FOOD AND AGRICULTURE GLOBAL PRACTICE
FOLLOW-UP NOTE & ACTION PLAN

IMPLEMENTING THE WORLD BANK GROUP’S
GENDER STRATEGY—FROM ANALYSIS
TO ACTION TO IMPACT

FEBRUARY 2017
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Acknowledgments

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ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

| AES     | Agriculture and Environmental Services |
| APPSA   | Agricultural Productivity Program for Southern Africa |
| CCSA    | Cross-Cutting Solution Area |
| CDD     | Community-driven development |
| CGIAR   | Consultative Group on International Agricultural Research |
| CSA     | Climate-smart agriculture |
| EAAPP   | East Africa Agricultural Productivity Program |
| EAP     | East Asia and the Pacific |
| ECA     | Europe and Central Asia |
| FAO     | Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations |
| GBV     | Gender-based violence |
| GDP     | Gross domestic product |
| GENRD   | Gender in Agriculture and Rural Development |
| GFADR   | Food and Agriculture Global Practice (World Bank Group) |
| GNP     | Gross national product |
| GP      | Global Practice |
| GSG     | Global Solutions Group |
| GSURR   | Social, Urban, Rural and Resilience Global Practice |
| HR      | Human resources |
| ICT     | Information and communication technology |
| IFAD    | International Fund for Agricultural Development |
| IFC     | International Finance Corporation |
| ISR     | Implementation Status and Results |
| LAC     | Latin America and the Caribbean |
| M&E     | Monitoring and evaluation |
| MIGA    | Multilateral Investment Guarantee Agency |
| MNA     | Middle East and North Africa |
| NGO     | Nongovernmental organization |
| PAD     | Project Appraisal Document |
| PCN     | Project Concept Note |
| PIM     | Project Implementation Manual |
| PPP     | Public-private partnership |
| QAE     | Quality at Entry |
| QAI     | Quality at Implementation |
| RPO     | Rural producer association |
| SSA     | Sub-Saharan Africa |
| TFESSD  | Trust Fund for Environmentally and Socially Sustainable Development |
| WAAPP   | West Africa Agricultural Productivity Program |
| WBG     | World Bank Group |
| WUA     | Water user association |
Closing Gender Gaps
For Achieving the Global Food Systems Vision

The Yield Gap is 20–30%

Because...
Women have limited access to
Credit
Inputs
Technology

Without Gap
2.4–4% Larger Total Output
5–10% Less Hungry People

Objectives

Improving Human Endowments
More and Better Jobs
Ownership and Control of Assets
Women’s Voice Engaging Men and Boys

Gaps

Maternal & Child Food Security & Nutrition
Low education base
Access to agriculture knowledge
Hiring/labor practices on/off-farm
Working terms and conditions
Feminization of AGR
Agricultural Land Issues
Access to services and inputs
Capacity to address climate change
Customs, Norms; Laws & Regulations
Voice
Gender based violence

Interventions

Food security
Nutrition sensitive agriculture
Safety nets linked to agricultural production
Technical education, extension and training in agriculture
Quality of jobs, decent work, formal-informal job creation, self-employment, contract farming
SMEs, Links to value chains, entrepreneurship, vocational training
Green jobs
Agric Land, water, trees, Inputs, machinery and ICT
Access to financial services, warehouse receipts, market information etc.
Climate-smart agriculture
Voice in collective action (community groups, producer organizations, water user organizations and community-driven development, governance)
Legal frameworks (land, business, inheritance, etc.)
Creating awareness of intra-household dynamics/domestic violence
## WHAT'S NEW

- Comprehensive Analysis to Identify key gender gaps by Region
- Shift in approach from mainstreamed to targeted/customized approaches
- Attention to fact that gender gaps vary between countries, subsectors and livelihood streams of agriculture
- Focus on addressing identified gaps during implementation and on monitoring/evaluation of impacts on gender

