rights.

Sustainable Development Goals and Gender Equality (2015–2030)

The CSW linked the Beijing Platform for Action with the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, particularly Goal 5, which calls for gender equality and women's empowerment. The Commission has taken on the role of ensuring that the SDGs are implemented in a gender-responsive manner, reinforcing the idea that gender equality is integral to achieving all development goals.

Lecture summary



The inclusion of women in the global development agenda has been shaped by activists, movements, and civil society organizations, supported by UN declarations promoting gender equality and raising awareness on the global stage. Key UN conferences in the 1990s played a major role in advancing women's rights, promoting global networking, and legitimizing women's agendas. This process unfolded in phases: Phase 1 (Late 1980s - Early 1990s) increased visibility in sustainable development; Phase 2 (1992-1999) developed gender and development discourse at UN conferences, and Phase 3 (2000 onwards) addressed emerging issues intersecting with gender equality. Landmark events like the UN World Conferences on Women and the adoption of CEDAW established frameworks for women's rights. These phases and milestones show the gradual inclusion of women in development as a result of coordinated efforts by activists, movements, and organizations at various levels, from individual to global. In the end, they remind us of our debt to earlier activists and the need to ensure continuity of their work, carrying forward the mission to recognize and uphold women's rights.

Further Readings



Read about the history of the Commission on the Status of Women available here:
<https://www.unwomen.org/en/digital-library/publications/2019/02/a-short-history-of-the-commission-on-the-status-of-wom>

LECTURE 6

GENDER APPROACHES TO DEVELOPMENT

6.1 Introduction

In the last lecture, you went through the global declarations on gender and the rights of women. You were able to learn of the historical developments that shaped global efforts to institute policies that highlighted gender issues as priorities for development. In this topic, you are going to learn about initiatives that changed gender approaches to development between 1970s to 1980s and to the 1990s.

Intended Learning Outcomes



By the end of this lecture, you should be able to:

- (i) Distinguish between Women in Development and Gender and Development policies and their implications for agricultural development.
- (ii) Discuss the major policies determining women's participation in development.
- (iii) Analyse the significance of women's participation in the development process.

6.2 Women in Development Approach



Activity 6.1

Based on the topics covered so far, list down some three (3) implications of women's participation in the development process.

Do you think it was sufficient for women to simply 'participate' in the development process?

Women in Development

Women in Development (WID) emerged in the 1970s in response to the recognition that women were being excluded from development processes. It was influenced by feminist movements and the United Nations' Decade for Women (1976–1985), WID aimed to address gender disparities in development. The rationale for WID in agricultural development stemmed from the recognition that despite women being central to the agricultural sector, they were consistently marginalized leading to inequalities. Therefore, WID called for increasing women's visibility in development programs and integrating them into mainstream economic activities to enhance development outcomes.

Key Assumptions of WID

- 1) WID assumes that women have historically been excluded from development planning and projects, leading to missed opportunities for economic progress
- 2) WID assumes that women's involvement in economic activities will lead to greater efficiency and

economic growth, benefiting entire communities and economies.

Methods of WID

WID's methods primarily focus on incorporating women into the workforce and ensuring that development projects include specific components for women's participation.

- a) **Women-Focused Projects:** Development organizations-initiated women-specific projects that addressed issues like literacy, health, and vocational training. These projects often targeted women as beneficiaries of aid and services without necessarily transforming the overall development framework.
- b) **Resource Aid for Women:** WID involves offering large sums of resources, such as credit and agricultural inputs, exclusively to women as a means to enhance their ability to engage in income-generating activities, including starting businesses and improving agricultural productivity.
- c) **Policy Advocacy:** Advocating for policies that ensure women's equal access to resources such as credit, education, and employment opportunities. This method emphasizes legal reforms to enhance women's economic participation. WID aims to integrate gender considerations into broader development policies and programs by including women in decision-making processes at various levels of society.

Impact and Legacy of WID

- a. WID raised awareness about the roles and potential of women in development processes, helping to place gender on the international development agenda.
- b. The approach led to an increase in resources allocated for women-focused development projects and programs.
- c. WID influenced the adoption of gender-sensitive policies by governments, NGOs, and international organizations, leading to the creation of Women's Desks or Gender Units.
- d. The need for gender-disaggregated data became more recognized, improving how development outcomes were measured and understood.

Limitations of WID

Despite its contributions, the WID approach has faced significant criticism, many of which stem from its narrow focus on integrating women into existing development structures without addressing deeper systemic issues.

Homogenization of Women: WID tends to treat women as a uniform group, overlooking differences in class, race, ethnicity, and culture. It does not consider how multiple forms of discrimination intersect and shape women's diverse experiences.

Ignoring Structural Inequalities: The approach focuses on symptoms of gender inequality rather than addressing the root causes, such as patriarchal structures and power dynamics. By integrating women into existing systems without questioning the systems themselves, WID fails to challenge the structural barriers that maintain gender inequality.

Increased Workload: WID often results in women taking on more responsibilities without corresponding support for their traditional roles. This "double burden" expects women to manage productive, reproductive, and community roles simultaneously, adding to their workload rather than reducing it.

Male Exclusion: By focusing exclusively on women, WID can alienate men and fail to consider their roles in promoting gender equality. It does not address how gender norms also shape men's behaviors and responsibilities, potentially limiting opportunities for collaborative gender solutions.

Potential for Family Disruption: By shifting economic power dynamics, WID can inadvertently disrupt

household structures and relationships. In some cases, this may lead to increased domestic violence if men feel threatened by women's newfound economic independence.

Western-Centric Approach: Critics argue that WID often imposes Western feminist ideals on non-Western contexts without adequately considering local cultural norms, values, and traditions. The approach risks misapplying solutions that may not be appropriate in other cultural or economic settings.

Neglect of Unpaid Labor: WID often fails to recognize the significant contributions women make through unpaid domestic and caregiving labor, which remains undervalued in most development frameworks.

Project-Based Focus: WID tends to focus on short-term, project-based interventions rather than addressing long-term systemic change. This often results in dependency on external funding and limited sustainability after project completion.

Inadequate Attention to Reproductive Rights: WID emphasizes women's economic roles without sufficiently addressing reproductive health and rights, such as family planning, maternal health, and sexual rights, which are essential components of comprehensive empowerment.

Overdependence: WID initiatives can foster overdependence on external resources. By emphasizing credit and agricultural inputs without promoting self-sufficiency, women may rely on these supports for their economic activities. This dependency hinders sustainable practices and local capacities, making it difficult for women to thrive independently when external support is withdrawn, ultimately perpetuating a cycle of dependency instead of true empowerment.



In-Text Questions:

From the information provided above, apart from those provided, what other limitations of WID can you think of?

Let us now look at another approach that was developed to explain gender issues.

6.3 Gender and Agricultural Development

The Gender and Agricultural Development (GAD) approach emerged in the 1980s as a response to the limitations of the Women in Development (WID) framework. GAD emphasizes the need to address the social, cultural, and economic factors that shape gender relations within agricultural contexts. By moving beyond the integration of women into existing systems, GAD seeks to transform these systems to promote gender equality and enhance agricultural productivity.

Key Principles of GAD

Intersectionality: GAD acknowledges that gender intersects with other social categories such as class, race, ethnicity, and age, shaping individuals' experiences and opportunities in agriculture. This principle highlights the diverse realities faced by individuals based on multiple identities.

Power Relations: The approach emphasizes the importance of analyzing power dynamics within households, communities, and institutions. It seeks to understand how power influences access to resources, decision-making, and the division of labor in agricultural settings.

Gender Roles and Responsibilities: GAD recognizes that men and women often have distinct roles and responsibilities in agricultural production, which can vary across cultures and contexts. This approach aims to challenge traditional gender roles that limit women's participation and contributions to agriculture.

Participation and Empowerment: Enhancing the participation of both women and men in agricultural decision-making processes is central to GAD. Empowering women is seen as essential for achieving gender equality and improving agricultural productivity and food security.

Methods of GAD

- a) **Participatory Approaches:** Engaging both women and men in agricultural planning and decision-making ensures that their voices and needs are heard and addressed.
- b) **Capacity Building:** Providing training and resources to enhance the skills, knowledge, and access to agricultural technologies for both genders
- c) **Gender Analysis:** Conducting gender analyses to understand the specific roles, needs, and challenges of women and men, informing the design of gender-sensitive interventions.
- d) **Advocacy for Gender Policies:** Promoting gender-sensitive policies at local, national, and international levels to ensure equitable access to resources and opportunities in agriculture.
- e) **Collaborative Research:** Engaging in research that includes the perspectives of both genders, addressing gender biases in agricultural data collection and analysis.

Limitations of GAD

- a) **Resistance to Change:** Traditional norms and values may create resistance to gender-responsive practices, making it difficult to achieve meaningful change.
- b) **Resource Constraints:** Limited financial and human resources can hinder the implementation of gender-sensitive interventions in agricultural development.
- c) **Lack of Awareness:** Insufficient understanding of gender issues among stakeholders can impede the integration of GAD principles in agricultural projects.
- d) **Measurement Challenges:** Quantifying gender impacts and outcomes in agricultural development can be complex, complicating the assessment of intervention effectiveness.

Factors to Consider In Choosing Between WID and GAD

Choosing between Women in Development (WID) and Gender and Agricultural Development (GAD) depends on various factors to ensure effective gender-sensitive development strategies.

Socio-Cultural Context: In societies with entrenched patriarchal norms, WID may be more effective for addressing immediate gender disparities. This method provides targeted support to women by enhancing their access to resources. In more progressive environments, GAD's holistic focus on structural change may promote sustainable transformations in gender relations.

Existing Gender Inequalities: Evaluating current gender inequalities is essential. If significant disparities exist in access to education, land, or technology, a WID approach may be needed to address these gaps. If women already have some access to resources, GAD could foster deeper engagement, enabling women to challenge structural inequalities.

Goals of the Development Initiative: The specific objectives of the initiative influence the choice of approach. If the aim is to achieve quick results, such as increasing women's agricultural participation, WID may be more suitable. Conversely, if the focus is on fostering long-term sustainability and comprehensive gender equity, GAD provides a more robust framework for integrating gender considerations into broader development goals.

Resource Availability: The availability of financial and human resources is a critical consideration. WID initiatives often require targeted investments to empower women. If resources are limited, this focused approach may yield immediate impacts. In contrast, GAD demands broader resources, including funding for education and community engagement, which may be more challenging to mobilize.

Stakeholder Engagement: Effective engagement of both men and women in development processes is vital. If the community is open to collaborative approaches, GAD can foster shared responsibility. However, in communities with strong male resistance, a WID approach may create safe spaces for women to build their capacities before engaging men in the discourse.

Policy Environment: The existing policy framework significantly influences the choice between WID and

6.4 Men and masculinities

In recent years, gender equality programs have primarily focused on women, often excluding men. These initiatives typically operate in silos, implementing separate programs for men and women, rather than adopting integrated approaches that consider the dynamics between genders. This approach overlooks that men are directly involved in gender issues, as they live with and interact with the women targeted by these programs. Moreover, men have individual interests and needs that often align with those of women.

Unfortunately, many programs perpetuate the notion that women are the sole custodians and obstacles to equitable development, while men are often cast as enemies. Men are brothers, fathers, and husbands, who should also be invested in creating a better world for their sisters and mothers. To correct this, we must understand the behaviors of men that are often shaped by Masculinity, the social construction of the behavior of how men should behave in society.

Masculinities

Masculinity is the set of social practices, norms, expectations and cultural representations associated with being a man. Therefore, masculinity refers to the traits, attitudes, and behaviors that society expects from men and boys. These expectations, shaped by social norms, dictate how men should act and interact in various spheres of life. Masculinity manifests in various aspects of life, shaping behaviors, physical appearance, career choices, and emotional expression.

Behavioral Aspects and Emotional Expression: Traditional masculinity discourages emotional vulnerability, leading men to suppress feelings such as sadness, fear, and affection. Instead, men are expected to display confidence, aggression, and emotional stoicism. This suppression of emotions can contribute to mental health challenges, as men may struggle with stress, anxiety, and depression without the outlet of open emotional expression.

Physical Appearance: Societal ideals about masculinity emphasize traits like physical strength, height, and muscularity. These ideals shape how men perceive their self-worth, often pressuring them to conform to certain physical standards. The emphasis on toughness and muscularity reflects the dominant view that associates masculinity with physical prowess and power.

Occupational Choices: Masculinity also influences career paths, steering men toward traditionally masculine fields such as engineering, construction, and the military. These professions are seen as aligning with masculine ideals of physical strength, technical expertise, and leadership, reinforcing the expectation that men should pursue careers that require toughness and authority.

Types of Masculinities

Hegemonic Masculinity: This is the dominant form of masculinity that emphasizes traits such as toughness, control, and competitiveness. It is associated with power and authority, often rejecting anything considered feminine. According to Connell's theory of hegemonic masculinity, there is a hierarchy where men maintain authority in decision-making, household leadership, and income earning. Characteristics include domination by class or race, aggression, ambition, risk-taking, and the subordination of women and children. These attributes are normalized in many societies and become benchmarks for what is considered "ideal" masculinity.

Toxic Masculinity: This form refers to cultural norms that promote harmful behaviors and attitudes, such as aggression, emotional suppression, and the devaluation of women. Toxic masculinity often leads to negative outcomes such as violence, misogyny, and poor mental health for men, as they are discouraged from expressing vulnerability or emotions outside of anger and dominance.

Alternative Masculinities: These forms of masculinity challenge or resist hegemonic norms, embracing emotional vulnerability, caregiving, and egalitarian values. Men who embody alternative masculinities may reject traditional ideas of toughness and control, instead prioritizing empathy, cooperation, and equal relationships with women and other men. Alternative masculinities promote healthier, more balanced social roles for men.

6.5 Gender Transformative Approaches

Gender Transformative Approaches (GTAs) are strategies designed to challenge and change the underlying social norms, attitudes, and power dynamics that perpetuate gender inequalities. Unlike other approaches that may focus on merely addressing the symptoms of gender inequality, gender transformative approaches seek to address the root causes by reshaping gender roles and promoting gender equity.

Key Features of Gender Transformative Approaches:

Challenging Gender Norms: GTAs examine and challenge rigid gender roles and stereotypes that dictate how men and women should behave. These approaches encourage individuals and communities to reflect on harmful gender norms, such as the idea that women should be the primary caregivers or that men must always be strong and dominant.

Promoting Gender Equity: GTAs aim to achieve fair treatment for individuals of all genders by addressing their specific needs and challenges. This may include ensuring that men, women, and non-binary individuals have equal access to opportunities, resources, and decision-making processes, while also accounting for the unique barriers that each gender faces.

Engaging Men and Boys: GTAs recognize the importance of involving men and boys in efforts to achieve gender equality. By engaging men in conversations about healthy masculinity, caregiving roles, and equitable relationships, these approaches help break down the traditional norms that often disadvantage both women and men.

Addressing Power Imbalances: At the core of GTAs is a commitment to challenging and shifting power relations between genders. This includes empowering women and marginalized groups to have a greater voice and influence in decision-making processes, both at home and in broader societal structures.

Fostering Shared Responsibilities: Gender transformative approaches encourage the redistribution of responsibilities, such as household work and caregiving, so that they are not solely the domain of women. This creates more balanced, equitable partnerships between men and women.

Long-Term Behavioral Change: GTAs focus on long-term behavioural change rather than short-term solutions. They aim to create lasting shifts in attitudes and behaviors, ensuring that gender equality is sustainable over time.

Holistic and Inclusive: These approaches take into account the intersection of gender with other social factors, such as race, class, and age. They strive for inclusivity by addressing the specific challenges faced by diverse groups within societies, such as women with disabilities, and ethnic minorities.

GAD. Supportive policies can facilitate GAD implementation, enabling systemic changes. Conversely, if the policy environment lacks gender-sensitive provisions, WID might be more effective in advocating for women's rights



In-text question

What are some of the examples of gender transformative approaches?

Examples of Gender Transformative Approaches:

Programs that Engage Men and Boys: Initiatives that involve men and boys in discussions on gender equality, promoting healthier masculinities, and encouraging them to share caregiving responsibilities. For example, campaigns against gender-based violence often involve men as advocates for change.

Community Conversations: Community-led projects that work to change harmful social norms, such as early child marriage or restrictions on women's mobility. These projects often involve engaging both men and women to reflect on the impact of these norms and to promote collective change. This was used in Ethiopia to shift gender norms that limit women's meaningful engagement in productive roles and their economic empowerment in livestock development.

Policy and Institutional Reform: Advocating for changes in laws, policies, and institutions to create more gender-equitable systems, such as policies that support parental leave for both mothers and fathers, or land ownership rights for women.

Summary



In this lecture you learnt that gender approaches have been shaped by two fundamental developments since the 1970s. The Women in Development approach was conceived as a justification for inclusion of women's labour in the development process. It provided a rationale that development would be more efficient if women participated in it.

However, the WID approach ignored the unique difficulties and constraints faced by women and this formed a basis for its weakness. The Gender and Development approach was an improvement to the WID because it considered the unequal relationship between women and men. It was a more empowering approach as it aimed at transforming the relationship between women and men. The GAD approach thus aimed at ensuring development was more effectively delivered rather than just focus on efficiency.

Self-Assessment



Compare and contrast the Women in Development and Gender and Development approaches.

What was the key strength and weakness of each?

Further Readings



For deeper and wider understanding of the issues discussed in this topic do some further reading of the following references;

Young, Z. P. (2016). Gender and development. In *Handbook on gender in world politics* Edward Elgar Publishing.

Singh, S. (2007). Deconstructing 'gender and development' for 'identities of women'. *International Journal of Social Welfare*, 16(2), 100-109.

LECTURE 7

INTRODUCTION TO GENDER ISSUES IN AGRICULTURAL VALUE CHAIN

7.1 Introduction

In the past years, there has been a shift into the agricultural value chain approach for many products. Historically, farming was subsistence in nature in that a farmer produced food in his backyard, harvested it, and that was the end of the chain. However, with urbanization, food produced in deep villages, for example, maize in Mubende district, finds its way into Mega Standard Supermarket in Kampala Central, and with globalization, ginger produced in Butambala district finds its way into a U.S. beverage industry making soda for a consumer in Florida. Common to these is an element of value; there are different hands the product goes through. These are actors at different stages, each adding some value to what he receives and perhaps obtaining a fee for the value he has added before passing it to the next actor. In this section, we understand the agricultural value chain approach, how men and women participate in this, at what stages of the value chain they participate, and what value they obtain from participation

Intended Learning Outcomes



By the end of this lecture, you should be able to:

- (i) Discuss the elements of the Agricultural Value Chain
- (ii) Evaluate the gender Issues in Agricultural Value Chains

7.2 Gender Issues

Gender issues are problems of wide concern resulting from inequality, inequity or differential treatment of women with men purely on the basis of the social expectations and attributes of their sex.