### MONITORING AND IMPLEMENTATION OF THE STRATEGY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OBJECTIVE</th>
<th>TARGET</th>
<th>APPROACH/MODALITY</th>
<th>SOURCES</th>
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<tr>
<td>Gender gaps addressed systematically</td>
<td>98% include all three gender dimensions (by FY20)</td>
<td>Systematic review of documents, OIC, M&amp;E Support for project teams, Staff training and clinics with Gender GALSA, REDUCED GENDER gaps in agriculture sector</td>
<td>ISRs, KIRS, Gender Tag Evaluation, Scorecard Indicator data</td>
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<tr>
<td>Gender in agriculture tools are used, good practices and lessons learned are shared and scaled up among TTS and clients</td>
<td>A 3 module gender in agriculture training completed by 70% of TTIs (by FY18) Gender in agriculture tools are easily available for all staff (by FY18)</td>
<td>Gender in agriculture “starter package”, with tool, checklists, More field visits and learning facilitated and supported across project teams and regions</td>
<td>Survey TTIs and national project teams, Course Completion statistics from OIC, Quality &amp; Implementation, Periodic portfolio review</td>
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<tr>
<td>Data collection, Monitoring &amp; Evaluation and reporting on gender are improved</td>
<td>Project documents have an evidence-based rationale and approach on gender and gender indicator(s) relevant to the project, Gender specific results reported on in ISRs and KIRS, Gender specific result variations from targets evaluated</td>
<td>AGB Quality Team Support, Managers ensure attention to gender in project documents, Incentives for Gender Focal Points &amp; TTIs are provided</td>
<td>Quality &amp; Implementation, Periodic portfolio review</td>
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<tr>
<td>Strong GFADR gender team &amp; Gender in Agriculture CoP, Regional focal points system functions effectively</td>
<td>Periodic Meetings, Dissemination and Knowledge sharing events</td>
<td>Building social capital across the GP and with other departments through interaction</td>
<td>Meeting minutes, inclusive plan of action</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analytical and Technical Assistance work deepened and disseminated</td>
<td>Joint identification of key topics/issues to address,Pooling and sharing of AGB gender-specific findings/recommendations work across WBG &amp; with external partners and stakeholders</td>
<td>CoP to identify key topics and partners, BIBLS, Workshops, website, emails, Reports produced and successful events conducted</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IDA18 objective: Project to consider how to support women's participation in and improvement in the productivity of their economic activity</td>
<td>75% of the projects have demand led training on agriculture and entrepreneurial skills, 75% of the projects create enabling environment and incentives men &amp; women to participate in collective action</td>
<td>Systematic review of project documents, PADs, KIRS, KIRS</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
SUMMARY

CONTEXT

The new World Bank Group (WBG) Gender Strategy, 2016–2023: Gender Equality, Poverty Reduction, and Inclusive Growth, endorsed by the WBG’s Board in December 2015, aims to address the vast challenges related to gender equality and empowerment, by setting ambitious targets and adopting a rigorous methodology to assess progress. The objectives of the Strategy are: (1) Improving Human Endowments (health, education, social protection); (2) Removing Constraints for More and Better Jobs (care services, unsafe transport, occupational sex segregation, entrepreneurship); (3) Removing Barriers to Women’s Ownership of and Control over Assets (land, housing, financial inclusion, and technology, including ICT); and (4) Enhancing Women’s Voice and Agency and Engaging Men and Boys (child marriage, gender-based violence, engaging men and boys, women’s participation and decision making). The purpose of this Follow-Up Note is to describe the status of gender integration in the work of the Food and Agriculture Global Practice (GFADR) and to define the Global Practice’s approach to achieving the objectives of the Gender Strategy.

Providing women equal access to services, assets, and enhancing their agency and opportunities would increase agricultural output in developing countries between 2.5 and 4 percent.1 To achieve the objectives of the agriculture sector’s projects, relevant gender gaps must be addressed in a rigorous and meaningful manner, so that both men and women’s capacity, skills and talent are harnessed to generate sustainable and better quality rural livelihoods. Achieving gender equality is one of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDG 5), and women play an important role in attaining progress in several other SDGs. Empowering women farmers is also essential to the World Bank Group’s twin objectives of ending extreme poverty and increasing shared prosperity. Additionally, under the IDA18 commitments, at least 75 percent of IDA18 financing operations for skills development will consider how to support women’s participation in and improvement of their economic activity, and/or consider how to reduce occupational segregation.

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Effective mainstreaming of gender considerations across the GP’s interventions is important in all these regards.