Forms of Gender Issues

1. **Gender-Based Discrimination:** This occurs when one gender is systematically disadvantaged in comparison to the other. The discrimination can manifest in unequal access to resources, opportunities, and rights, with decisions made on the basis of gender rather than individual merit. For example, women may be paid less than men for the same work or may face barriers to leadership positions due to gendered expectations about roles.
2. **Gender-Based Oppression:** This is a more severe form of gender inequality, where one gender dominates the other through institutionalized power. It involves the unjust use of societal structures, like laws and cultural norms, to reinforce control and limit the rights of the oppressed gender. Oppression is not only about exclusion but also about maintaining control through social, political, or economic power, limiting freedom and access to decision-making

Characteristics of Gender Issues

1. **Pervasiveness:** Gender issues are embedded in virtually all aspects of society. They exist across cultures, religions, and socioeconomic backgrounds, making them widespread and difficult to address.
2. **Social Construction:** Gender issues are rooted in socially constructed ideas about masculinity

and femininity, rather than biological differences. These constructions, internalized from a young age, dictate appropriate behaviors, roles, and responsibilities for men and women, often to the detriment of one gender, typically women.

3. **Power Imbalance:** At the core of most gender issues is a power imbalance, where one gender (usually men) holds more authority, control, and decision-making power over resources, opportunities, and societal structures. This imbalance reinforces inequalities and limits the ability of the less empowered gender (typically women) to challenge these structures.
4. **Resistance to Change:** Gender issues are resistant to change due to their deep entrenchment in societal norms, laws, and institutions. Efforts to promote gender equality often face backlash from groups seeking to maintain traditional power dynamics or fearing the disruption of established norms.
5. **Intersectionality:** Gender issues are inherently linked to other forms of discrimination and inequality, such as race, class, and ethnicity. This interconnectedness, known as intersectionality, means that addressing gender issues requires a broader understanding of multiple overlapping systems of oppression.
6. **Institutionalizing:** Societal institutions, such as the legal system, education, and the labor market, often reinforce and legitimize gender disparities. Gender norms are perpetuated through these structures, influencing everything from wage gaps to the division of labor at home.
7. **Relativity:** While gender issues are universal, their expression varies across cultures. Cultural norms, religious beliefs, and historical contexts shape how gender inequality manifests, making it essential to consider cultural relativity when addressing gender issues.
8. **Invisibility:** Some gender issues are not immediately visible or acknowledged. Social norms and practices that perpetuate inequality, such as unpaid domestic labor or the undervaluing of caregiving roles, are often overlooked, making the problem harder to address. The invisibility of these gender issues, is what sets the stage for the next section of the course, where we will aim at understanding these gender issues in different aspects.



Activity 7.1:

What are the main sources of gender issues in agricultural communities?

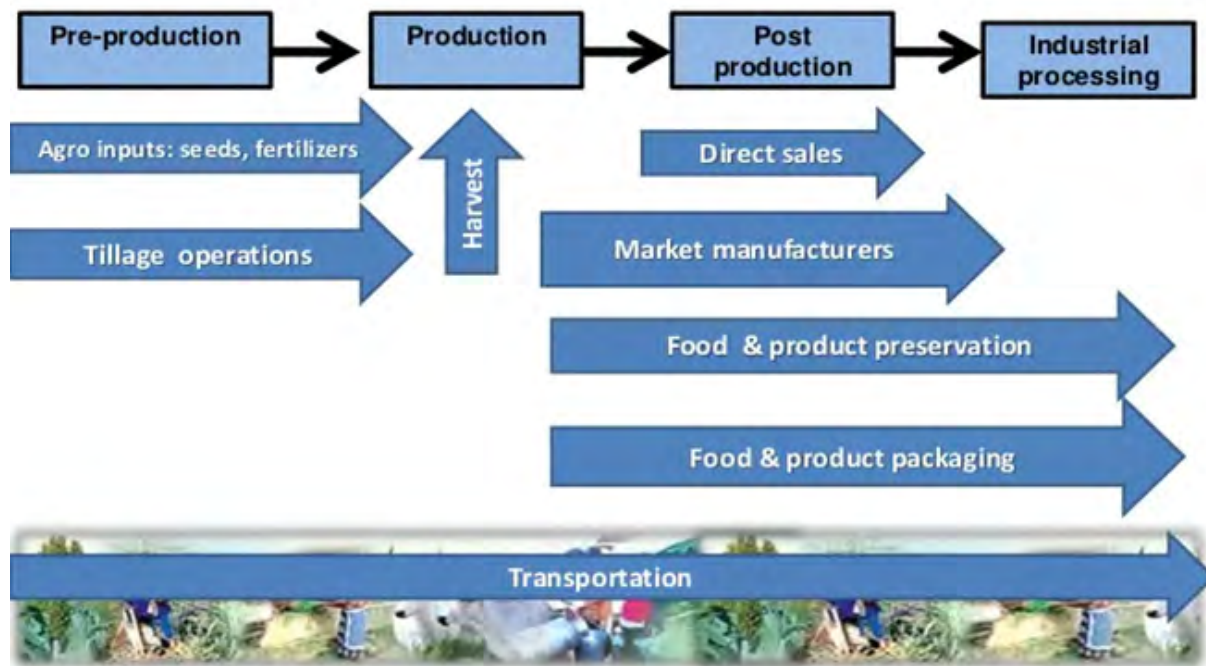
7.3 Agricultural Value Chain



Activity 7.2:

Study the illustration below and come up with your own definition of an agricultural value chain

A simple value chain



Based on the above illustration, a **value chain** is the range of activities and set of actors that bring agricultural product from production in the field to final consumption, wherein at each stage value is added to the product. An **Agricultural Value Chain (AVC) therefore** refers to the full range of activities and processes involved in the production, processing, marketing, and distribution of agricultural products. It includes all the steps that add value to raw agricultural goods, from farm to consumer. These steps may involve multiple stakeholders, such as farmers, processors, distributors, retailers, and consumers. Each actor in the chain contributes to the transformation and delivery of the agricultural product, adding value at each stage. One of the main paradigms in development thinking and practice and is now recognized as a key concept in the development of sustainable food systems.

This simple value chain examines the activities involved in any agricultural value chain. Pre-production includes selection of seed varieties by the breeder and supply by agri-input dealers through production to consumption of final products. Throughout the chain, goods and products are transported from one stage to another and value is added throughout the entire chain either on the product or from one geographical location to another.

7.4 Elements of a Value Chain

Value chain actors are individuals or organizations directly involved in handling products. This group includes producers like farmers who grow crops or raise livestock, processors who transform raw agricultural products into value-added goods, traders who facilitate sales and distribution, and retailers who sell products directly to consumers. Therefore, several actors are involved in the different nodes of the value chain (see figure 7.2). These actors are supported by different governance arrangements, institutions such as credit providers as well as an enabling environment.

Supporters contribute essential services that add value without directly handling products. These include financial institutions such as banks and microfinance organizations that provide funding, as well as extension workers who offer technical assistance and training to farmers, enhancing production and market access.

Influencers affect the entire chain at various levels. This group encompasses regulatory frameworks, such as policies that govern agricultural practices, and infrastructure, including roads, storage facilities, and transportation systems that impact the efficient movement of products along the value chain.

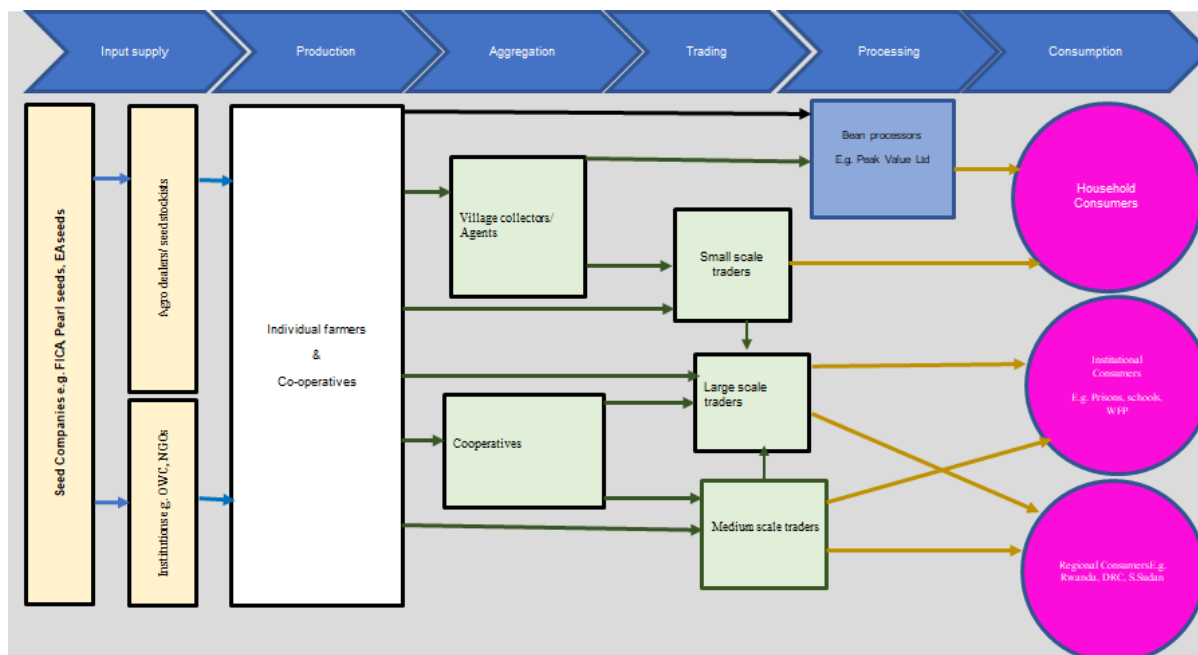


Figure 7.2: Actors in the agricultural value chain: Uganda's bean value chain map (2020)

Sources: Kilimo Trust (2012) & Key informant information from stakeholder consultations

7.5 Importance of Gender Perspectives in Understanding Agricultural Value Chains

Gender Differences in Value Chain Participation

Gender differences significantly influence participation levels within agricultural value chains. Research shows that women often engage at lower levels in value chains, typically managing smaller plots and focusing on subsistence crops. For instance, in rural Africa, women primarily cultivate food for household consumption, limiting their opportunities to participate in higher-value markets. This focus on subsistence restricts economic gains and overall value capture within agricultural systems.

1. Access to Resources within Value Chains

Access to resources, including land and technology, reveals significant gender disparities in agricultural value chains. Men are more likely to own machinery and have access to modern agricultural tools, enhancing productivity and enabling participation in more lucrative market segments. In contrast, women frequently use basic tools, which limits their capacity to improve yields and increases reliance on labor-intensive methods. This technological gap exacerbates existing inequalities within value chains, impacting women's overall contributions.

2. Decision-Making Power in Resource Allocation

Decision-making power, particularly in the control of agricultural inputs, is often skewed by gender. In many households, men dominate decisions regarding key resources such as seeds, fertilizers, and land use, which directly affects the efficiency of agricultural production. Women frequently lack involvement in marketing decisions, including pricing and market selection, leading to lower returns for their produce. This power imbalance reinforces economic disparities and limits women's capacity to negotiate better terms within value chains.

3. Labor Division and Economic Returns

The division of labor in agricultural activities illustrates clear gendered patterns that affect economic returns. Men are often assigned higher-value tasks, such as managing cash crops, while women engage in essential but lower-value tasks like planting and weeding. This division undervalues women's contributions and affects their skill development. Furthermore, women's involvement in unpaid labor such as household duties restricts their availability for productive agricultural activities, limiting their engagement in value chains.

4. Barriers to Women's Participation in Value Chains

Participation in agricultural value chains can be hindered by social and cultural barriers. In rural settings, women may face mobility restrictions that prevent access to markets and training programs. These barriers limit their involvement in processing, marketing, and trade, which are crucial stages in value chains. Identifying and addressing these obstacles is essential to enhance women's contributions to the agricultural sector.

5. Access to Agricultural Technology and Training

Access to agricultural technology is a critical factor influencing women's participation in value chains. While men may benefit from training on advanced farming techniques and have better access to resources, women often lack the same opportunities due to systemic barriers and insufficient support. Ensuring equitable access to technology and relevant training programs is vital for boosting women's productivity and enhancing their roles within value chains.

6. Influence of Cultural and Social Norms

Cultural and social norms significantly shape women's roles within agricultural value chains. In many communities, prevailing attitudes may discourage women from pursuing leadership roles or engaging in certain agricultural activities. Support networks, such as women's cooperatives, can play a crucial role in empowering women, fostering confidence, and enhancing their participation in value chains by providing resources and collective bargaining power.



In-text Questions:

How do gender perspectives contribute to a deeper understanding of agricultural value chains?

What additional benefits can you identify beyond those already mentioned?

7.6 Identifying Gender Issues in Agricultural Value Chains

For one to be able to identify gender issues in agricultural value chains, one has to examine the interplay of gender with respect to the following aspects.

Access to Resources

- **Land Ownership:** Understand who owns land. Investigate how land tenure systems affect women's participation in agriculture. Are there barriers that prevent women from owning or accessing land?
- **Financial Services:** Analyze women's access to financial services, such as credit and loans. Compare this with men's access to assess the implications for agricultural investment.

Decision-Making Power:

- **Control over Resources:** Determine who controls agricultural inputs (seeds, fertilizers, tools). How do gender roles influence these decisions within households and communities?
- **Influence in Marketing:** Assess the extent of women's involvement in marketing decisions. Who decides on pricing and which markets to target?

Labor Division:

- **Gendered Labor Roles:** Examine how labor is divided between men and women in agricultural tasks. What skills are men and women developing, and how does this impact their economic returns?
- **Unpaid Labor:** Explore the impact of unpaid domestic and community work performed by women. How does this affect their availability for agricultural work?

Participation in Value Chains:

- **Barriers to Entry:** Identify barriers that limit women's participation in various stages of agricultural value chains. Consider social, cultural, and economic factors that contribute to these barriers.
- **Gender Bias:** Investigate whether value chain development programs are biased against women, potentially overlooking their needs and contributions.

Technology and Innovation

- **Access to Agricultural Technology:** Assess how accessible agricultural technology is for women farmers. What factors influence the adoption of new technologies?
- **Training and Extension Services:** Evaluate the availability and effectiveness of training and extension services for women compared to men. How do these services impact productivity?

Market Access:

- **Information Gaps:** Analyze if women have equal access to market information compared to men. What barriers exist that hinder their participation in markets?
- **Market Opportunities:** Explore the types of markets available to women and men. Are women confined to local markets with lower returns, or do they have access to higher-value markets?

Cultural and Social Norms:

- **Impact of Norms on Participation:** Examine how cultural beliefs and social norms shape women's roles in agriculture. What challenges do they face in specific activities or leadership roles?
- **Support Systems:** Investigate the role of women's groups and cooperatives in agriculture. How do these networks empower women's participation in value chains?

Policy and Institutional Framework:

- **Gender-Inclusive Policies:** Evaluate the presence and effectiveness of gender-sensitive policies in agricultural development. Are there gaps that hinder equity?
- **Institutional Barriers:** Identify institutional barriers that limit women's participation, such as discriminatory practices within agricultural institutions.

Impact of External Shocks:

- **Vulnerability to Crises:** Assess how external shocks, such as climate change or economic downturns, disproportionately affect women in agricultural value chains.
- **Resilience Strategies:** Explore the strategies women use to cope with shocks and how these differ from those of men. What role does gender play in building resilience within agricultural communities?



Case Study on Gender Issues in Agricultural Marketing

Women Financial Inclusion Key in Tomato Value Chain

Women, on average, spend about 5.2 hours a day on unpaid domestic work compared to the 1.2 hours a day that men spend. Despite the proliferation of supermarkets and delivery apps intended to increase convenience while shopping, I have refused to give up my relationship with my market lady, Maureen. Maureen and I have an understanding. I buy fresh fruits and vegetables from only her, and she, in turn, provides me with the best produce available. She procures the right size of produce, at the correct level of ripeness, and at a price we are both comfortable with. I am also a frequent beneficiary of the odd pawpaw, watermelon, or jackfruit at no charge, earning Maureen my unwavering loyalty.

Many fresh produce shoppers in Uganda have a market lady. Aside from the produce, they provide additional customer care that makes them irreplaceable. Unsurprisingly, women have become the face of the fresh produce market everywhere. But are these women earning proportionate financial compensation from their role in the agricultural value chain?

In 2022, Financial Sector Deepening Uganda (FSD), with support from the FSD Network's Gender Corporate, commissioned a rapid gender assessment of Uganda's tomato value chain. The study sought to identify opportunities and understand women's roles in this value chain.

The assessment found that women were more visible in two areas of the tomato value chain: production and retail, i.e., farming and sale to the final consumer. Men were more involved in tasks requiring additional capital and labor investment. Their visibility was prevalent as aggregators and middlemen in the tomato supply chain. Women's visibility and presence in the production and retail segments are due to structural and social factors. First, women have limited ownership of land and other key assets. This limits their ability to access credit to purchase inputs and machinery to improve production outputs. Second, women often lack the knowledge, experience, and networks to participate at the trading level as middlemen. An additional challenge limiting women's ability to participate in other, more lucrative segments of the supply chain lies in the limited time resources to engage in these activities at a commercial level.

Women, on average, spend about 5.2 hours a day on unpaid domestic and care work compared to the 1.2 hours a day that men spend. The benefit of market vending is that the capital requirement is small compared to the value chain's input supply, production, and trading segments. Through their local Village Savings and Loan Associations (VSLAs), women can save and borrow small amounts of capital to set up stalls to earn small amounts of income. Additionally, they can still perform domestic tasks, such as childcare, because they are stationed in one place. Due to the highly competitive nature of the marketplace, women often focus on providing quality customer care to attract and keep customers. While it may be some time before social norms that limit women's ability to participate and earn from the whole value chain are overcome, some wins are possible regarding access to financial services. A key route is strengthening the VSLAs and Savings and Credit Cooperatives (Saccos) through which many women access financial services.

In January 2023, Uganda Microfinance Regulatory Authority (UMRA) Operational Guidelines for Self-Help Groups (SHGs) took effect to provide structure, promote fair and equitable practices, and provide financial stabilization mechanisms to even small self-help groups. With the developments in the legal framework and the uptake of technology for financial services, we may find increased visibility and participation of women such as Maureen in the tomato supply chain and other agricultural segments. Increased involvement of women across these segments increases their potential income and contributes to a more sustainable economic livelihood.