**STATUS OF GENDER INTEGRATION IN AGRICULTURE PROJECTS**

The investments in agriculture offer a significant opportunity to reduce gender gaps. Total annual lending (FY2011–16) to agriculture across all Global Practices (GPs) ranged between US $2 billion and US $4.2 billion, corresponding to 5–12 percent of total World Bank lending. The Agriculture GP was responsible for 52 percent of the total lending for agriculture in FY2011–16 (US $12 billion), indicating that a large share of the investment in agriculture came through other GPs. IFC is also an increasingly important investor in agriculture, with investments that have tripled in the past six years reaching US $3.2 billion in FY2015.

GFADR incorporated all three gender dimensions (analysis, actions, M&E) in all FY2016 projects, reflecting a significant increase from FY2010. However, as the Quality at Entry review is done during the preparation phase, the results do not always lead to gender integration during the implementation phase. A portfolio review based on key documents of a sample of projects (FY2008–13) found that 76 percent of the projects were rated “Gender Implemented.”

Generally, the operational staff of the Agriculture GP is well aware of the importance of gender in agriculture projects; yet in practice, the knowledge and skills vary significantly among staff. While each regional unit in GFADR has nominated a gender focal point, going forward, their time allocation for gender issues will need to be agreed to and documented with their managers to assure commitment, recognition and accountability.

**KEY GENDER GAPS IN THE AGRICULTURAL SECTOR**

Regional gender focal points and other senior operational staff in GFADR have identified seven highly critical gender gaps and challenges in the agriculture sector as follows: (1) nutrition, (2) access to services and inputs, (3) agricultural land tenure, (4) hiring/labor practices, (5) post-secondary and tertiary education in agriculture, (6) voice, and (7) gender-based violence. In addition to these gaps, gender differences among men and women in their **capacity to address climate change** was mentioned as an overarching issue in all regions; one that affects not only productivity but is widening existing gender gaps.

At the same time, rural transformation and the changes in family farming are also expanding the role of women in agriculture all over the world. And in several countries, agriculture is ‘feminizing’, either because men are moving out of agriculture or because women are engaging in different types of agricultural employment. The changing roles of women within agriculture pose new requirements for agriculture interventions.

**OPPORTUNITIES TO CLOSE THESE GENDER GAPS AND SUPPORT THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE GENDER STRATEGY IN GFADR**

Explicit agriculture, food, and nutrition objectives are not set out in the Gender Strategy which adopted a cross-cutting approach; however, agriculture, food, and nutrition are encapsulated in a number of Gender Strategy objectives. Because agriculture is a critical driver of household jobs/income, food and nutrition security—agriculture in fact underpins all four objectives of the Gender Strategy. The following Table 1.1 shows a close concordance between the objectives of the Gender Strategy and several key agricultural sector dimensions.

Agriculture is a diverse sector, embracing numerous sub-sectors (crops, livestock, fisheries, rural finance, extension and research, natural resource management, land tenure and land management, etc.)—each requiring specific technical and socioeconomic approaches. In listening to operational staff working across these subsectors, however, it becomes clear that in addition to the various technical aspects of operations, the following gender issues require consistent and concerted attention and action across all operations: **capacity building, jobs, access and control over assets, and voice and agency.**

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Table 1.1. Linkages between the Objectives of the Gender Strategy and Agriculture

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>WBG Gender Strategy Objectives</th>
<th>Key Gender Gaps in the Agriculture Sector</th>
<th>AGR Interventions to Address the Gaps</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Improving Human Endowments</td>
<td>• Maternal &amp; child food security &amp; nutrition • Low education base • Access to agriculture knowledge</td>
<td>• Food security • Nutrition sensitive agriculture • Safety nets linked to agricultural production • Technical education, extension and training in agriculture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More and Better Jobs</td>
<td>• Hiring/labor practices on/off-farm • Working terms and conditions • Feminization of AGR</td>
<td>• Quality of jobs, decent work, formal-informal • Job creation, self-employment, contract farming • SMEs, links to value chains, entrepreneurship, vocational training • Green jobs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ownership and Control of Assets</td>
<td>• Agricultural land issues • Access to services and inputs • Capacity to address climate change</td>
<td>• Agric Land, water, trees, inputs, machinery and ICT • Access to financial services, warehouse receipts, market information, etc. • Climate-smart agriculture</td>
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<tr>
<td>Women’s Voice and Agency; Engaging Men and Boys</td>
<td>• Customs, norms; laws &amp; regulations • Voice • Gender based violence</td>
<td>• Voice in collective action (community groups, producer organizations, water user organizations and community-driven development, governance) • Legal frameworks (land, business, inheritance, etc.) • Creating awareness of intra-household dynamics/domestic violence</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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Table 1.2 lays out in a summary format, the key objectives and targets, encapsulating the GP’s efforts towards addressing key gender gaps in the food and agriculture sector in the coming years. Table 1.2 also briefly highlights the approaches, practices and modalities and sets out the result indicators for tracking progress on GFADR’s gender work. The objectives below will contribute in closing the gender gaps in agriculture sector. Achieving them will require commitment, resources and systematic efforts at all levels of the Agriculture GP, and more systematic cooperation across other GPs and CCSAs.
TABLE 1.2. MONITORING AND IMPLEMENTATION OF THE STRATEGY IN GFADR