MS. PAELO FINANCIAL SECTOR DEEPENING UGANDA DAILY MONITOR 4th August, 2024

REFLECTION QUESTIONS



- i. How do men and women participate differently in the tomato value chain?
- ii. How do factors such as access to resources, social norms, and market dynamics influence the different stages of the value chain that men and women occupy?
- iii. How do these differences in participation impact the value captured by men and women within the tomato value chain?
- iv. What strategies can be developed and implemented to enhance women's benefits from the tomato value chain?

Summary



In this topic we learnt that Gender issues in Agricultural Value Chains (AVC) are crucial for understanding broader patterns of development and innovation. We also noted that while both men and women contribute significantly to agriculture, women often face barriers in accessing key resources such as land, inputs, credit, and technology. These disparities limit their participation in decision-making and high-value areas, which can hinder overall productivity and the adoption of innovative practices. By addressing gender imbalances in the AVC, it becomes easier to pinpoint areas where women are disadvantaged, such as limited access to agricultural inputs, training, and market opportunities.

We further observed that women are often involved in labor-intensive tasks, while men typically manage more profitable activities. In addition, women are underrepresented in processing and distribution, reducing their access to markets and technologies. Tackling these challenges therefore can promote innovation and growth by encouraging gender-sensitive technologies, equitable access to resources, and improved decision-making.

Self-Assessment Test

After being exposed the learning resources and the discussions in this topic, test your level of comprehension with the following items.



- (i) What are the key barriers that women face in accessing resources like land, credit, and technology within agricultural value chains?
- (ii) How do gender disparities in decision-making and participation in high-value activities impact overall agricultural productivity?
- (iii) What strategies can be implemented to promote equitable participation of both men and women in agricultural value chains?

Further Readings

For deeper and wider understanding of the issues discussed in this topic do some further reading of the following references;



Rubin, D., Manfre, C., and Barrett, K.N. (2009) Promoting Gender Equitable Opportunities in Agricultural Value Chains: A Handbook. Publication prepared under the Greater Access to Trade Expansion (GATE) project under the Women in Development IQC Contract No. GEW-100-02-00018-00, Task Order No. 02. United States Agency for International Development, Washington, D.C.,

World Bank (2014) Leveling the Field: Improving Opportunities for Women Farmers in Africa. Available at: <http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/579161468007198488/Levellingthe-field-improving-opportunities-for-women-farmers-in-Africa>

LECTURE 8:

GENDER ISSUES IN LAND USE IN AGRICULTURE AND THEIR IMPLICATIONS FOR AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT

8.1 Introduction

In the previous topic you learnt about gender issues in agricultural value chains. In this lecture you are going to learn about gender issues in land use in agriculture and their implications for agricultural development. We often view gender as an isolated aspect of life, without fully realizing how deeply it shapes access to resources like land. In this lecture we are going to learn about critical gender issues related to land ownership and usage, unequal land ownership, communal land systems, the limited inheritance rights, cultural norms and discriminatory social dynamics among others.



Intended Learning Outcomes

By the end of this lecture, you should be able to:

- (i) Explain the gender issues related to land ownership and usage.
- (ii) Discuss the implications of gender issues for agricultural development



Reflection:

Have you ever considered that being a man or a woman could determine not only how much land one owns or has access to, but also how it is used? Take a moment to reflect on whose names your family's land is registered under or who inherits land in your society. This reflection will reveal the complex gender issues surrounding land ownership and use.

I don't know the outcome of your reflection, but I am sure you realized very interesting issues regarding land access in your community. Let us elaborate on this issue using the content provided below.

8.2 Critical gender issues related to land ownership and usage

In many communities, gender plays a pivotal role in determining land rights, access, and decision-making power. Below are some of the critical gender issues related to land ownership and usage in our community:

Unequal Land Ownership

In many societies, men predominantly own land, as they are traditionally seen as custodians of community property. The Oxfam report on women's land and property rights highlighted that, although women comprise 50.7% of the population in Uganda, they own less than 20% of the land. This inequality arises from limited access to financial resources, credit, and agricultural inputs, which restrict women's ability to purchase or invest in land. For instance, in Uganda, women receive only 7% of the credit allocated to agriculture. Men's control over agricultural land further limits women's ownership rights.

Limited Inheritance Rights and Cultural Norms

In many traditional cultures, men are considered the ones to carry on the clan legacy, as women are often married into other clans. Due to cultural discrimination, women are frequently excluded from inheriting land. In some cases, national laws reflect these customs, though recent efforts through education and legal reforms have started to improve women's inheritance rights. Nevertheless, many women still rely on male relatives for access to family land, where they are often only allowed to grow short-season crops to ensure men can use the land later.

Communal Land Systems

In communal systems where land is controlled by male leaders for the benefit of the community, women often have limited access to high-quality, productive land. This leaves women to cultivate marginal or less fertile land, affecting their agricultural productivity. Reports indicate that women are often relegated to cultivating less fertile land, which hinders their agricultural output.

Usufruct Rights and Insecure Tenure

Women frequently have usufruct rights—rights to use land without owning it. This arrangement is often insecure, as women face the risk of losing access to the land when male owners change their plans. These women are also restricted from selling, lending, or mortgaging the land. This limits their ability to access agricultural credit and participate in development projects. For instance, projects that distribute agricultural resources, such as heifers, often require proof of land ownership, which women may not have.

Discriminatory Social Dynamics

In cases of land grabbing or displacement, women tend to suffer the most. While men may move to cities, women often stay behind with children to feed, facing greater challenges to secure their livelihoods. Furthermore, women frequently face social stigma and resistance when asserting their land rights, leading to conflicts and, in some cases, violence.

Land Administration Services and Legal Barriers

Even where laws exist to protect women's land rights, they are often poorly implemented or enforced. For example, despite the legal provisions in place, only 39% of women in Uganda report being aware of their land rights. Furthermore, women encounter greater bureaucratic challenges than men when seeking to register land, as they are often unaware of the required documentation or face discriminatory practices. Studies indicate that women face more significant barriers in accessing land administration services, such as land registration and titling.

Limited Representation in Land Governance

Women are underrepresented in land governance institutions and decision-making bodies. In Uganda, for instance, women make up only 30% of local councils involved in land management decisions. This underrepresentation hampers their ability to influence land-related policies that could support gender equity in land ownership and access.

Impact of Commercialization

When agricultural systems transition toward commercialization, it is often women who bear the brunt of the negative impacts. Crops that women typically grow for household food production may be displaced by cash crops grown by men, adversely affecting household food security. Studies indicate that as men shift to cash crops, food production responsibilities increasingly fall on women, which can exacerbate food insecurity.

8.3 Implications of Gender Issues for Agricultural Development

Weak Incentives to Invest in Land Improvement

When women lack secure land tenure, they are less motivated to invest in long-term improvements, such as soil conservation or irrigation systems. This contributes to lower land productivity and sustainability over time.

Limited Interest in Permanent Crops and Long-Term Enterprises

Insecure land rights discourage women from investing in permanent crops like agroforestry or other long-term enterprises. The fear of losing their land, and thus their investments, makes them hesitant to commit to these ventures.

Lack of Collateral for Credit

Land is often required as collateral for securing loans. Without land ownership or secure rights, women face challenges in accessing credit. This barrier limits their ability to invest in essential agricultural inputs such as seeds, fertilizers, and equipment, which are crucial for boosting productivity.

Tendency toward Small-Scale Enterprises

Due to limited access to land, women often focus on small-scale agricultural activities, such as small livestock farming or zero-grazing systems. While these ventures can be productive, they typically do not generate the same level of income or food security as larger-scale farming operations.

Environmental Degradation

Because women often have limited control over land management decisions, unsustainable practices can arise, leading to environmental degradation. This, in turn, impacts long-term agricultural productivity and food security.

Climate Resilience

Women are frequently at the forefront of adapting agricultural practices to the effects of climate change. Secure land rights would enable them to implement climate-resilient farming methods, which are essential for maintaining agricultural production as climate conditions shift.

Reduced Agricultural Output

Gender disparities in land ownership reduce overall agricultural productivity. Studies indicate that if women had the same access to resources as men, global agricultural output could increase significantly, potentially alleviating hunger worldwide.

Food Security and Nutrition

Women play a key role in ensuring household food security and nutrition. When they have secure land rights, they are more likely to grow diverse, nutritious crops, contributing to the improved health and well-being of their families.



In-Text Question:

How might other gender-related issues, beyond those already discussed, impact land rights and agricultural development?

LECTURE 9:

GENDER ISSUES IN AGROFORESTRY AND THEIR IMPLICATIONS FOR AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT

9.1 Introduction

Gender issues permeate all aspects of farming, including agroforestry, the intentional integration of trees and shrubs into crop and animal farming systems to create environmental, economic, and social benefits. Women, in particular, face various challenges in participating fully in agroforestry due to several socio-economic and cultural barriers. In this lecture, we shall learn the various challenges women face in agroforestry.

Intended Learning Outcomes



By the end of this lecture, you should be able to:

- (i) Explain the gender issues related to agro-forestry resources.
- (ii) Discuss the implications of gender issues in agro-forestry management for agricultural development

9.2 Challenges that women face in participating fully in agroforestry

Access to Resources

Women often have limited access to essential resources such as land, trees, and forest products, which reduces their ability to fully engage in agroforestry practices.

Decision-Making Power

Due to traditional gender roles, women have less influence over decisions related to tree planting, management, and harvesting. In many societies, men are perceived to possess more knowledge about tree management, such as when and how to prune or harvest. This belief is reflected in the fact that most tree harvesters are men, even when women plant and care for trees. Ultimately, men tend to make key decisions, such as when to cut down trees, even if the trees were planted by women.

Unequal Labor Distribution

Women often carry out the majority of unpaid labor in agroforestry. For example, they are primarily responsible for tree care activities, such as watering, especially when the trees are young. Interestingly, while men tend to own commercial tree nurseries, women manage these nurseries, performing most of the labor but benefiting less financially. Men typically step in only at the point of sale, despite women's significant contributions to managing seedlings. Moreover, women often engage in less economically rewarding activities, like gathering firewood, while men focus on higher-value tasks such as processing forest products.

Lack of Training

Women have less access to technical training on agroforestry practices. Many agroforestry campaigns tend to assume that agroforestry is a male domain, thereby excluding women from important training opportunities.

Tenure Security

Due to insecure land tenure, women are less likely to invest in agroforestry systems. Trees can take many years to mature, sometimes up to 20 years, and since women often have rights only to use land but not to own it, they are hesitant to plant trees, fearing that they may not benefit from their labor.

Control Over Revenue

Men usually control the revenue from agroforestry products, even though women contribute significantly to production. Despite doing most of the work, women have less say over when to sell the trees and where to market the wood products.

Tree Preferences

When it comes to deciding which trees to plant, women's preferences are often overlooked. For example, women may prioritize fruit trees like mangoes and guavas to improve family nutrition, while men may prefer planting eucalyptus for commercial purposes. This divergence in priorities highlights how women's agroforestry goals are often marginalized.

In sub-Saharan Africa, women tend to benefit from tree products with lower commercial value compared to men, as higher-value products are more likely to be linked to industrial value chains. The design of agroforestry systems can therefore influence opportunities for women's economic empowerment.



In-Text Question:

Can you think of other challenges that women face in the area of agroforestry?

9.3 Implications of Gender Issues for Agroforestry

Low Interest in Agroforestry Investment

Women with insecure land tenure are less motivated to invest in agroforestry. Fear of losing land access discourages them from planting trees or making long-term investments. Women often gain less from selling agroforestry products. Despite their significant contributions to tree care, control over profits typically resides with men. This inequitable distribution of gains women's motivation to engage in agroforestry, as financial returns do not reflect their labor. Consequently, limited investment translates to lower adoption rates of sustainable practices

Overburdening of Women in Agroforestry

Women handle most labour-intensive tasks in agroforestry, such as planting and managing trees. Despite this, they are frequently excluded from training programs that could enhance their skills, which perpetuates gender disparities and reduces the success of agroforestry initiatives.

Lower Productivity of Agroforestry Interventions

The lack of access to technical training hinders women's ability to implement effective practices. While they perform the majority of the work, their exclusion from educational opportunities prevents them from gaining essential knowledge about tree management and sustainable practices. This training gap leads to inefficiencies and lower productivity.

Impact on Household Food Security

When women's preferences for tree species like fruit trees for family nutrition—are overlooked, household food security suffers. Women prioritize crops that enhance nutrition, yet a focus on commercially valuable species, often preferred by men, can lead to a lack of food diversity. If fruit trees are replaced with less aligned species, such as eucalyptus for timber, women may face increased burdens. Children often snack on available fruits, and if these trees are replaced, women must find alternative snacks for their children. This intensifies their workload and can negatively impact the household's overall health and nutrition.



Case study on Gender and Agro-forestry

Organization Y had a project to promote Grivellea for firewood and soil fertility enhancement. The project ended up attracting mainly women as beneficiaries who were given tree seeds to establish nursery beds. The nursery beds were established and well managed and over 100,000 seedlings were produced. All the seedlings were given out to the beneficiaries to plant on their own gardens, but ultimately, only about 40,000 were planted and the rest were left to dry because of lack of land on which to plant them. Close to half of the seedlings that were planted, were taken over by men who later uprooted them when they discovered that they were not good for timber

Questions

Identify gender related mistakes in the design of this project

If the projects were to be repeated elsewhere, what advice would you (as a gender “expert”) give to the designers to enhance success?



Lecture summary

Agro-forestry is a collective name for all land use systems and practices in which woody perennials (trees, shrubs, bamboos) are deliberately planted or retained on agricultural land (or other landscapes) and integrated with crop (*including pastures*) production and sometimes with livestock production as well. All this is done simultaneously or sequentially on the same land management unit. This offers a range of benefits to farmers, some of which are rehabilitation of forest lands, soil fertility improvement, provision of fuel wood and fodder among others. However, gender inequalities in agro-forestry limit participation and benefits for women farmers.



Further Readings

For deeper and wider understanding of the issues discussed in this topic do some further reading of the following references;

Rocheleau, D. E. (2019). Gender, resource management and the rural landscape: implications for agroforestry and farming systems research. In *Gender issues in farming systems research and extension* (pp. 149-169). CRC Press.

Alka Shiva, A. S., & Asha Aalok, A. A. (2014). Role of women in agroforestry.

Foncha, J. N., & Eforkwe, T. H. (2024). Empowering Rural Women through Agroforestry Practices; The Case of The Mount Oku Forest Region, Cameroon. *East African Journal of Forestry and Agroforestry*, 7(1), 227-239.

LECTURE 10:

GENDER ISSUES IN LIVESTOCK MANAGEMENT AND THEIR IMPLICATIONS FOR AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT

10.1 Introduction

In this lecture you are going to learn about gender issues in livestock management and their implications for agricultural development. We often view gender as an isolated aspect of life, without fully realizing how deeply it shapes access to livestock resources. In this lecture we are going to learn about critical gender issues related to livestock ownership.



Intended Learning Outcomes

By the end of this lecture, you should be able to:

- (i) Explain the gender issues related to livestock resources.
- (ii) Discuss the implications of gender issues in livestock management for agricultural development

10.2 Gender issues in Livestock Management

Unequal Access to Inputs and Services

Women face challenges in accessing veterinary services and livestock inputs due to social norms and logistical barriers. Most veterinary officers are male, and cultural restrictions often limit women's interactions with them. Furthermore, livestock vaccination campaigns are conducted in distant towns, complicating women's access to these vital services. Access to animal feeds is also hindered, as feed stores are often located far from rural areas. This situation exacerbates challenges faced by women, who may have limited mobility in obtaining necessary inputs for their livestock.

Division of Labor

In many cultures, livestock management responsibilities are divided by gender, with women performing most of the unpaid labor related to animal care, such as feeding young animals and tending to smaller livestock like chickens and goats. However, when households receive larger animals (such as cattle) through development projects, the burden of caring for these animals often shifts to women, while men typically reap financial benefits.

Decision-Making

While women manage animals, men generally make key decisions about livestock, including when and how to sell them. Women are seldom allowed to sell livestock independently, particularly higher-value animals like cows. This exclusion extends to control over income from livestock products, such as milk, limiting women's economic power despite their contributions. Cultural barriers further inhibit women's participation in livestock markets, where they often face exploitation. Those who attempt to sell livestock are frequently underpaid, thus widening the gender gap in economic opportunities.

Ownership

Livestock ownership is usually divided by gender, with men tending to larger, more economically valuable animals (like cattle) while women manage smaller animals (like chickens or goats), which yield lower profits. Even when women are provided with larger animals through aid programs, men often assert ownership, complicating women's ability to benefit from livestock production. These practices are deeply rooted in social norms.

Marketing and Economic Participation

Women's engagement in livestock markets is constrained by gender stereotypes associating men with commercial farming and higher-level livestock activities. As a result, women engage in lower-value activities, such as gathering firewood or selling smaller livestock products, while men dominate more profitable sectors of the livestock industry.

Impact of Climate Change

Women, particularly in pastoral communities, are disproportionately affected by climate-related challenges, such as drought. Their limited access to adaptive resources—like drought-resistant livestock breeds or improved fodder—exacerbates their vulnerability. Furthermore, since men control decision-making within these communities, women often lack the ability to implement measures to mitigate climate-related shocks.

Limited Access to Education and Training

Women are frequently excluded from formal livestock training programs on animal health, breeding, and modern husbandry practices. These sessions are typically held in central locations or government centers that are less accessible to women in rural areas. This exclusion creates a knowledge gap, hindering women's ability to enhance livestock productivity and welfare.

Underrepresentation in Policy and Extension Services

Women's voices are often absent from policy-making and extension services in the livestock sector. This underrepresentation leads to policies that overlook specific challenges faced by women in livestock production. Consequently, the gendered dynamics of livestock keeping are frequently neglected, perpetuating existing inequalities.



Group Activity:

In groups of 3-4 members, brainstorm and discuss how the issues above can be handled to improve women participation in livestock management.

Make a summary of not more than 700 words, or not more than 15 Power Point slides or a short video of not more than 7 minutes (depending on the agreement of the group).

Prepare to share your summary in the next face-to-face meeting.

10.3 Implications of Gender Issues in Livestock

Reduced Livestock Health

Women are primarily responsible for managing livestock, including their health. Limited access to veterinary services leads to higher disease rates and mortality among livestock, directly affecting women's livelihoods. This results in decreased availability of milk, meat, and eggs—essential sources of nutrition and income for families. The burden of livestock disease disproportionately falls on women, adding financial strain and hindering their ability to invest in education or income-generating activities, which perpetuates cycles of poverty.

Economic Inequality

Women often miss out on the economic benefits of livestock sales due to exclusion from decision-making and ownership. This perpetuates financial dependency on male household members and reinforces poverty. When women manage livestock but men control the profits, the household income distribution becomes skewed, limiting women's investment potential in their needs or businesses.

Increased Workload for Women

Women typically shoulder the bulk of unpaid labor related to animal care, leading to increased workloads and stress. This restricts their ability to engage in education, training, or other income-generating activities, further entrenching traditional gender roles and limiting their economic agency.

Limited Capacity for Innovation and Adaptation

Women's exclusion from training and education programs restricts their access to modern husbandry practices, hindering innovation and productivity. Additionally, their limited access to adaptive resources makes them more vulnerable to climate-related challenges, reducing their capacity to implement effective livestock management strategies during adverse conditions.

Household Food Security and Nutrition

Women's marginalization in livestock management can lead to decreased household food security, as they often manage smaller livestock that contribute to family nutrition. Reduced access to livestock products can adversely affect the nutritional intake of households, particularly among children, compromising their health and development.

Social Marginalization and Structural Barriers

Limited participation in livestock markets reinforces social norms that marginalize their capabilities, perpetuating gender stereotypes. Cultural attitudes that support male dominance in decision-making can hinder efforts to implement gender-sensitive policies, isolating women and reinforcing barriers to networking and economic participation.

LECTURE 11

GENDER ISSUES IN AGRICULTURAL SERVICE DELIVERY AND THEIR IMPLICATIONS FOR AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT

11.1 Introduction

In our farming communities, extension workers play a key role in supporting farmers and promoting agricultural development. As future extension workers, it is important to understand these gender issues so that we can identify and address them, promoting gender equality and inclusivity in our work. So that as we do our work, we can create a more equitable and effective extension system that benefits all farmers, including our mothers and sisters who have over the years been the backbone of our agricultural sector, but often remain invisible and underserved. Gender issues persist in the delivery of agricultural extension services. At the point of delivering this valuable agricultural information, gender issues result in unequal access to agricultural information, support and resources, and often result in women receiving less support or that which they might not be appropriate, desirable, timely for their specific needs. In this section, we will explore how social cultural factors like gender norms and responsibilities shape these inequalities.



Intended Learning Outcomes

By the end of this lecture, you should be able to:

- (i) Explain the gender issues related to agricultural service delivery
- (ii) Discuss the implications of gender issues in agricultural service delivery for agricultural and sustainable development.



In-Text Question:

Before we go into the details of the lecture, I would like to ask you what you understand by the term agricultural service delivery. Why do you think agricultural service delivery is important for agricultural and rural development?

I am sure that you have come up with interesting responses. Let us now look at providers of extension services.

An extension service provider typically has a background in agricultural sciences, rural development, or related fields, with many holding diplomas or degrees in agronomy, animal science, or environmental management. Both men and women serve as extension officers, though efforts are being made to increase female representation, especially to ensure that women farmers, who play a crucial role in agriculture, receive appropriate support. However, statistics show that there are very few women professional in the agricultural service delivery industry.

11.2 Gender Issues in Agricultural Extension Delivery

Unequal Access to Inputs and Services

Women face challenges in accessing veterinary services and livestock inputs due to social norms and logistical barriers. Most veterinary officers are male, and cultural restrictions often limit women's interactions with them. Furthermore, livestock vaccination campaigns are conducted in distant towns, complicating women's access to these vital services. Access to animal feeds is also hindered, as feed stores are often located far from rural areas. This situation exacerbates challenges faced by women, who may have limited mobility in obtaining necessary inputs for their livestock.

Division of Labor

In many cultures, livestock management responsibilities are divided by gender, with women performing most of the unpaid labor related to animal care, such as feeding young animals and tending to smaller livestock like chickens and goats. However, when households receive larger animals (such as cattle) through development projects, the burden of caring for these animals often shifts to women, while men typically reap financial benefits.

Decision-Making

While women manage animals, men generally make key decisions about livestock, including when and how to sell them. Women are seldom allowed to sell livestock independently, particularly higher-value animals like cows. This exclusion extends to control over income from livestock products, such as milk, limiting women's economic power despite their contributions. Cultural barriers further inhibit women's participation in livestock markets, where they often face exploitation. Those who attempt to sell livestock are frequently underpaid, thus widening the gender gap in economic opportunities.

Ownership

Livestock ownership is usually divided by gender, with men tending to larger, more economically valuable animals (like cattle) while women manage smaller animals (like chickens or goats), which yield lower profits. Even when women are provided with larger animals through aid programs, men often assert ownership, complicating women's ability to benefit from livestock production. These practices are deeply rooted in social norms.

Marketing and Economic Participation

Women's engagement in livestock markets is constrained by gender stereotypes associating men with commercial farming and higher-level livestock activities. As a result, women engage in lower-value activities, such as gathering firewood or selling smaller livestock products, while men dominate more profitable sectors of the livestock industry.

Impact of Climate Change

Women, particularly in pastoral communities, are disproportionately affected by climate-related challenges, such as drought. Their limited access to adaptive resources—like drought-resistant livestock breeds or improved fodder—exacerbates their vulnerability. Furthermore, since men control decision-making within these communities, women often lack the ability to implement measures to mitigate climate-related shocks.

Limited Access to Education and Training

Women are frequently excluded from formal livestock training programs on animal health, breeding, and modern husbandry practices. These sessions are typically held in central locations or government centers that are less accessible to women in rural areas. This exclusion creates a knowledge gap, hindering women's ability to enhance livestock productivity and welfare.

Underrepresentation in Policy and Extension Services

Women's voices are often absent from policy-making and extension services in the livestock sector. This underrepresentation leads to policies that overlook specific challenges faced by women in livestock production. Consequently, the gendered dynamics of livestock keeping are frequently neglected, perpetuating existing inequalities.



Case study: Gender issues in agricultural extension

Prof. Nambooze: Academic success that changed the region's history.

Josephine Nambooze : In the same era where a lecturer openly protested against teaching a female student in a mathematics class, one girl went ahead to become the first female doctor in the region, changing the course of history that women were not meant to have an education, let alone sciences, writes Robert Mugagga.

There was a time when a male tutor at the university walked out of class in protest because there was a female student who chose to offer mathematics. Vowing not to come back unless she left, he teased about whether she had mistaken the class for a labour ward. Kenyan activists call for fresh reforms. A child is born: It was about that era that in Kampala suburbs of Nsambya, a modest and little-known couple, Joseph Lule, a school teacher, and Maria Magdalena Lule, a housewife, gave birth to the first of their later-to-be 13 children, a bouncing baby girl. It was this girl, named Josephine Nambooze that would later make history by becoming the first female doctor, not only in Uganda but in the whole of East and Central Africa. One of her siblings, James Ssekajugo, a doctor himself working with the Ministry of Health, says of his sister as having been a brilliant sister that inspired academic brilliance in the rest of them.

It therefore came as no surprise when she later earned herself a scholarship to Mt. St. Mary's Namagunga for her secondary education from St. Joseph Nsambya, where Nambooze attended her primary school. At Namagunga, her desire to do science subjects emerged. The Franciscan sisters of Namagunga exploited their good relations with the Mill Hill Fathers of Namilyango to make special arrangements for her to have her science lessons at Namilyago College, to have access to more facilities and science teachers. Going head-to-head with the male gender: At Namilyago College, Nambooze went head-to-head with the boys in sciences, succeeding at being the first female student at Makerere University Medical School in the mid-1950s.

While in the medical school, Prof. Nambooze lived in Mary Stuart Hall. At medical school, it became clear to her that there was no provision for girls. During her clinical years, she had to stay in the nurses' hostel, and this was before Galloway was built. On graduating, Prof. Nambooze received unprecedented media coverage both locally and internationally. In the field, female patients preferred coming to her due to her novelty and, of course, being a fellow woman, but she would always force some of them to male colleagues so that they could share out the treatment load.

A few years after working, Dr. Nambooze left for further studies in the UK and later the USA, and later received her Licentiate in Medicine and Surgery at Makerere from the Queen Mother, who was then Chancellor of London University, under which the medicine and surgery faculty belonged. After completing her postgraduate studies, Nambooze returned to Uganda in 1962 and was immediately sent to teach at Makerere's medical school. She was at the same time in charge of Kasangati Teaching Health Centre, where she was the first medical officer. After two years, she became a senior lecturer, later on associate professor, and finally full professor.

In 2010, Prof. Nambooze was among the 10 most outstanding female professors that were honoured by Makerere University. Receiving her Gender Equality award, she was quoted as being grateful to her family for their support, especially with a heavy workload of teaching and research. "Being a woman in academia and professor of public health, I have had to delegate my domestic responsibilities, and this has not been easy," she said. On Makerere University Medical School's list of "Notable Alumni.

REFLECTION QUESTIONS

Borrowing from the story of Prof. Nambooze, what gender-related challenges do women face in:

- Pursuing careers in agricultural extension?
- Practicing their profession in agricultural extension?

From the story of Prof. Nambooze, what do you think cultivates the gender-related challenges women face in pursuing and practicing careers in agricultural extension? Identify the underlying causes of these challenges.

Solving gender issues in our community should start with small things we change in our own lives that will create a ripple effect into a much better world. What strategies are you planning to set to ensure your fellow female classmates in your course or school have a supportive environment in pursuit of their careers in agricultural extension?



11.3 Gender issues in agricultural profession

Fewer women professions in the agricultural profession

While the agricultural extension profession plays a crucial role in disseminating knowledge and technologies to farmers and other stakeholders, women are severely under-represented in the delivery of agricultural extension services with the Food and Agricultural organization reporting that women comprise only 25% of the extension work force in the world. This gender gap can be explained by the following factors;

Girls and women face challenges in pursuing agricultural science attributed to traditional, male-dominated organizational dynamics and cultural barriers to women's education in science and agriculture, professional performance, and career advancement (Mangheni *et al.* 2010; FARA and AFAAS 2015). There are fewer young women that enroll to the agricultural profession compared to the young men. For instance, at Makerere University, the number of male students that graduate with agriculture has continuously outweighed the number of female students (see Figure 9.1). This consequently impact the number of women in agricultural extension professions in the general AES and perpetuates the gender imbalance in the profession.

This could be attributed to the fewer girls meet entry requirements for agricultural programs due to various factors, including missing school days due to menstruation. A study by the Ugandan Ministry of Education found that three-quarters of school girls miss 2-3 school days per month due to lack of sanitary pads and bullying by boys. Additionally, many institutions lack adequate facilities for women; for example, Makerere University has six halls of residence for men compared to only three for women.

Further, the scarcity of women in leadership positions and as qualified teachers in agricultural sciences means that girls often lack role models to inspire them to pursue careers in agriculture. This absence of visible female success stories in the field reinforces gender stereotypes and perpetuates discrimination, creating a vicious cycle that discourages women from entering or advancing in the agricultural extension profession.

It is also common that women working as extension officers often face unfavorable working challenges, particularly when posted to rural areas or required to ride motorcycles as part of their job. These concerns can deter women from pursuing or continuing careers in agricultural extension, limiting their participation and representation in the field.

Inadequate competencies and skills among extensionist to integrate gender

Most agricultural trainings focus on technical knowledge and skills during training with less focus on gender and soft skills. Therefore, many extension workers are inadequately equipped to incorporate gender considerations into their work. Historically, gender studies were not included in the curriculum at many agricultural colleges. Even now, gender is often offered as a standalone unit or briefly covered in other courses, leading to a lack of comprehensive understanding of gender issues in agriculture among extension professionals. Inadequate capacity creates a key barrier to gender-responsive services and as such, services tend to be gender neutral

Less visibility of women in key leadership positions in agricultural institutions

Women are underrepresented in leadership positions within agricultural institutions due to long-entrenched historical biases that have limited their access to higher education. For instance, Makerere University, a prominent institution in Uganda, was open only to men from its inception until 1945, with its original motto being “Let us be men”. This historical context has created a persistent gender bias in leadership leading to a gender gap. Fewer women have had the opportunity to gain the necessary qualifications to compete with men for top positions.

This persistent under-representation of women can also be explained by the following reasons;

- Women in leadership positions within agricultural institutions often face the additional challenge of balancing their professional duties with home responsibilities. This dual burden can make it difficult for women to advance in their careers or take on additional leadership roles, further limiting their representation in decision-making positions.
- Women in agricultural extension may have limited access to professional networks, mentorship opportunities, and resources compared to their male counterparts. This disparity can hinder their career advancement and reduce their ability to influence policy and practice in the field

11.4 Gender Issues in ICT and digitalization

In today’s digital age, no technology holds more power over our lives than ICTs. It’s hard to imagine life without our smartphones, and social media. ICTs have transformed the way we communicate, learn, and work. Agricultural extension services are harnessing ICT and digitalization to improve farmers’ lives, through digital platforms, mobile apps, online forums, social media, e-extension services, digital marketplaces, and precision agriculture technologies. However, despite these efforts, gender issues persist, limiting women’s access to these digital extension services. In this section, we will explore these challenges and suggest ways to design gender-responsive digital extension services, address gender-based barriers to ICT adoption, develop content relevant to women’s needs, to ensure inclusive access to digital extension services.



In-text question

What factors hinder women from using digital tools?

Women face significant barriers in accessing digital tools

Women in rural areas are less likely to own mobile phones or have reliable internet access compared to men. In Uganda, only 27% of women use mobile internet, compared to 43% of men. This disparity denies women crucial agricultural information, putting them at a disadvantage. Consequently, many women farmers must share digital devices with male family members, often having access only during limited hours which limits their access to time-sensitive agricultural information.

Women have low digital literacy to use digital tools

Lower digital literacy rates and limited training opportunities: Women farmers frequently have less experience and confidence using digital technologies. A study in Tanzania found that women farmers struggled more with touchscreen interfaces in a crop disease identification app compared to men.

Technology design and content often fail to consider women’s needs and capabilities

Complex farm management apps with text interfaces are often inaccessible to women with low literacy levels. Digital platforms often focus on enterprises typically associated with male farmers. For example, a farm management app might emphasize large-scale cash crop production, neglecting smaller-scale, diverse crop systems managed by women.

Women are underrepresented in leadership positions in AgriTech companies and startups.

Women are often underrepresented in leadership positions in AgriTech companies and startups for example; In an AgriTech incubator program in Nairobi, only 2 out of 15 startups had female co-founders. This gender imbalance extends to the design process, where user testing might primarily involve male farmers, missing crucial feedback from women user.

11.5 Gender Issues in Agro-input supply

Agro-inputs, such as seeds, fertilizers, and pesticides, are key components in increasing crop yields and improving farm efficiency. However, significant gender disparities exist in accessing and utilizing these vital resources. Women, who form a substantial portion of the agricultural workforce in many regions, often face unique challenges that limit their ability to fully leverage agro-inputs. These disparities stem from a complex interplay of social, economic, and cultural factors thus creating barriers as described below.

Women face unequal treatment from agro-input vendors, including underestimation of their agricultural knowledge and reluctance to offer credit or technical advice. This bias stems from societal prejudices about women's roles in agriculture. Vendors may provide incomplete or oversimplified explanations of products to women, avoid discussing advanced farming techniques, hesitate to offer credit assuming women have limited financial capacity, and prefer dealing with male family members. These behaviors are rooted in assumptions that women lack technical knowledge or decision-making power in farming. The bias occurs during interactions at agro-input shops, during field visits by vendors, or in agricultural workshops and training sessions.

Agro-inputs are often not designed with women's needs in mind, and technical information may not be delivered in an accessible manner for women. This issue arises from the historical focus of the agro-input industry on male farmers and takes several forms for example packaging may be too large or heavy for women to handle easily, application methods might require techniques that are difficult for women due to socio-cultural norms; and technical information often uses jargon or assumes literacy levels that may not be accessible to all women.

Farmers may perceive agro-input shops managed by men more favorably than those managed by women. Customers often doubt the technical knowledge of female agro-input dealers, questioning the quality of products sold by women, preferring to seek advice from male staff members, and being less willing to build long-term business relationships with female-run shops.

Women's responsibilities for childcare and household chores can restrict their ability to travel to purchase inputs or attend training sessions. In many societies, women bear a disproportionate burden of unpaid domestic work alongside their agricultural responsibilities. This limits their ability to travel to agro-input shops or attend agricultural training. Social norms may also restrict women's ability to travel alone or to distant locations. The lack of alternative childcare options can prevent participation in agricultural activities outside the home.

11.6 Gender Issues in agro-credit and financial services

Let us start this subsection by making some reflection.



Reflection question:

From what we have covered so far in this course, and from your experience of any community you are very well conversant with, what gender issues do you think can influence agro-credit and financial services in the community?

Well, I don't know what you have written, but I hope it includes some of the information provided below;

Agricultural credit is key in improving production systems. It enables farmers to invest in inputs, finance operations, purchase equipment, manage risk, and adopt new technologies. By providing access to capital, agricultural credit empowers farmers to increase productivity, enhance food security, create employment opportunities, and contribute to economic growth. However, gender inequalities in access to agricultural credit persist, hindering women farmers' ability to fully engage in agricultural production and economic development.

In this section, we will explore these gender issues in agricultural credit

Unequal access to formal finance services

Women often don't have collateral to obtain credit and as such women farmers often struggle to access formal credit due to limited land rights, as land typically serves as the primary collateral for agricultural loans in many rural areas. This challenge is compounded by the fact that women's alternative assets, such as small livestock are undervalued or not recognized by financial institutions.

Many Agricultural credit program are designed to target male farmers

Many agricultural credit programs are designed with male farmers in mind, targeting cash crops typically grown by men and offering loan terms that may not align with women's farming patterns or needs. For instance, programs focusing on large-scale maize production may overlook women's roles in small-scale, diverse crop systems.

Rural women have lower financial literacy to obtain and utilize loans

Rural women often face lower financial literacy levels, leading to difficulties in understanding loan terms, interest rates, and repayment schedules, which may cause hesitation in seeking credit or struggles in using it effectively. Additionally, women frequently lack formal business training and experience, making it challenging to create the business plans required for loan applications, which can result in rejected applications or difficulty in utilizing credit effectively when obtained.

Socio-cultural Barrier limit access to information and travel to obtain loans

Cultural norms in many areas may restrict women's mobility, limiting their ability to travel to financial institutions and reducing their access to information about credit opportunities, often forcing them to rely on male family members to access financial services. Furthermore, the requirement for male approval or guarantors for women's loans, coupled with social pressure to defer financial decisions to male family members, can discourage women from seeking credit independently.