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<td>• A 3-module gender in agriculture e-training is completed by 70% of TTLs (by FY18)</td>
<td>• Gender in agriculture “starter package” with tools, checklists</td>
<td>Survey TTLs and national project teams; Course Completion statistics from OLC</td>
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<td>Data collection, M&amp;E, and reporting on gender are improved</td>
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<td>Strong GFADR gender team &amp; Gender in Agriculture CoP Regional focal points system functions effectively.</td>
<td>• Gender specific results reported on in ISRs and ICRs</td>
<td>• Incentives for Gender Focal Points &amp; TTLs are provided</td>
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<td>Analytical and Technical Assistance work deepened and disseminated</td>
<td>• Gender specific result variations from targets evaluated</td>
<td>• More field visits and learning facilitated and supported across project teams and regions</td>
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<tr>
<td>IDA18 objective: Project to consider how to support women’s participation in and improvement in the productivity of their economic activity</td>
<td>• 75% of the projects have demand led training on agriculture and entrepreneurial skills</td>
<td>• Systematic review of project documents</td>
<td>PADs, ISRs, ICRS</td>
</tr>
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**CHAPTER ONE**

**BACKGROUND**

**Agricultural growth is effective in reducing poverty.** Cross-country econometric estimates show that overall GDP growth originating in agriculture is, on average, at least twice as effective in benefiting the poorest half of a country’s population as growth generated in nonagricultural sectors. Agricultural growth is particularly effective in reducing hunger and malnutrition. Most of the extreme poor depend on agriculture and related activities for a significant part of their livelihoods. Agricultural growth involving smallholders, especially women, will be most effective in reducing extreme poverty and hunger when it increases returns to labor and generates employment for the poor.

**Women are key players in agriculture.** Women comprise on average 43 percent of the agricultural labor force, ranging from 20 percent in Latin America to 50 percent in parts of Sub-Saharan Africa and East Asia, and exceeding 60 percent in a few countries. At the same time, across all regions women possess fewer assets for agriculture (land, livestock, and human capital), have less access to agricultural inputs (seed, fertilizer, labor, and finance), and have less access to agricultural services (extension and insurance) than men. As a result, the agriculture sector is underperforming in many developing countries. Closing the gender gap could increase women’s yields on farms by 20–30 percent, raise total agricultural output by 2.5–4 percent, and potentially reduce the number of hungry people by 12–17 percent. The gender gap in agriculture imposes costs not only on women and their families, but also on the agricultural sector, the broader economy, and society as a whole.

**Progress on addressing the gender gaps in food and agriculture is a key to meeting the World Bank Group’s (WBG) Twin Goals** of ending extreme poverty and increasing shared prosperity. Also, under the IDA18 commitments, at least 75 percent of IDA18 financing operations for skills development will consider

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how to support women's participation in and improvement of the productivity of their economic activity, and/or consider how to reduce occupational segregation. Similarly, women have a critical role to play in several of the SDGs, with many targets specifically recognizing women's equality and empowerment as both the objective, and as part of the solution.