Terms aren't favorable for rural poor women

Rural financial services often have higher operational costs, which are typically passed on to borrowers, disproportionately affecting women who tend to seek smaller loans and thus bear a higher proportion of these costs. Moreover, agricultural credit products frequently fail to account for women's diverse farming activities, lacking options such as savings-linked credit or flexible repayment terms that would better suit women's varied portfolio of farming and off-farm activities.

Women farmers face exploitation by men

Women farmers often face challenges when they access credit, as they may be vulnerable to domestic violence and financial exploitation by their male partners. In some cases, men may use physical violence to take control of the loan proceeds, leaving women with the burden of repayment without the benefit of the funds. Some may still shift the entire burden of household responsibilities like paying fees and buying food to women.



Case Study on Gender Issues in Agricultural Finance

One evening, during the women's weekly group meeting, Namande informed the group about a new program called the Parish Development Model, which she had heard about on her husband's radio station in the morning. Although the program had been running for two months, the women were unaware of it, as household tasks kept them busy and often they rarely left their homes for fear of being called adulterous.

The new program would be a game-changer for the group of women who had been struggling to secure funds for their sweet potato enterprise for the past three years. For years, they had sought loans to boost their business but were rejected by various money lenders who demanded high profits and collateral. The women lacked access to land, which was considered a key collateral for many money lenders, yet many didn't hold it. In the rural district of Mpigi, land was acquired through inheritance, and for many families, it was passed down to sons, who carried on the family lineage. Many money lenders also considered small enterprises like sweet potatoes unprofitable, so even after pleading, the women couldn't succeed.

Upon learning about the project, the group members visited the parish chief, who told them they needed to be formally registered as a farmer organization, with minutes of their previous meetings for a period of one year. The women were later forced to seek guidance from Kayongo, a local bookshop owner, on legal aspects like registration and minute-taking, as many were illiterate, who helped them at a small fee and they received the money one evening where they all sang joyously praising God for the catch.

When the time for repayment arrived, majority of the women in the different groups had defaulted. They asked for help from the area women's Member of Parliament, who organized a meeting to investigate why most women had defaulted. In a tearful meeting, the women revealed that their husbands had taken almost all the money, either by using violence or reporting them to their families, accusing them of being undisciplined. Most women had no bank accounts and had received the money in their husbands' accounts. Some husbands had even neglected their other responsibilities, like paying fees and buying food. The women had been worse off than they thought with the new loans from the Parish model.



Reflection question:

- (i) Analyze the gender issues in the access and management of agricultural credit outlined in the above case study.
- (ii) How do societal expectations, power imbalances, and cultural norms perpetuate the gender issues experienced by the women's group in Mpigi?
- (iii) As a gender expert, what recommendations would you provide for addressing the gender issues and promoting economic empowerment for the women's group in future government projects?

11.7 Implications of gender issues in service delivery

Worsening Gender Inequality

The exclusion of women from agricultural extension services exacerbates existing gender inequalities in rural communities. When women, who are often the primary food producers, have less access to agricultural knowledge, technology, and resources, they are unable to increase their productivity or incomes. This limits their economic empowerment and widens the income and opportunity gaps between men and women.

Increased Poverty among Women and Rural Households

In many developing countries, agriculture is the main source of livelihood, especially in rural areas. When women, who make up a large portion of the agricultural labor force, are excluded from extension services, they miss out on opportunities to improve their farming methods, access new technologies, and boost crop yields. This reduces household incomes and perpetuates cycles of poverty, particularly in female-headed households. The lack of support for women farmers directly impacts the economic well-being of families and rural communities, increasing poverty rates and limiting economic development.

Decreased Agricultural Productivity and Food Security

Women's limited access to agricultural extension services has a direct negative impact on agricultural productivity. Given that women are responsible for a significant portion of food production, especially in subsistence farming, their inability to access vital farming knowledge and resources results in lower crop yields and inefficiencies in food production. This, in turn, compromises food security at both the household and national levels. The exclusion of women farmers from extension programs also reduces the likelihood of adopting sustainable farming practices, further threatening long-term food security and resilience to climate change.

Hindered Rural Development

Rural development is closely linked to the success and productivity of the agricultural sector. When gender issues in extension delivery prevent women from fully participating in agricultural development, it slows the growth of rural economies. Women are key contributors to agriculture and rural livelihoods, and excluding them from critical extension services limits the potential for rural innovation and diversification. This ultimately slows the progress of rural communities in improving infrastructure, education, healthcare, and other public services, deepening rural-urban disparities.

Reduced Women's Empowerment and Participation in Decision-Making

When women are marginalized in agricultural extension delivery, their capacity to influence decisions at both the household and community levels is weakened. Women who lack access to agricultural knowledge, resources, and opportunities are less able to contribute to discussions on agricultural policies or take on leadership roles in farmer organizations and cooperatives. This lack of representation perpetuates gender imbalances in decision-making, both in agriculture and broader societal contexts. As a result, women's voices are underrepresented in policy formation, limiting the creation of gender-responsive policies that could address their specific needs and concerns.

Missed Opportunities for Innovation and Sustainability

Women possess unique insights into farming practices, particularly in areas like crop diversity, post-harvest management, and sustainable resource use. By excluding women from extension services, society loses out on these valuable contributions to agricultural innovation. Women's traditional knowledge of local ecosystems and sustainable practices can play a critical role in addressing environmental challenges such as soil degradation, water scarcity, and climate change adaptation. Ignoring their input not only limits the sector's capacity for innovation but also hampers progress toward achieving sustainability goals in agriculture and rural development.



Lecture summary

For this lecture, we have learnt that agricultural service delivery is essential for boosting productivity and sustainability in rural areas, yet men and women experience significant disparities in access to services like training, extension, and financial support. Women, who form a crucial part of the agricultural workforce, face barriers due to cultural norms, financial constraints, and institutional biases. Extension services are vital for equipping farmers with knowledge, but only 25% of the global extension workforce is female, limiting the effectiveness of these services for women. Women often prefer female extension officers, yet the lack of women in leadership roles restricts gender-sensitive policies and mentorship opportunities.

We have also observed that Gender issues also hinder smallholder women farmers' access to resources, with factors such as time constraints, cultural norms, and low literacy levels further limiting engagement with extension agents. In information and communication technology, women face obstacles like limited access to digital tools and low digital literacy, restricting timely access to agricultural information. Disparities in agro-input supply and credit access also persist, with women encountering biases and domestic responsibilities that hinder their ability to procure inputs. Addressing these challenges requires implementing gender-sensitive strategies that enhance women's access to credit, promote gender-responsive programs, and empower women in leadership roles, fostering their contributions to agricultural development.



Further Readings

For deeper and wider understanding of this topic, read the following references.

Mangheni, M. N., Tufan, H. A., Nkengla, L., Aman, B. O., & Boonabaana, B. (2019). Gender norms, technology access, and women farmers' vulnerability to climate change in sub-Saharan Africa. In *Agriculture and Ecosystem Resilience in Sub Saharan Africa* (pp. 715-728). Springer, Cham.

Diaz, I. I., & Najjar, D. (2019). Gender and agricultural extension: why a gender focus matters. *Journal of Gender, Agriculture and Food Security (Agri-Gender)*, 4(302-2020-401), 1-10.

Manfre, C., Rubin, D., Allen, A., Summerfield, G., Colverson, K., & Akeredolu, M. (2013). Reducing the gender gap in agricultural extension and advisory services: How to find the best fit for men and women farmers. *Meas Brief*, 2, 1-10.

LECTURE 12

GENDER ISSUES IN AGRICULTURAL MARKETING AND ENTREPRENEURSHIP, AND THEIR IMPLICATIONS FOR AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT

12.1 Introduction

You recently learned about gender issues in agricultural services during which you saw how these issues disproportionately affect women. You learnt that the agricultural profession for instance is still male-dominated; and likewise with agricultural digitization, in-put supply and financial services. In today's session we are going to see how similar issues are manifested in agricultural marketing and entrepreneurship and their implications for development.



Intended Learning Outcomes

By the end of this lecture, you should be able to:

- Identify gender issues in agri-marketing and entrepreneurship and devise ways to make it more gender-sensitive.
- Discuss how different aspects of agricultural marketing and entrepreneurship are influenced by gender dynamics in a given context.

12.2 Gender Issues in Agricultural Marketing

Crops segmentation by Gender: In many societies, specific crops are considered “men’s crops” (usually cash crops), while others are considered “women’s crops” (typically subsistence or food crops). This division limits women’s access to more profitable markets, as men dominate cash crops like coffee, cotton, and tobacco, while women focus on food crops for household consumption or local markets. Example: In regions where coffee is grown as a cash crop, men control the production and marketing, even though women may contribute to the labor required for coffee farming.

Mobility Constraints: Women often face cultural and societal restrictions that limit their ability to travel freely. As a result, they engage in informal or local market sales, where competition is higher, and profits are lower compared to formal or international markets. Women may sell small quantities of produce at local markets, while men engage in larger-scale commercial farming, which connects them to higher-value markets. In many rural areas, women are primarily responsible for household duties, reducing their availability to engage in market activities, which affects their access to distant and more profitable markets.

Lack of Market Information: Women are less likely to be members of farmer cooperatives, marketing associations, or trade groups, which provide essential market information, collective bargaining power, and access to better buyers. Women often have limited access to crucial market information, such as price trends, buyer preferences, and demand for specific crops. As a result, they are less informed about marketing opportunities compared to men. Extension services frequently target male farmers, assuming they are the primary decision-makers in households, leaving women without access to critical market-related information.

Control over Earnings: Even when women participate in agricultural production and marketing, they often have little control over the income generated. In many cases, men handle financial transactions and decide how profits are used, perpetuating economic dependency. In many societies, when women sell their agricultural produce, men take control of the money, leaving women with no say over the earnings. Additionally, when women sell agricultural products, men may neglect household responsibilities, such as paying school fees or buying food, leaving women worse off after the sales.

12.3 Impacts of Gender Issues in Agricultural Marketing

1. **Lower Productivity and Income for Women:** Because women often have less access to resources, market information, and decision-making opportunities, their productivity in agriculture tends to be lower. As a result, women earn less money from their farming activities, which contributes to ongoing economic inequality in families and communities.
2. **Continued Poverty:** When women rely on local markets, they usually get lower prices for their products. This leads to low incomes, making it hard for them to escape poverty. This situation can affect their children, limiting educational and job opportunities for future generations.
3. **Increased Vulnerability:** Women who do not control their earnings are more vulnerable to economic problems, such as crop failures or changes in market prices. This financial insecurity makes it harder for them to deal with tough situations, further complicating their economic challenges.



Activity11.1

Reflecting on the community you come from;

- make a list of crops and animals that are often:
- sold by women.
- sold by men
- What are the reasons for these differences?

Implications to agricultural development

- Women's productivity and incomes are constrained/reduced
- To address marketing constraints, interventions need to take into consideration both formal and informal trading arrangements

12.4 Gender issues in Entrepreneurship



Activity 11.2

1. From your experience, what kind of entrepreneurial activities do women in Uganda typically engage in?
2. What kind of entrepreneurial activities do men typically engage in?
3. Why does this situation of differences prevail?

You have learnt from this exercise that despite women's continued participation in the labour market, they remain underrepresented in entrepreneurship. Even where they are involved, the vast majority of women are engaged in entrepreneurial activities purely for survival. When women start businesses, they do it on a smaller scale compared to men due to a number of constraints faced such as limited access to capital, little knowledge of the market and low levels of social mobility to gain access to strategic information.

Women entrepreneurs tend to have low level of education, experience and skill training. These, combined with lack of access to strategic networks seem to limit their access to various privately and publicly offered support services including business development services and information on business growth (Kitching and Woldie, 2004, Davies 2012).



Summary

- Agricultural marketing and entrepreneurship is greatly influenced by gender considerations. The low status that women tend to occupy in society based on societal norms and values placed on women's contributions mean they are the least beneficiaries from their entrepreneurial efforts.
- Engendering entrepreneurship and marketing is not about providing credit or marketing services to women alone but rather doing so in a gender-sensitive manner.
- It is about making these services gender sensitive taking into account the needs and constraints of both men and women.
- Household obligations usually restrict women to using smaller local markets nearer their homes. Contracts for cash are usually made with men as heads of households. Men's generally higher educational levels facilitate their contacts and ease in functioning in the commercial world. Men tend to own and control the means of transportation in households. Restrictions on women's mobility affects their innovation and participation in high value markets



Self-Assessment

Assume you are heading a project that aims to provide economic empowerment to women in a rural context. You have the option of distributing cows, goats or chickens per household. You have been told that in that community, women tend to sell mostly young ruminants and birds while men sell the bigger animals in more lucrative markets far from the community. What would you decide to distribute to the households, keeping in mind both economic value and support to women's entrepreneurial growth? Why?



Further Readings

For deeper understanding of the topic covered do further reading using the references shared below;

- Njuki, J., Kaaria, S., Chamunorwa, A., & Chiuri, W. (2011). Linking smallholder farmers to markets, gender and intra-household dynamics: Does the choice of commodity matter? *The European Journal of Development Research*, 23, 426-443.
- Ampaire, E. L., Katungi, E. M., Tegbaru, A., & Buruchara, R. (2020). Gender differences in agri-marketing farmer organizations in Uganda and Malawi: Implications for R4D delivery mechanisms. *African Journal of Agricultural Research*, 16(6), 916-930.
- Kikooma, J. (2012). Gender and entrepreneurship in Uganda: Women manoeuvring economic space. In *Entrepreneurship-Gender, Geographies and Social Context*. IntechOpen.
- Theeuwes, A., Duplat, V., Wickert, C., & Tjemkes, B. (2021). How do women overcome gender inequality by forming small-scale cooperatives? The case of the agricultural sector in Uganda. *Sustainability*, 13(4), 1797.
- Minniti, M. (2009). Gender issues in entrepreneurship. *Foundations and Trends® in Entrepreneurship*, 5(7-8), 497-621. j

LECTURE 13

INTRODUCTION TO SOCIAL AND GENDER ANALYSIS

13.1 Introduction

Gender issues manifest in our societies in diverse ways. Social and gender analysis helps us identify these issues, how they happen and why they happen. In this topic, you will be introduced to the key elements (dimensions) of social and gender analysis and specially, how to conduct gender analysis. The different frameworks used in social and gender analysis, their respective tools and practical application in conducting gender analysis in the context of agricultural development in Uganda will be discussed in the subsequent topic. The topic aims to introduce learners to the concept of social and gender analysis and how to conduct gender analysis.



Intended Learning Outcomes

By the end of this lecture, you should be able to:

- Explain the meaning of social and gender analysis
- Justify the relevance of social and gender analysis
- Discuss the concept of intersectionality in social and gender analysis
- Conduct social and gender analysis.

13.2 Social analysis

Social analysis refers to the use of qualitative and quantitative social research methods to evaluate the sociocultural, institutional, historical and political context issues related to the general quality of life, social services and social justice of people, so as to design products/services that cater for their various needs (World Bank, 2013). Social analysis is a process that aims to identify the social dimensions of projects including the associated social impacts as well as analyze the different stakeholder perspectives and priorities. Understanding the social implications is critical in ensuring that the proposed intervention or policy contributes to equitable and sustainable development (ibid).

13.3 Gender analysis

Gender analysis is a critical process of examining, synthesizing and understanding the underlying gender patterns and issues in society. It explores and highlights the relationships of women and men in society, and the inequalities in those relationships. Ideally, gender looks at the socio-cultural characteristics of men, women, boys, girls to understand what they do; how they relate with each other; the resources they have; their needs, priorities; and impacts of development on them.

Therefore, gender analysis involves:

- collecting sex-disaggregated data (qualitative and quantitative) on gender parameters about men, women, boys, girls (i.e roles, access to and control over tangible & intangible resources, beliefs, practices, legal frameworks);
- critically examining/analyzing the data for gender disparities, and relationships, and
- making interpretation within the broader social context on how the gender parameters affect the outcomes being studied (Doss 2013).



Activity 12.1

- What is your understanding of the meaning of social analysis and gender analysis?
- What does the concept of social analysis mean to you?
- What does the concept of gender analysis mean to you?
- What is the difference between the two concepts?

13.4 Sex-disaggregated data

Sex disaggregated data is therefore data broken down into male and female categories. This type of data focuses solely on numerical differences based on biological sex, providing a basic understanding of participation or outcomes. Sex disaggregated data may include;

Number of female and male students in the BSc. class

Average age of female and male students in the BARI class

Gender disaggregated data is data that are broken down by sex, where sex is one of the independent variables and where the information also distinguishes among the different activities, aspirations, needs and interests of women and men as well as their access to and control over resources. In simple terms, Sex-disaggregated data reveals the basic numerical differences between men and women involved in an issue, while gender-disaggregated data goes further by examining their distinct roles, responsibilities, needs, and access to resources. It helps explain not just the “what” but also the “why” behind gender differences, providing deeper insights into how social and economic factors affect participation and outcomes for men and women.

The table below illustrates the distinction between sex-disaggregated statistics and gender data using an example of school with Total Enrollment of 100 Children

Girls	Boys	Implications ...
Statistics disaggregated by sex		:
40	60	There are more boys than girls in the school
Gender Data		
10 of 40 are from poor households (25%)	35 of 60 are from poor households (55%)	Poor households make more effort to educate their sons.
Of the ten girls from poor households, 1 girl is from a Muslim family	Of the 35 boys from poor households, 22 are from Muslim families	Must be correlated with proportion of Muslim families in the population at large. Indicates that Muslim families place additional importance on boys' rather than girls' education. Special measures may need to be taken to educate parents about the value of girls' education and support girls' access to school.

Girls	Boys	Implications ...
Girls are absent from school when babies are born	Boys are absent from school in the dry season, to dig ditches	The dry season happens at the same time every year. Teachers can therefore plan the curriculum around those absences. Pregnancies and births are random, so girls are at a disadvantage, even if the total days absent are equivalent.
30% are malnourished	20% are malnourished	This tells us how girls are treated at home relative to boys. Nutritional level affect learning and retention. Boys and girls may both be able to attend school, but they cannot access the opportunity equally if girls are malnourished relative to boys.
Domestic work 4 hrs before and after school, including water, firewood, cooking, cleaning, sibling child care, selected agricultural tasks	Domestic work 30 minutes after school, cattle	This has implications for homework. It has implications for discussion of entitlements, in relation to leisure time as a resource. Men's privilege is often embedded in their position, invisible to the men who experience it. Making this privilege visible is a characteristic outcome of gender specific data and its use in development decision-making.
Parents not supportive of progress of girls on to high school (e.g. 38% of girl students' parents interviewed responded positively)	Parents are determined sons will go to high school (e.g. 77% of boy students' parents interviewed responded positively)	Without family support, social policy interventions or development project-specific inputs may not be long-term or yield lasting change. Work with parents is a possibility; so it work with village/community leaders. Multiple strategies are usually needed to make the necessary structural changes – building on the concept of social relations, the network of community relationships.

Source: Developed by Trish Keays and Sarah Murison at a workshop on Gender Mainstreaming in Tokyo Japan. November 2000 cited in Gender and Development Programme, United Nations Development Programme (GIDP/UNDP): UNDP Learning and Information Pack -- Gender Mainstreaming, June 2000, p.102.

13.5 The relevance of social and gender analysis in policy, programming and project interventions

Understanding Diverse Roles and Responsibilities

Social and gender analysis sheds light on the different roles that men, women, and youth play within agricultural systems. By understanding these roles, policymakers can design programs that target the specific needs of each group, ensuring that interventions are inclusive and effective.

Identifying Barriers to Participation

Such analyses help identify the systemic barriers that prevent marginalized groups from participating fully in agricultural activities. These barriers may include socio-cultural norms, lack of access to training, limited resources, or discriminatory practices. Recognizing these obstacles allows for the development of targeted strategies to overcome them.

Incorporating Intersectionality

It is essential to acknowledge that smallholder farmers are not a homogenous group; they operate within diverse social and gender contexts. By examining the intersections of gender with other factors such as race, class, ethnicity, and age, analysts can gain a deeper understanding of the unique experiences faced by individuals. This intersectionality approach allows for more nuanced policies that address the specific challenges encountered by different groups.

Enhancing Equity in Resource Allocation

Social and gender analysis can inform equitable resource allocation within agricultural development projects. By understanding the specific needs and contributions of men, women, and youth, policymakers can ensure that resources are distributed in a manner that promotes equality and empowers all stakeholders.

Improving Program Effectiveness

Policies and programs informed by social and gender analysis are more likely to be effective, as they are based on a thorough understanding of the social dynamics at play. This can lead to higher rates of adoption for new technologies and practices, improved productivity, and ultimately better development outcomes.

Fostering Sustainable Development

By addressing gender disparities and promoting social equity, social and gender analysis contributes to the overall sustainability of agricultural practices. When women and marginalized groups are empowered, it leads to more resilient communities, enhanced food security, and sustainable resource management.

Encouraging Participation and Ownership

Understanding the unique perspectives and needs of different stakeholders encourages greater participation and ownership of development initiatives. When individuals see their experiences reflected in policies and programs, they are more likely to engage actively, leading to better outcomes and increased accountability.

Informing Gender-Responsive Policies

A thorough social and gender analysis provides the foundation for developing gender-responsive policies that recognize and address the unique challenges faced by women, men, and youth in agriculture. This can help in creating an enabling environment for all stakeholders to thrive.

13.6 Intersectionality in gender and social analysis

Intersectionality means that a person might experience several intersecting forms of social disadvantage or discrimination or vulnerability (such as gender, age, race, caste, poverty, ethnic group, disability, or geographic location etc) all at the same time. Understanding where and how these issues intersect to create a particular set of circumstances enables us to address inequalities appropriately (IFPRI 2020; Steliana Nedera, UNDP 2023). Taking intersectionality into account during gender analysis ensures that the interventions not only more inclusive but also more impactful.



Activity 12.2

Understanding Intersectionality

Watch and listen carefully to the Kimberlé Crenshaw video available here:

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=akOe5-UsQ2o>

Question

Based on what you have learnt about the meaning and value of intersectionality, identify at least ONE variable you should include in the gender and social analysis to fully understand the context and needs of men, women, youth farmers in agricultural interventions.

13.7 The value of considering intersectionality

Exploring the multifaceted dimensions of intersectionality in agricultural research for development yields invaluable analytical benefits and utility. The benefits and utility include;

- **Simultaneity** - intersectionality captures how disadvantages are experienced simultaneously
- **Complexity** - intersectionality acknowledges that life experiences are complex and hence we need to go beyond the monolithic (single aspect of gender) approach to capture the experiential and structural complexity that men, women, and youth face.
- **Irreducibility** - intersectionality avoids reducing experiences to a single category of disadvantage; e.g. women may not be disadvantaged based on gender but also age, disability, geographical location, class, etc. in combinations that are unique to their particular set of circumstances.
- **Inclusivity** - intersectional approaches are 'inclusive and insightful' and hence critical to truly address inequities.

13.8 Dimensions (elements) of social and gender analysis

There are five (5) dimensions to consider for gender and social analysis (adapted from "The Gender Dimensions Framework" developed by Cultural Practice, LLC) as show in figure 11.1 and elaborated below:

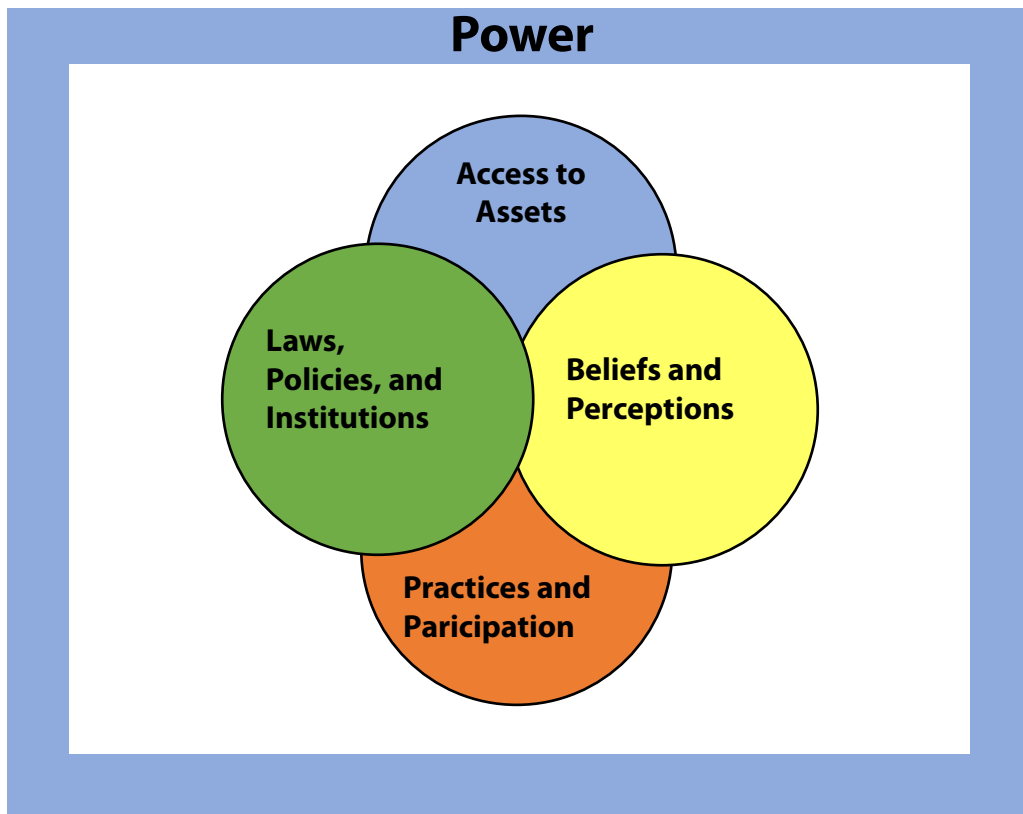


Figure 11.1: Gender Dimensions Framework


Source: Cultural Practice, LLC

Access to, control, and ownership of resources

Men and women often have different levels of access to tangible and intangible assets hence different capacities to produce, earn, store wealth.

One may ask, why focus on assets? Well, assets give individuals the capability to be and to act. Productive assets can generate products or services that can be consumed or sold to generate income and assets are also stores of wealth that can increase in value and offer more pathways out of poverty than increases in income or consumption alone.


The next question one would ask is why access? Again, men’s and women’s assets shape their ability to adopt new agricultural technologies (e.g improved seeds, fertilizer). Lack of access to one asset may affect access to other assets (e.g., lack of access to land may restrict association membership and access to extension services, information, credit, etc.) and the asset inequality may have negative effects on growth in the agriculture sector including economic inefficiencies in production, processing, and marketing.

	<p>Note:</p> <p>Examples of analytical questions</p> <p>What category and proportions of adult and young men and women have access to and/or own land where a new innovation can be demonstrated?</p> <p>What categories of adult and young men, women have capital to engage in the new technologies?</p> <p>What proportion of adult and young men and women have access to the required capital for a implementing a new technology?</p> <p>What proportion of adult and young men and women have access and/or own the required machinery for a implementing a new technology?</p>
---	---

Practices and participation in Farm and off-farm work

This is about examining differences in men’s, women’s and youth economic participation in both farm and off-farm work. In many societies, men, women and youth are responsible for different tasks on the farm and within the household. They also engage in off farm work differently. Within firms men, women and youth have different levels of employment, e.g., 91% of Ugandan men reported having been employed in the past 7 days, compared to 69% of women (DHS 2011). Furthermore, men women and youth are segregated into different sectors of work and consequently have different options for when they do different activities, where they do them, and how they get there (time, space, and mobility).

Why does this matter? These gendered patterns matter because sex-segregated labor markets lead to inefficiencies as human resources are misallocated. On one hand, women may not equally be available to put time into agriculture (e.g., attend training) because of their other responsibilities. Further, competent women workers may be excluded from some more productive and rewarding activities. When women are confined to low-wage, low-productivity jobs, the labor market is less able to respond to new demands that require different or higher-level skills.

	<p>Note:</p> <p>Examples of analytical questions</p> <p>Labor - what do men, women, and youth do to earn a living in this region?</p> <p>What proportions of men, women and youth are engaged in formal employment?</p> <p>What proportion is reached by extension services?</p>
---	---

Laws, policies, and institutions

Men and women are often treated differently by formal and informal laws, policies, and regulations surrounding ownership and inheritance rights; employment opportunities; wages; access to state resources (health, education, basic infrastructure, public goods); access to agricultural services, information, and credit. For example, males own 84% while females own only 16% of titled land in Uganda (Sebina-Zziwa *et al.*, 2004). As a result, females’ access to credit was less than 1% and their access to extension services and technology was negligible despite the fact that the same women contributed 80% of the subsistence agriculture in Uganda (Sebina-Zziwa *et al.*, 2004).

Gender disparities in law, policies, and institutions matter since discriminatory laws, policies, and institutions are inefficient and unjust. Without secure property rights women lack incentives to increase production and use of improved agricultural inputs. Discriminatory policies in credit markets impede women from making production or profit-maximizing choices and discriminatory employment barriers exclude competent women from productive activities (Alkire *et al.*, 2013).

Social and gender norms, patterns of beliefs and perceptions

Social norms are unwritten rules about what is a 'correct' behavior or way of acting often defined in relation to a reference group while gender norms are "the unwritten, informal social rules that determine socially acceptable behavior for men and women" in a given social context (Hillenbrand & Miruka 2019).

Examples of gender norms, beliefs and perceptions

Some examples of gender norms, beliefs and perceptions that can negatively affect agricultural interventions include;

A perception that women are secondary income earners may influence employers to pay women less wages than men.

A social belief that sons should inherit land may override a law establishing equal inheritance rights for women and girls.

Restrictions on where women (and sometimes men, youth) can go and at what time of the day affect access to information and technologies, and hence uptake.

Perceptions by men against joining groups used by NGOs and other actors to provide agricultural services.

Decision making power

This dimension relates to agency which is the ability of people to define their goals, make choices, and act upon them. It can take multiple forms, such as bargaining, negotiation, or resistance to oppression and exploitation (FAO 2023). Agency gives them the power to make decisions on several actions. For example, agency relates to one's ability for decision making on agricultural management practices and income allocation towards application of new innovations. Agency comes from a variety of factors including but not limited to economic resources, status, dominance, beliefs, gender norms, and relations. All of these determine the degree of an individual's control, influence, and command over resources and decision-making.

13.9 How to conduct social and gender analysis

Social and gender analysis consists: (i) Collecting sex-disaggregated data (i.e qualitative and quantitative information on gender characteristics/variables), and (ii) An examination (or analysis) of gender characteristics/variables of interest to identify gender differences and relationships. It therefore involves application of social research methods.



Take Note

Social and gender analysis cannot be isolated from the broader social context. It starts by identifying and explaining gender inequalities in a specific context

Social research enables researchers to learn about people's day-to-day lives (e.g. their perceptions, beliefs, gender norms, experiences, etc...) so as to design programs and interventions that best suit their needs. Conducting social and gender analysis involves the following steps and or processes;

a) Collecting available data


The first step is to collect available data and information and to identify data gaps. Identify relevant data to provide a picture of the gender equality situation in a given context. Data is collected using qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods research to give a comprehensive understanding the underlying issues.

Qualitative social research methods offer a strategy for systematic collection, organization, and interpretation of textual data/information. It follows a well-laid-out, coordinated process (i.e. not incidental, haphazard), and relies on established and well-defined scientific methods. Qualitative methods aim to understand the world based on the lived experiences of respondents.

Quantitative social research employ numeric data collection methods such as surveys on large representative samples. The subsequent statistical analysis yields valuable patterns, averages, predictions, and causal relationships.

Mixed methods research approach combines elements of both qualitative and quantitative research methods within a single study or research project. This integration allows researchers to gain a more comprehensive understanding of the research question or problem by utilizing the strengths of both qualitative and quantitative data in gender and social analysis.

Ensure that data is disaggregated by sex (and other intersecting forms of discrimination, such as age, race, ethnicity and any other factors relevant to shedding light on intersectionality). Draw on existing qualitative and quantitative research findings as a basis for evidence-based decisions.


	<p>Take Note</p> <p>Social and gender analysis involves collection and analysis of field data using a wide range of participatory field methods. This will require a set of skills including:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">Use appropriate tools and frameworksGood facilitation skills of group processes/qualitative interviewingData capture skills for instance taking/recording field notesQualitative and quantitative data analysis, interpretation and reporting
---	--

b) Identifying gender differences and the underlying causes of gender inequalities

The second step is to uncover the underlying causes of gender inequalities and seek to examine and address the cause of the problem in order to fully meet the different needs of women and men. It is important that you examine differences and inequalities in women's and men's lives. Where inequalities between women and men are found, they must be analysed in order to establish both their causes and their effects.

c) Informing policies, programmes and projects

Social and gender analysis is essential to inform design and implementation of development policies, programmes and projects by ensuring that these respond to the different needs of women and men. It therefore supports mainstreaming and integration of a gender perspective at the different stages of an intervention

	<p>Summary</p> <p>Social and gender analysis describes the subtle differences in the roles and practices of men, women, and youth, considering their interactions with laws, institutions, and gender norms. It is important to employ quantitative, qualitative, or a combination of both methods to address specific research inquiries in gender and social analysis.</p>
---	---



Self-Assessment Test

Design a gender analysis study for a new project aimed to promote new drought tolerant varieties among farming communities in Alebtong district.



Further Readings

- EIGE. 2019. Gender Analysis. European Institute for Gender Equality, EIGE. Available here: <https://eige.europa.eu/gender-mainstreaming/tools-methods/gender-analysis>
- March, C., Smyth, I., and Mukhopadhyay, M. (1999). A guide to gender analysis frameworks Oxfam GB, Oxford, UK.

LECTURE 13

INTRODUCTION TO GENDER ANALYSIS FRAMEWORKS AND TOOLS

14.1 Introduction

In the recent class you were introduced to the concept of social and gender analysis where you explored its dimensions and relevance to policy programming. In today's class you will get the opportunity to delve a little deeper into gender analysis where you will understand its tools and the major frameworks used when conducting it.



Intended Learning Outcomes

By the end of this lecture, you should be able to:

1. Apply tools and major frameworks of gender analysis including different scenarios under which they may be applicable.

Gender analysis involves collection and analysis of field data using a wide range of participatory field methods. The process of gender analysis therefore requires a set of skills including good knowledge of gender analysis tools and frameworks, facilitation skills, application of field methods e.g. Semi-structured interviewing, observation and use of qualitative and quantitative data analysis.

You will learn that gender analysis explores and highlights the relationships of women and men in society, and the inequalities in those relationships. It is a critical process of examining, synthesizing and understanding the underlying gender patterns and issues in society. The process involves examining;

The roles and responsibilities of men (M), women (W), girls (G), boys (B)

the relationships between M, W, G, B

the pattern of their access to and control over resources

the constraints each faces and opportunities at their disposal

the socio-economic and environmental factors that influence their access to resources and opportunities

Impacts of development interventions on M, W, B, G.

It is therefore is a study of the socio-cultural characteristics of men, women, boys, girls to understand what they do; how they relate with each other; the resources they have; their needs, priorities; and impacts of development on them. It takes into account the intersecting factors e.g race, class, ethnicity and age for a given society at a specific point in time. In the process, it critically examines how differences in gender roles, activities, needs, opportunities and rights/entitlements affect men, women, girls and boys in certain situation or contexts.

There are different types of GA gender analysis frameworks that have been developed. Each of framework is suited to particular contexts and problems. The choice of framework therefore depends on the task at hand, the context, and resources available. In the section below, I bring you the major frameworks for gender analysis, i.e the Harvard Analytical Framework, the Moser Framework, the Gender Analysis Matrix and the Women Equality and Empowerment Framework. These Existing frameworks only serve as a practical starting point. They often need to be adapted to suit the various needs and contexts. For example, adaptation can involve combining tools from different frameworks to create a hybrid version or adapt components of different gender frameworks by adding own ideas.

14.2 The Harvard Analytical Framework

Background

The Harvard Analytical Framework, also known as the Gender Roles Framework, was introduced in 1985 and is recognized as one of the early frameworks for gender analysis. Developed by researchers at the Harvard Institute for International Development in partnership with USAID's Women in Development (WID) office, this framework emerged during a time when the 'efficiency approach' to including women in development was gaining traction.

Aims of the Framework

The framework aims to show the economic reasons for investing resources in both women and men. Its purpose is to help planners create more effective projects and improve overall productivity by mapping the contributions of both genders within a community and highlighting the significant gaps.

The Harvard Analytical Framework Tools

The framework is a grid or matrix used for collecting micro-level data (specifically at the household and community levels). This organizational tool is flexible and can be adjusted for various contexts. It consists of four main components.

Component 1: The Activity Profile

This component lists all relevant productive and reproductive tasks, addressing the question of who performs which activities. The level of detail required depends on the project's focus, with more detailed information needed for tasks directly related to the project. For example, in an agricultural project, the profile would outline each task associated with different crops, specifying gender roles in activities like land preparation and planting. Additional factors to examine may include:

- Gender and age categories: determining if tasks are carried out by Men Women, Boys or Girls.
- Time allocation: assessing the percentage of time devoted to each task and whether it occurs daily or seasonally;
- Activity location: clarifying where tasks are performed to reveal patterns of movement, such as whether work is done at home, in family fields, or elsewhere in the community.