In 2002, the World Bank issued its Gender Strategy (Integrating Gender into the World Bank’s Work) that focused on mainstreaming gender throughout the Bank's strategic, analytical, and operational work.\(^7\) Actions to achieve the goals of the Gender Strategy in agriculture included systematic reviews of project documentation, technical support provided by the agriculture sector gender team, and efforts to strengthen the Community of Practice (CoP) on Gender in Agriculture and Rural Development (GENRD). These actions were recognized by the Independent Evaluation Group in 2010.\(^8\)

As the understanding of gender’s role in development has evolved, so has the understanding of the agriculture sector’s relevance and required response to the changing socioeconomic and natural environment. Since 2010, the World Bank agriculture team has operated under two agriculture action plans. The first (2010–12)\(^9\) focused on increasing agricultural productivity (partly through a much greater emphasis on the private sector’s role in fostering agricultural growth) and devising solutions to the food price crises, such as the Global Food Crises Response Program. The subsequent Action Plan (2013–15)\(^10\) reflected the understanding that the various shocks facing agriculture—climate change, financial uncertainty, price volatility, and so on—are the new normal. Based on this reality, WBG support shifted towards improving the resilience of agricultural systems and rural livelihoods through more climate-smart agriculture and longer-term risk management. The plan also called for greater emphasis on the opportunities for agriculture to play a strong role in contributing to better nutritional outcomes.

Gender issues have been addressed in the Agriculture Action plans. The 2010–12 Action Plan referred to improving women’s access to assets and services and fostering greater inclusion of women in programs and producer organizations to increase their empowerment. To track its progress, the 2010–12 Plan included targets for gender in project documentation—analysis, actions, and monitoring and evaluation (M&E). The 2013–15 Action Plan drew attention to the pervasive gender gaps in productivity and earnings as well as gender differences in time use, access to assets and credit, and treatment by markets and formal institutions. As a result, gender was integrated more deeply within the Action Plan through a stronger emphasis on the links between gender, agriculture, and nutrition; on a landscape approach (with greater awareness of gender roles) to sustaining natural resources; and on the use of indicators to track progress in achieving gender outcomes.

The purpose of this note on Implementing the World Bank Group's Gender Strategy—from Analysis to Action to Impact is to briefly describe the status of gender integration in the work of the Food and Agriculture Global Practice (GFADR) and to define the Global Practice’s approach to achieving the objectives of the Gender Strategy. The note also offers region-specific guidance, including “The What” on priority issues and key gaps and “The How,” which sets out modalities for more effectively closing these gaps where GFADR research, analytics, technical assistance, financial support and partnerships can contribute. Further details are provided in Annexes Two–Eight.

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The new World Bank Group Gender Strategy, 2016–2023: Gender Equality, Poverty Reduction, and Inclusive Growth, aims to match the global attention given to gender equality by setting ambitious targets and adopting a rigorous methodology to assess progress, with the overarching goal of attaining transformative rather than incremental change (Annex One). The objectives of the Strategy are: (1) Improving Human Endowments (health, education, social protection); (2) Removing Constraints for More and Better Jobs (care services, unsafe transport, occupational sex segregation, entrepreneurship); (3) Removing Barriers to Women’s Ownership of and Control over Assets (land, housing, financial inclusion, and technology, including ICT); and (4) Enhancing Women’s Voice and Agency and Engaging Men and Boys (child marriage, gender-based violence, engaging men and boys, women’s participation and decision making).

The Strategy stresses that gender equality is a core development objective as well as smart development policy and practice. Sustainability cannot be realized without increasing capacity and agency, and the distribution of opportunities, resources, and choices for men and women. Not only is gender equality a desirable objective, it is also a feasible one, in which all three major societal sectors/actors—public, private, and civil society—have a role to play, especially in rural areas.

GFADR is acting to close gender gaps in agricultural productivity, by improving access to services, inputs, agricultural land and capabilities, and by enhancing resilience and fostering a low carbon path to development. The GP also identifies action to close gender gaps in food security via the increased production of, and access by all, to diverse and nutrient-dense crops. The GP is working on building the resilience of women and men to cope with natural (climate change), economic (commodity price volatility) and human (conflict) shocks through its interventions that support the billions engaged across the entire global food system, especially smallholder farmers.
The strategy brings new elements for GFADR's approach to gender work. The new approach emphasizes: 1) Comprehensive analysis to identify key gender gaps by Region, 2) Attention to the fact that gender gaps vary between countries, subsectors and livelihood streams of agriculture and thus call for customized approaches, 3) Shifts in approach from broad mainstreaming to targeted/customized approaches and 4) More focus on addressing identified gaps during implementation and on monitoring/evaluation of impacts on gender.

Explicit agriculture, food, and nutrition objectives are not set out in the Gender Strategy which adopted a cross-cutting approach; however, agriculture, food, and nutrition are encapsulated in a number of Gender Strategy objectives. Because agriculture is a critical driver of household jobs/income, food and nutrition security—agriculture in fact underpins all four objectives of the Gender Strategy.