Component 2: The Access and Control Profile - Resources and Benefits

This tool helps identify the resources needed to perform the tasks outlined in the Activity Profile, highlighting who has access to these resources, who controls their use, and who ultimately benefits from their application. Access signifies the ability to use a resource but does not imply control. For example, women may have access to political processes without significant influence over the outcomes. Control over a resource means having the power to make decisions regarding its use or sale.

Component 3: Influencing Factors

This tool charts the elements that affect the differences in gender roles, access, and control outlined in the previous Profiles. Identifying these influencing factors enables an understanding of which elements impact men's or women's roles or resources and how they can, in turn, influence gender dynamics. This component aims to help anticipate the necessary inputs to ensure that development interventions are successful from a gender perspective. Influencing factors encompass those elements that shape gender dynamics and present varying opportunities and challenges for individuals. They are diverse and interconnected, including community norms and social hierarchies, demographic factors; institutional frameworks, economic conditions, political events, legal frameworks; training and educational opportunities; community attitudes towards development workers.

Strengths

Comprehensive Role Analysis: Harvard Framework offers an in-depth analysis of gender roles, providing a thorough understanding of labor division and resource distribution essential for grasping gender dynamics in various contexts.

Practical Orientation: By emphasizing practical gender needs, this framework effectively identifies and addresses the immediate, tangible requirements of different genders, which aids in developing targeted interventions.

Foundation for Policy Development: The framework's clear delineation of gender roles and needs serves as a vital resource for informing policies and programs aimed at mitigating gender disparities.

Wide Applicability: Due to its foundational nature, the Harvard Framework is adaptable across various settings, from rural development initiatives to urban policy formulation.

Limitations

Overemphasis on Roles: The framework's focus on gender roles may reinforce traditional stereotypes instead of challenging the underlying gender norms.

Strategic Needs Underplayed: While the framework acknowledges strategic gender needs, it often lacks a clear strategy for addressing deep-seated gender inequalities.

Dynamic Social Changes: The model may not adequately reflect the rapidly evolving nature of gender roles and relations in today's world, particularly in light of changing socio-economic circumstances.

Lack of Intersectional Perspective: The framework tends to analyze gender in isolation, potentially neglecting how it intersects with other critical factors such as race, class, and ethnicity, which can significantly influence roles and access to resources.



Reflection Question:

Having read about the Harvard Analytical Framework, are there situations in your community where you think it could be applicable?

14.3 Gender Analysis Matrix (GAM)

Background

The Gender Analysis Matrix (GAM), developed by Rani Parker with a Middle Eastern NGO, addresses the need for a grassroots framework in participatory planning. It responds to constraints like limited funding, time, illiteracy, and inadequate quantitative gender data. This information is sourced from *Another Point of View: A Manual on Gender Analysis Training for Grassroots Workers* by A. Rani Parker (UNIFEM, 1993).

Aims of the Framework

The GAM aims to assess the differing impacts of development interventions on women and men through community-based analysis of gender differences. It serves as a transformative tool, encouraging communities to challenge their assumptions about gender roles.

- The Framework
- The GAM is built on key principles:
- Community members hold necessary knowledge for gender analysis.

External technical expertise is only needed for facilitation.

Transformation occurs only when those analyzed conduct the analysis (Parker 1993).

Community groups, ideally with equal numbers of women and men, fill out the GAM, which can be used throughout the project cycle to evaluate potential and actual impacts on gender relations. Objectives include assessing gender effects during planning, design adjustments based on gender considerations, and evaluating broader program impacts (Parker 1993).

Example of GAM

	Women	Men	Household	Community
Labour				
Time				
Resources				
Culture				

Source: Parker 1993

GAM Tool 1: Analysis at Four Levels of Society

The GAM evaluates impacts at four levels: women, men, households, and community, with the option to include additional levels based on project goals. Definitions are as follows:

- **Women:** All women in the target group or community.
- **Men:** All men in the target group or community.
- **Household:** All individuals living together, defined by community standards.
- **Community:** Everyone within the project area (Parker 1993).

GAM Tool 2: Analysis of Four Types of Impact

- **The GAM assesses impacts in four areas:** labor, time, resources (access and control), and socio-cultural factors.
- **Labor:** Changes in tasks, skill levels, and capacity.
- **Time:** Changes in time required for project-related tasks.
- **Resources:** Changes in access and control over resources due to the project.
- **Socio-cultural factors:** Changes in social lives, including gender roles and status (Parker 1993).

Using the GAM

Community groups with equal representation of women and men, facilitated by a development worker, conduct the GAM. Regular reviews (monthly for three months, then quarterly) are recommended to validate the matrix.

- Discussion points after filling out the GAM include:
- Are effects desirable and aligned with project goals?
- How does the intervention impact non-participants?
- What unexpected results arose?

Group members should denote outcome desirability with symbols:

- A plus sign (+) for desirable outcomes.
- A minus sign (-) for contrary outcomes.
- A question mark (?) for uncertain outcomes.

These symbols illustrate the varied effects of the intervention without oversimplifying complexities. The GAM complements standard analysis tools, such as monitoring tools and needs assessment

Strengths of the Gender Analysis Matrix (GAM)

- **Community Participation:** GAM involves community members in the analysis process, allowing them to voice their own gender-related issues. This helps create a sense of ownership over the outcomes and leads to better, more culturally fitting solutions.
- **Easy to Use:** The framework is straightforward and can be understood by people without much training in gender analysis. It breaks down complex issues into simple categories—like labor, time, resources, and culture—that can be quickly assessed.
- **Broad Perspective:** The matrix looks at many factors that affect gender roles and considers their impact at different levels, like individuals, households, and communities. This helps show how different aspects of gender are connected.
- **Focus on Action:** GAM links the analysis directly to potential solutions. It helps identify specific areas where gender inequality exists and supports the development of strategies to address these issues.

Limitations of the Gender Analysis Matrix (GAM)

Oversimplification: While the framework provides a clear structure, it might not fully capture the complexity of gender issues, leading to generalizations or reinforcing stereotypes.

- **Static Nature:** GAM gives a snapshot of gender relations at a specific time and might not show long-term changes or trends. Regular updates can be resource-intensive.
- **Dependence on the Facilitator:** The quality of the analysis relies on the skills of the facilitator. If they have biases or lack experience, it can affect the results. This requires careful selection and training of facilitators.
- **Limited Focus:** GAM mainly looks at project-level impacts and might miss larger structural inequalities and broader policy issues that influence gender dynamics.
- **Participation Bias:** The analysis can be affected by power dynamics in the community, where more vocal individuals might dominate discussions, leading to the exclusion of quieter or marginalized voices.
- **Time and Resource Needs:** Implementing GAM can take a lot of time and resources, especially in larger communities, and requires engagement from the community.
- **Raising Expectations:** The participatory nature of GAM might create high expectations for immediate action. If those expectations are not met, it could lead to disappointment among community members.

14.4 The Moser Framework

The Moser Framework is a gender analysis tool developed by Caroline Moser in the early 1980s as part of the Gender and Development (GAD) approach. It focuses on key concepts like women's triple role (reproductive, productive, and community roles), the differentiation between practical and strategic gender needs, and a policy matrix that evaluates various development interventions. The framework helps ensure that development initiatives are inclusive, equitable, and effective by considering how men and women contribute to and benefit from these initiatives.

Components of the Moser Framework:

Gender Roles Identification (Triple Role)

This component assesses the gender division of labor by examining who performs reproductive, productive, and community roles. Women often take on invisible work in reproductive and community roles, such as childcare and social organizing, while men focus on income generation. Key questions include: Who handles tasks like child care, cooking, and cleaning? Who is involved in income-generating activities? Who manages or participates in community efforts, such as local service improvements? For example, in rural agricultural settings, women often balance farming, household duties, and community organizing, while men focus primarily on paid work outside the home.

Gender Needs Assessment

This section evaluates both practical and strategic gender needs. Practical needs are immediate, such as access to clean water, healthcare, and income-generating opportunities. Strategic needs focus on long-term changes in gender roles, including legal rights and reducing women's domestic burdens. Key questions are: What services or policies are needed for women to fulfill their roles effectively? What changes are necessary to shift gender roles and achieve equality? For instance, a microfinance project could support women with access to childcare and educate them on their legal rights to enhance their economic and social standing.

Control of Resources and Decision-Making

This component analyzes the power dynamics within households, focusing on who controls resources like income and land and who makes key decisions. Important questions include: Who owns and controls resources such as land and income? Who decides how money is spent? Are decisions collaborative, or does one gender dominate? For example, a woman may earn income from selling farm produce, but her husband might still control how the income is used, limiting her autonomy.

Balancing the Triple Role

This matrix aims at understanding whether development interventions consider women's need to balance their reproductive, productive, and community roles. Questions include: Will the intervention increase a woman's workload in one role without helping her manage the others? Does the intervention support women in balancing these responsibilities? For example, an agricultural training program that requires women to attend sessions during the day may interfere with their household responsibilities, which could create an imbalance in their roles.

WID/GAD Policy Matrix

This matrix evaluates the broader development approach of an intervention and how it addresses gender inequality and promotes women's empowerment. Questions to assess include: Does the intervention treat women as passive beneficiaries, or does it involve them as active participants in decision-making? Does it focus on improving women's productivity without addressing structural inequalities that limit their access to resources and power? Does the project challenge or reinforce traditional gender roles and power dynamics? The key focus is to evaluate whether the approach actively transforms gender relations and promotes equity.

Strengths of the Moser Framework

Comprehensive View: The Moser Framework looks at both practical needs and strategic gender interests, providing a broad understanding of gender issues.

Focus on Policy: It emphasizes the need for policy changes, helping to integrate gender considerations into larger development strategies.

Empowerment Focus: The framework highlights the importance of women's empowerment and its potential to drive social change.

Practical Approach: It suggests that addressing immediate needs can help tackle deeper gender inequalities.

Cultural Adaptability: The principles of the framework can be applied in different cultural and social settings, making it a useful tool for gender analysis.

Weaknesses of the Moser Framework

Oversimplification: The focus on practical and strategic needs may overlook the complex nature of gender issues.

Implementation Issues: Making policy changes can be challenging, especially in environments that resist gender equality.

Short-Term Focus: There is a risk that concentrating on immediate needs could distract from long-term goals.

Assumption of Progress: The framework assumes a straight path from meeting practical needs to addressing deeper gender inequalities, which may not always be the case.

Reliance on Policymakers: Its success depends on policymakers' willingness and ability to follow through on its recommendations.

14.5 Women's Equality and Empowerment Framework

Background

The **Women's Empowerment (Longwe)** Framework was developed by **Sara Hlupekile Longwe**, a gender and development consultant based in Lusaka, Zambia. This framework assists planners in critically assessing women's empowerment and gender equality in development initiatives. Longwe characterizes women's empowerment as the process of enabling women to attain equal status with men, fostering their participation in development, and ensuring they have equal control over production factors (Longwe, 1991; Oxfam, 1994).

Aims of the Framework

The primary objectives of the Longwe Framework are to:

Encourage planners to examine and define women's empowerment and equality.

Critically assess how effectively development interventions support women's empowerment.

Concept of the Framework

Longwe critiques conventional methods that measure gender equality based solely on sectoral achievements (such as education and employment). Instead, it emphasizes women's roles in the development process. The framework argues that development should empower individuals to overcome poverty, framing poverty as a consequence of oppression and exploitation rather than merely a lack of productivity.

Levels of Equality

The framework outlines five hierarchical levels of equality to evaluate women's empowerment in development interventions:

- **Welfare:** Assesses women's material welfare in relation to men, encompassing access to resources like food, income, and healthcare.
- **Access:** Focuses on equal access for women to production factors such as land, credit, and public services, often necessitating legal and administrative reforms.
- **Conscientisation:** Involves cultivating an awareness of gender roles and the belief that these roles can be transformed. This level underscores the importance of sexual equality and equitable labor distribution.
- **Participation:** Evaluates women's involvement in decision-making processes across all project implementation levels, ensuring they have equal representation and influence.
- **Control:** Refers to women's capacity to make decisions regarding production factors and resource distribution, achieving a balance of control between men and women.

Levels of Recognition of Women's Issues

Longwe highlights the significance of recognizing women's issues within project objectives, identifying three levels:

- **Negative Level:** Women's issues are unacknowledged, often leading to deteriorating conditions for women.
- **Neutral Level:** Women's issues are recognized but without a commitment to improving their status, only ensuring they are not left worse off.
- **Positive Level:** There is a proactive concern for women's issues, aimed at genuinely enhancing their empowerment and equality.

Applications

The Longwe Framework serves as a valuable tool for gender and development practitioners to evaluate their organization's commitment to women's equality. By analyzing the levels of equality addressed by a project, practitioners can assess its potential effectiveness in empowering women.



In-Text Question:

Having studied the Harvard Analytical Framework (HAF), the Gender Analysis Matrix (GAM), and the Moser Framework, in any agricultural community of your choice, which one of the three would be the best for gender analysis of that community, and why?



Summary

- Gender analysis is a critical process of examining, synthesizing and understanding the underlying gender patterns and issues in society.
- Gender analysis is important for planning, monitoring and evaluation and provides empirical evidence to avoid stereotypes.



Self-Assessment

WENDI is an international NGO focused on improving the livelihoods of rural communities. The NGO has just won a grant to implement a new project in Masaka District aimed at enhancing access to new technologies and equipping the target beneficiaries with knowledge and skills for improved agricultural productivity. Assume you have been hired by this NGO as an expert in gender and agricultural development. Your task is to conduct a study to inform and guide implementation of interventions for this 5-year new project to ensure that it achieves equitable participation and impact on men, women, boys and girls. *Discuss and describe how you would go about the task of conducting a rigorous gender analysis.*

Questions:

1. Which gender analysis framework would you select to use?
2. Which tools? Provide your justification for the choice.



Further Readings

- Moser, C. (1993). *Gender, Planning and Development*, Routledge, London.
- March, C., Smyth, I., and Mukhopadhyay, M. (1999). *A guide to gender analysis frameworks* Oxfam GB, Oxford, UK.
- Nchanji, E. B; Siri B. N; Odhiambo C. A. (2022). *A Gender Training Manual: The Driver of Smallholder Agricultural Revolution in Africa*. The Alliance of Bioversity International and the International Center for Tropical Agriculture. Nairobi, Kenya. 43p

LECTURE 15

GENDER BASED CONSTRAINTS AND OPPORTUNITIES

15.1 Introduction

Here, we shall define the concepts of Gender Based Constraints (GBCs) and Gender Based Opportunities (GBOs) and how these are manifested in our societies drawing implications for agricultural development. We shall also define the term 'women empowerment', and discuss its facets and dimensions. We shall also analyze Agency as a key dimension of women's empowerment. Issues of women empowerment in agricultural research and development programmes will be discussed. The aim of this topic is to help you as learners gain clarity on the concepts gender-based constraints (GBCs) and gender-based opportunities (GBOs) as critical components to guide the process of identifying effective strategies for addressing GBCs.



Intended Learning Outcomes

By the end of this lecture, you should be able to:

1. Articulate key gender-based constraints in agri-food systems
2. Explain the impact of gender-based constraints on agricultural development
3. Articulate the manifestations of gender-based constraints within different settings.
4. Define the concept of women empowerment
5. Discuss the dimensions of women empowerment in the context of agricultural development

15.2 Gender-based constraints

Gender-Based Constraints (GBCs) are those that women or men face that are a result of their gender. These come about as a result of lack of power to make independent or joint decisions especially by the women across different dimensions of life.

These constraints can be experienced as limited rights to access and use land, extension, health and other services by women in the male dominated patriarchal settings requiring women to be more involved in domestic work. Key to note is that constraints that are not based on gender are referred to as general constraints which could apply to both men and women irrespective of their gender.



Take Note

GBCs result from gender relations (in different domains) that **inhibit** men's or women's access to resources or opportunities of any type

In addressing gender constraints, it is important to note that these constraints and opportunities are contexts specific and they vary over time and place. Across the different domains of society such as roles and responsibilities, power and gender relations create inequalities between men and women in society which can influence how men and women fair in the empowerment indicators especially the resources. In the resources domain men tend to be in charge of access and control of large resources such as land with women only having usufruct rights. This could be detrimental for women's contribution to household food security and income where women cannot use land as collateral to access credit in the face of such constraints. Also, the limited power by women in society hinders the extent to which they (women) can voice their concerns to influence how to use the available resources for improvement of their choices and goals for life. The type and degree to which a woman (or man) experiences gender constraints may be very different in a household and in a work context.

**In-Text Question:**

In your own words, how can you define gender constraints?

15.3 Gender-based opportunities

Gender-based opportunities (GBOs) can be defined as the avenues/chances through which an individual gets given privileges by virtue of their gender. The gender opportunities include affirmative actions for women. For example, in education women get additional points to make it possible for them to competitively gain entry to university education. In other areas, like employment, women are always encouraged to apply. In issues of resource access and use, men's access to land increases the chances for men to engage in agricultural production using promoted technologies because of their access and control over land.

15.4 Women empowerment

What is empowerment?

Empowerment a process by which those who have been denied the ability to make strategic life choices (life defining choices) acquire such ability, and transform those choices into personally desired actions and outcomes (Kabeer, 1999; Narayan 2015).

What is women empowerment?

Women Empowerment is when women attain a situation when they can do the things they find desirable personally but which society expectations have denied them. It is about expanding women's assets and capabilities to participate in, negotiate with, influence, control and take charge of their lives. It is both a process and an outcome. Empowerment of women and girls is the expansion of choice and strengthening of voice through the transformation of power relations, so women and girls have more control over their lives and futures. Expansion of choice is prominent in many mainstream development approaches to women and girls' empowerment. This is especially true where change at the individual level is emphasised, for example through entrepreneurship.

Though not explicitly articulated in many mainstream development approaches, the strengthening of voice also merits a central place in defining empowerment. Expanding women and girls' choice and voice engages directly with how power operates in their lives. It is not possible to talk about empowerment without talking about power. Power relations shape disempowerment and disadvantage of women and girls, as well as their opportunities and well-being (Eerdewijk, Wong, Vaast, Newton, Tyszler & Pennington, 2017).

Empowerment of women cannot happen by having women in silos but with deliberate engagement of men in the process of change. Empowerment should not be seen as a zero-sum game where gains for women automatically imply losses for men.

Women empowerment as a process and outcome

Women empowerment as an outcome, concerns the degree of freedom women and girls have to control and influence their lives and futures. The outcomes of empowerment can be increased bargaining and decision making power, and self-efficacy. As a process, it highlights the change that is required for empowerment to be a reality. It is through experiencing, undertaking and directing empowerment processes that women and girls expand their aspirations, strengthen their voice, exercise more choice and take more control over their lives and futures (Eerdewijk, Wong, Vaast, Newton, Tyszler & Pennington, 2017)

How women disempowerment manifests in society

Disempowerment is a state of being disempowered where an individual has limited choices for their lives. This can manifest in the following ways in different communities:

Unequal distribution of productive resources e.g land, inputs, information, labour, and capital.

Lack of participation and voice

Biased laws and policies

Discriminatory gender norms and practices

Unequal distribution of opportunity and benefits

Unequal division of labour including care work - time poverty

Empowerment occurs when the systemic/deep-seated constraints (mentioned above) that disempower women/girls are removed, and they (women/girls) gain the ability to exercise choice and voice (agency). Empowerment can be attained where strategies challenge disempowerment by tackling systemic constraints to women and girls' ability to exercise choice and voice. It involves strengthening women and girls' voice and enhancing their capacity in public and private domains (e.g. in households, community, groups, market and state) to:

Speak up and be heard

Shape and share in discussions

Make and influence decisions that affect their lives

Negotiate and advocate for their interests

It also entails the transformation of power relations, transformation of power relations occurs when women and girls exercise their agency and take action.

The dimensions women's empowerment

Empowerment is a process of change involving three (3) interrelated dimensions; resources, agency and achievements (Kabeer, 1999) (Figure 13.1).



Figure 14.1 Agency resources and Achievements framework. Source Kabeer (1999)

Agency

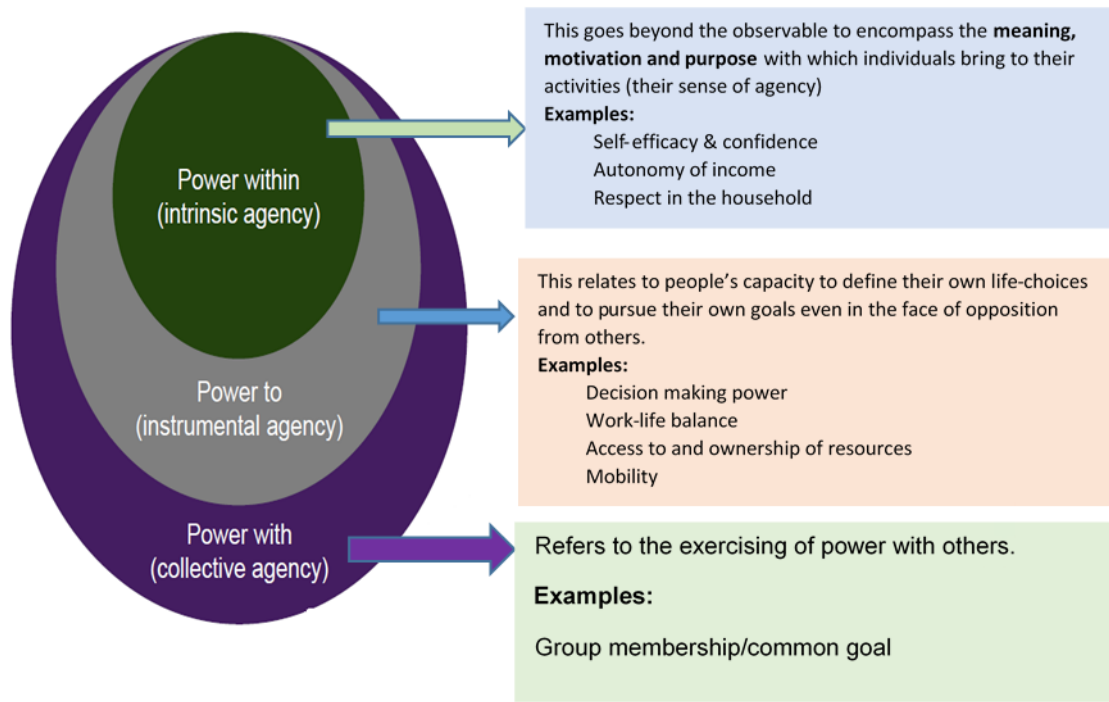
What is agency?

Agency is the ability to define/set one's own goals, make choices, and act upon them i.e. the capacity to define own choices and pursue own goals even in the face to opposition from others (or where this ability was previously denied). It can take multiple forms, such as bargaining, negotiation, or resistance to oppression and exploitation (FAO 2023). It therefore includes the power to make decisions; and the ability to bargain/negotiate.

Agency gives women (adult and young) the power to make decisions on several actions.

Different forms of Agency

Men and women (adult and young) can exercise agency as individuals or collectively for instance through membership in formal and informal networks. Increasing women's power in empowerment strategies does not refer to power over, or controlling forms of power, but rather to alternative forms of power: power to; power with and power from within which focus on utilizing individual and collective strengths to work towards common goals without coercion or domination.



In-Text Question:

For each of the agencies discussed (intrinsic, instrumental, and collective), can you provide two additional examples to further illustrate each type?

Resources

Resources are defined as the various materials, human, social and economic resources that serve to enhance one's ability to exercise/make choice. Access and ownership of resources is often influenced by the rules and norms that govern their distribution and exchange in different institutional arenas e.g. clan, family, farmer groups etc. Rules and norms give certain actors authority over others – to determine the principles of distribution and exchange. The power holders include household heads, elites, chiefs, clan heads (who are often men) are usually endowed with decision making authority and resources e.g. income, land etc.

Achievements

Achievement of one's goals which is often defined as wellbeing outcomes includes the results of the empowerment process which can be higher income, better health, better education and increased self-efficacy.



Summary

Empowerment is a complex multi-dimensional process and an outcome that can lead to the improvement of women's socio-economic status at individual, community, national and regional levels. Empowerment can be measured as a process or an outcome using qualitative and quantitative methods. However not every initiative targeting women is empowering but rather could be reaching or benefitting women to pave way for empowerment where individuals make independent choices and decisions for their own lives.



Self-Assessment Exercise


Using illustrative examples, explain how agricultural services/agricultural development projects can address GBCs and promote women's empowerment

LECTURE 16


STRATEGIES FOR ADDRESSING GENDER BASED CONSTRAINTS

16.1 Introduction

In the last class we looked at some constraints to women's empowerment including what constitute facets to empowerment. In today's class, we are going to look at strategies used for addressing gender-based constraints. The purpose of this topic is to enable you learn how to apply strategies in real-life work environment that seek to empower and improve the livelihoods of women.

	<p>Intended Learning Outcomes</p> <p>By the end of this lecture, you should be able to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">Discuss the Reach, Benefit, Empower and Transform frameworkDevelop strategies for mitigating gender-based constraintsDesign strategies and indicators of an agricultural related intervention focused on women empowerment
---	---

Before we get deep into this lecture, I would like you to reflect on the following question.

	<p>Reflection question:</p> <p>In the previous lecture you learnt about gender constraints and opportunities, can you think of strategies that can be used to address the constraints that were identified?</p>
---	--

I am sure that you have identified innovative strategies. It would be interesting to read them. Now let us see below additional information about the strategies.

16.2 Women's Agency in Rural Development

Gender-based constraints refers to a situation where women are denied access to certain strategic resources necessary for the attainment of their empowerment. One way of addressing these constraints is to ensure women's agency is supported.






Agency is the ability to define/set one's own goals and act upon them i.e the capacity to define own choices and pursue own goals even in the face to opposition from others (or where this ability was previously denied). It includes the power to make decisions; ability to bargain/negotiate

Increased agency for women leads to improvements in women's welfare and that of their children; Economic development can improve conditions such as higher incomes; greater access to services; and expanded infrastructure that allow agency to be exercised; however; this potential impact relies in part on women earning their own income to acquire bargaining power.

All these depend on efforts that address constraints such as inheritance; land ownership; and protection against violence. Social norms can prevail over laws or incomes to the detriment of gender equality; and can inhibit women's collective agency by limiting their political roles or access to positions of power. To counter these barriers; policies need to focus on providing incentives and needed information which; in turn; can influence outcomes and factors that shape women's individual agency.

16.3 Women's Empowerment Framework in Practice in Uganda

Women's empowerment in Uganda is anchored on five dimensions based on Longwe's framework of empowerment, as shown below:

LEVELS OF EMPOWERMENT	DESCRIPTION
CONTROL 	Women and men have equal control over factors of production and distribution of benefits, without dominance or subordination.
PARTICIPATION 	Women have equal participation in decision-making in all programs and policies.
CONSCIENTIZATION 	Women believe that gender roles can be changed and gender equality is possible.
ACCESS 	Women gain access to resources such as land, labor, credit, training, marketing facilities, public services, and benefits on an equal basis with men. Reforms of law and practice may be prerequisites for such access.
WELFARE 	Women's material needs, such as food, income, and medical care, are met.

This framework begins with welfare, noting that once women's basic needs are addressed, the next target is to ensure they gain access to resources such as land, credit and other benefits. This newfound confidence then enables their self-belief that prevailing gender roles can be changed and that equality is possible. Women therefore begin to participate in different aspects of household and societal decision making with the resultant effect being women gaining more control over factors of production and distribution of benefits.



In-Text Question:

How effective do you think the Women's Empowerment Framework in Uganda is in addressing and eliminating gender-based constraints, and does it adequately promote inclusivity for all women?

16.4 Women Empowerment Strategies and Indicators

Having discussed empowerment at some length already, it is now time to focus on its indicators that can facilitate measurement of its attainment. A 'gender-responsive', 'gender-sensitive', or 'gender' indicator measures changes relating to gender equality over time. Such indicators can be quantitative, based on sex disaggregated statistical data - which can be measured separately for men and women. Literacy is an example. Gender equality indicators can also capture qualitative changes - for example, increases in women's levels of empowerment or in attitudinal changes to gender equality. Measurements of gender equality might address changes in the relations between men and women, the outcomes of a particular policy, programme or activity for women and men, or changes in the status or situation of men and women, such as levels of poverty or participation.

These indicators can be captured quantitatively or qualitatively.

Quantitative methods of data collection produce quantifiable results. They focus on what can be counted, such as percentages of women and men in parliament, male and female wage rates or school enrolment rates for girls and boys. Quantitative data can show changes in gender equality over time - for example, a common quantitative indicator is the number of girls in school compared to boys.

Qualitative methodologies capture people's experiences, behaviours, opinions, attitudes and feelings - for example, women's experiences of the constraints or advantages of working in the informal sector, or men's and women's views on the causes and consequences of domestic violence. Participatory methodologies such as focus group discussions and social mapping tools are often used to collect data for qualitative indicators. Qualitative data can also be collected through surveys measuring perceptions and opinions. One example is 'Program H' which was developed in Latin America to promote more gender-equitable attitudes among young men.

One of the most used indicators is the Gender Status Index (GSI) that is based on three components: social power, economic power and political power. Each of the three main components has the same weight in the calculation of the GSI. Within each block, each component also carries the same weight.

The social power component (capabilities) consists of two sub-components: - Education: measured by levels of school enrolment and dropout, and literacy levels of girls and women. - Health: measured by levels of child health, new HIV infection and time spent out of work through illness.

The economic power component (opportunities) consists of three sub-components: - Income: measured by women's income from agriculture, from work in the formal and informal sectors and from cash transfers. - Time use or employment: measured by time spent in economic activities, and in employment. - Access to resources: measured by access to the means of production and to management positions.

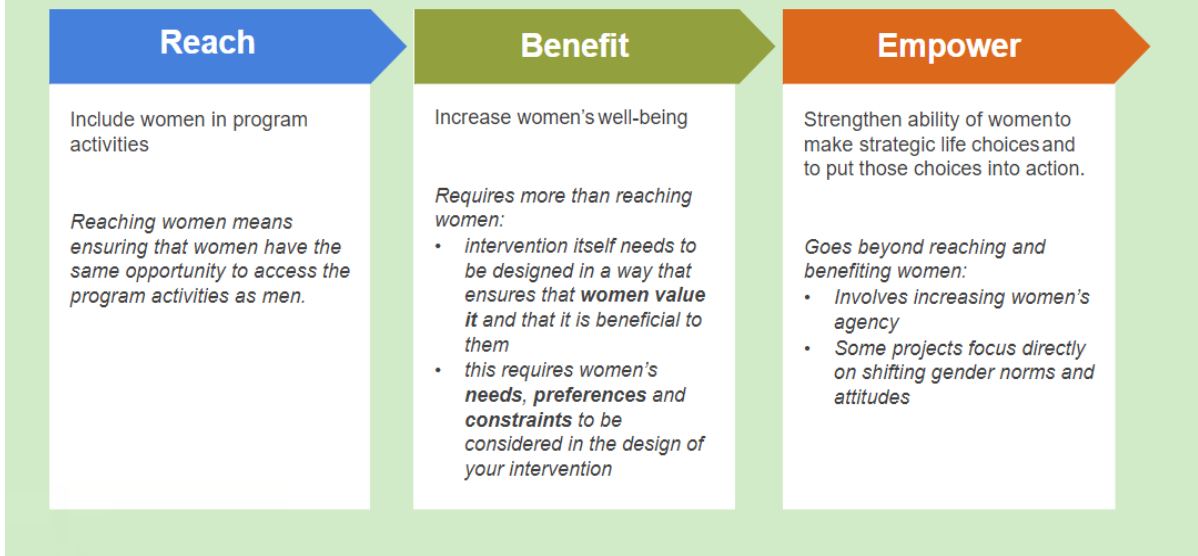
The political power component (agency) consists of two sub-components: - Representation in key decision-making positions in the public sector. - Representation in key decision-making positions in civil society.

Source: Based on ECA 2004:13, Adapted from: <https://www.oecd.org/dac/gender-development/44952761.pdf>

15.4 Reach, Benefit and Empower framework

The Reach, Benefit and Empower (RBE) framework was developed by researchers at IFPRI (See figure below). It helps clarify what empowerment means in the context of agricultural development projects. Sometimes, projects claim to be empowering women, when in actual fact all they are doing is reaching and providing some benefits.

Defining the Reach, Benefit, Empower framework



The "Reach" act entails a deliberate effort to design mechanism to enable the women farmers to take advantage of opportunities associated with 'reach' activities. For this to happen, women smallholder farmers should be reached with approaches or methods that are in favour of the location, time of the day, cultural acceptable context and their schedule/workload

Benefit: Simply reaching youth and women smallholder farmers does not ensure benefitting from the agricultural technologies and innovations. Tangible or intangible products that enhance positive results and or promote well-being must be realised when agricultural technologies and innovations are introduced to women farmers. For example including women in field tours, demonstrations may lead to improved productivity in agriculture; increased income or better nutrition

Empower: Reaching out and or benefiting women smallholder farmers within your interventions though important is not sufficient to guarantee their empowerment. Empowerment entails a process where the women smallholder farmers become stronger and more confident actors to control their lives and claim their rights over the community capitals.

Meinzen-Dick et al., (2017) proposes the Reach-Benefit-Empower- framework as a framework that provides a context in which to select an appropriate approach or method to equitably target women farmers (see figure below).



Objective

Include women in program activities

Tactics

Inviting women as participants; seeking to reduce barriers to participation; implementing a quota system for participation in training events

Indicators

Number or proportion of women participating in a project activity, e.g. attending training, joining a group, receiving extension advice, etc.

Objective

Increase women's well-being (e.g. food security, income, health)

Tactics

Designing project to consider gendered needs, preferences, and constraints to ensure that women benefit from project activities

Indicators

Sex-disaggregated data for positive and negative outcome indicators such as productivity, income, assets, nutrition, time use, etc.

Objective

Strengthen ability of women to make strategic life choices and to put those choices into action

Tactics

Enhancing women's decision making power in households and communities; addressing key areas of disempowerment

Indicators

Women's decision making power e.g. over agricultural production, income, or household food consumption; reduction of outcomes associated with disempowerment, e.g. gender-based violence, time burden, restricted mobility



Activity

Watch the YouTube video by GENDER Impact Platform available at the link:

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=fLGeZBLpaBY&t=53s>

Using a piece of paper and a pen, explain how you can apply the Reach Benefit empower framework to design projects and programmes aimed at equitable outcomes

Summary

Addressing gender-based constraints require focus on the following facets of women's livelihoods:



- Division of labour, Access to resources, Education, Decision making, Property Ownership
- Social norms and patriarchal structures
- Welfare, access, awareness raising, participation and mobilization, control
- Livelihoods and economic support, reproductive rights, education, networking
- Gender and social inclusion: Economic participation, health and reproductive rights, Gender based Violence, Unemployment

Self-Assessment



- 1) Using the concept of women empowerment framework, discuss manifestations of women's empowerment in an agricultural programme that hopes to train and support women with fertilizers for increased productivity in Uganda. How would we know whether the programme is empowering women?

Further Readings



- Kabeer N. (1999). Resources, agency, achievements: reflections on the measurement of women's empowerment. *Development and Change* 30: 435–464.
- Golla. A.M., Malhotra, A., Nanda, P., and Mehra, R. (2011). Understanding and measuring women's economic empowerment: Definition, framework and indicators. International Centre for Research on Women. Washington, D.C., US.
- Meinzen-Dick et al. (2017). Do agricultural development projects reach, benefit, or empower women? International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI).
- Narayan (2015) Measuring Empowerment: Cross Disciplinary Perspectives D. Narayan (Ed.) Retrieved from <https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/handle/10986/7441>
- Johnson, N., Balagamwala, M., Pinkstaff, C., Theis, S., Meinsen-Dick, R., & Agnes, Q. (2018). How do agricultural development projects empower women? Linking strategies with expected outcomes. *Journal of Gender, Agriculture and Food Security (Agri-Gender)*, 3(302-2019-3652), 1-19. 10.22004/ag.econ.293596
- Burgess, S. F., & Beilstein, J. C. (1996). Women's voice and agency in rural Africa: Small-scale communal farmers in Zimbabwe. *Women & Politics*, 16(2), 19-43.
- Donald, A. A., Koolwal, G. B., Annan, J., Falb, K., & Goldstein, M. (2017). Measuring women's agency. *World Bank Policy Research Working Paper*, (8148).
- Mosedale, S. (2005). Assessing women's empowerment: towards a conceptual framework. *Journal of international development*, 17(2), 243-257.
- Reshi, I. A., & Sudha, T. (2022). Women Empowerment: A Literature Review. *International Journal of Economic, Business, Accounting, Agriculture Management and Sharia Administration (IJEBAAS)*, 2(6), 1353-1359.

CONTACT

Department of Extension and Innovation Studies
School of Agricultural Sciences
College of Agricultural and Environmental Sciences
Makerere University, Uganda

Email:

fbirungikyazze@gmail.com / fbirungi.kyazze@mak.ac.ug