GFADR projects aim to strengthen development outcomes for client countries, smallholder farmers and other relevant stakeholders—with the objective of fueling sustainable agriculture sector-led growth, contributing to enhanced food security and reduced poverty and vulnerability. As women are active agents in agricultural production, processing and food systems, success in achieving sectoral objectives will be enhanced by their effective participation in, and benefit from, project activities. Using both men’s and women’s capacity and talent by giving equal opportunities for both groups to participate will ultimately strengthen project performance.

Gender and Development is the Special Theme of IDA18. The objective under the Theme is to ‘Sharpen focus on closing gaps between women, men, girls and boys in country strategies and operations, and strengthen the data and evidence base to enhance impact towards gender equality’. The theme emphasizes strengthening the knowledge base on what works in low-income country contexts and building the project design and implementation on that knowledge. GFADR will focus on the policy commitment to ‘Remove constraints for more and better jobs and ensure that at least 75% of agriculture project’s skills development will consider how to support women’s participation in and improvement in the productivity of their economic activity’. This will be done by enabling and encouraging women’s participation in agriculture and entrepreneurial trainings as well as supporting collective action through farmer organizations and women groups.
CHAPTER THREE

KEY REGIONAL GENDER GAPS IN THE AGRICULTURE SECTOR AND THE OPPORTUNITIES TO CLOSE THEM

3.1 KEY GENDER GAPS BY REGION AND THEME

In the agriculture sector, gender gaps vary by country, region, and livelihood source; consequently, a deep understanding and analysis of the context is necessary to define the appropriate pathway(s) to close those gaps. However, at a broader level, gender focal points and key Task Team Leaders in GFADR have identified seven key gender gaps in the food and agriculture sector, as follows: (1) nutrition, (2) access to services and inputs, (3) agricultural land tenure, (4) hiring/labor practices, (5) post-secondary and tertiary education in agriculture, (6) voice, and (7) gender-based violence. Additional important stressors identified in several regions were (a) the impact of climate change—with differentiated impacts and costs imposed on men and women, and (b) jobs—among others, men’s migration from rural areas, technology adoption, fragility, conflict and violence as well as climate change have a bearing on both the quantity and nature of jobs in agriculture.

REGIONAL AND COUNTRY CONTEXTS DEFINE THE NATURE OF GENDER GAPS IN AGRICULTURE

Below is the summary of the gaps across each World Bank Region. Annex Two summarizes in detail the gaps identified for each region, with examples of projects that incorporate components/activities to address those gaps.

In Sub-Saharan Africa women, notably those from the poorest quintiles face serious constraints in all facets of life. Low asset ownership and low levels of education reduce rural women’s bargaining power within the household and limit their voice in
collective action in their communities and in the wider agricultural sector. Women’s weaker status is reflected in high rates of domestic violence and other indicators such as lower literacy and high maternal mortality rates, in large part due to poor education and health services and malnutrition. “Modernizing forces” such as male migration from rural to urban areas can create opportunities for women who remain on the farm, but limited land ownership and access to services often lock women into poverty.

In South Asia, social norms strongly define women’s roles, especially in poor rural communities. Their dominant role as caregivers, combined with limited ownership of assets, constraints to post-basic education, and restricted mobility, reduce women’s opportunities to engage in paid labor, notably professional employment. The corollary to this phenomenon is the weakened socioeconomic position of these women, weakening their voices even further with respect to the allocation of family resources or access to opportunities. A serious symptom of low female status is the high malnutrition prevalent among children (especially girls) and young mothers in South-Asia region (SAR).

The Middle East and North Africa countries are very diverse, and that diversity is seen in the variation in women’s mobility and choice, which can be dictated by social mores and legal frameworks, including regulations that restrict work.11 Women’s access to productive assets, especially fertile agricultural land, can be limited by practices that reinforce male control and ownership of those resources, despite the role women often play in their management. Women’s agricultural labor is very important, especially in poor rural households where women work long hours, engaged mainly in non-mechanized, labor-intensive and noncapital-intensive activities.12

In Latin America and Caribbean, women in wealthier countries pursue education to exit agriculture, while women in the poorer economies in Central America and the Andes are increasingly assuming roles in farming as men move to cities or abroad. Male migration creates opportunities for women, but at the same time, these opportunities cannot be fully realized due to a host of traditional norms that restrict women to caregiving roles and give them less of a voice in farming choices and the use of income.

Across the Bank’s client countries in Europe and Central Asia (ECA), rural women are also bound by traditional norms that emphasize their caregiving roles and limit their pursuit of employment outside the home. When women are employed in agriculture, their wages are lower than those of men. Even if land legislation is progressive, due to low rates of collective action among women, low awareness of their rights and weak enforcement of the laws, their agency and opportunities are effectively reduced, especially in Central Asia.

In East Asia and Pacific, rural women have less access to information and services such as extension or to collective action on agriculture. Limitations on voicing their concerns, lead to underpaid work in agriculture and difficulties in starting a business. In addition, women’s capacity to address the impacts of climate change is lower than men, especially in the Pacific region.

**THEMATIC AND CROSS-CUTTING ISSUES DRIVING GENDER DISPARITIES IN AGRICULTURE**

Table 3.1 that follows lays out in a summary format, the 7 key issues identified by the regional focal points in terms of the key gender gaps in the food and agriculture sector—viewed through a region-specific lens.

Two other key thematic challenges around gender in the food and agriculture sector relate to climate change and jobs. Climate change poses a huge threat to agriculture and food security and widens existing gender gaps. Emerging research indicates that food system stress induced by climate change is likely to interact negatively with existing gender inequalities; climate change, extreme weather events and natural disasters disproportionately affect women farmers. Women farmers appear to be less able to adapt because of financial or other resource constraints as well as having

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### TABLE 3.1. CRITICAL GENDER GAPS IN AGRICULTURE IDENTIFIED BY WORLD BANK OPERATIONAL STAFF IN THE REGIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Nutrition</th>
<th>Services and Inputs</th>
<th>Agricultural Land</th>
<th>Labor</th>
<th>Education</th>
<th>Voice</th>
<th>Gender-Based Violence (GBV)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SSA</td>
<td>Highest maternal mortality globally</td>
<td>Productivity gap owing to low access to credit, training, inputs, markets, knowledge, male labor</td>
<td>Seldom have legal land title, often small holdings</td>
<td>Highest rate of unpaid women workers in agriculture</td>
<td>Low level of post-secondary and tertiary education in agriculture</td>
<td>Lack of voice in household, society; no land, decreased likelihood for membership in rural producer organization</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MNA</td>
<td>Low land ownership (2–29%)</td>
<td>Low labor force participation, mostly public sector, long hours in underpaid manual agricultural work</td>
<td>Women migrating to urban areas, so fewer in agriculture in general—but in poor areas, feminization of agriculture</td>
<td>Women bound by traditional norms, caregiving roles, less decision-making power</td>
<td>Conservative gender norms, legal restrictions, male approval sometimes needed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LAC</td>
<td>Access to services (credit, water) hard to negotiate</td>
<td>Women migrating to urban areas, so fewer in agriculture in general—but in poor areas, feminization of agriculture</td>
<td>Women migrating to urban areas, so fewer in agriculture in general—but in poor areas, feminization of agriculture</td>
<td>Women bound by traditional norms, caregiving roles, less decision-making power</td>
<td>Conservative gender norms, legal restrictions, male approval sometimes needed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ECA</td>
<td>Land ownership 5–36%</td>
<td>Agricultural employment underpaid, informal; social role as caregivers, less participation in employment</td>
<td>More women to producer associations</td>
<td>GBV restricts decision-making power</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EAP</td>
<td>Access to extension advice limited</td>
<td>Access restricted</td>
<td>Underpaid labor in agriculture; wage gap; access to credit</td>
<td>Access to information low; better access in groups but limited information on agriculture</td>
<td>Pacific area highest globally</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAR</td>
<td>Serious nutrition issues among children; only 5% have titles in Bangladesh</td>
<td>Serious issue; only 5% have titles in Bangladesh</td>
<td>Low labor force participation in general, but high in manual agricultural labor</td>
<td>Less participation in secondary and tertiary education; less representation in professional jobs</td>
<td>Customs, laws, social norms, religion, caste, and language interact to create discrimination</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Authors.*
BOX 3.1. GENDER IN CLIMATE-SMART AGRICULTURE

Climate-smart agriculture (CSA) offers a cogent approach to developing technical, policy, and investment options to support actions that target any one or all three outcomes, as follows: (1) sustainably increasing agricultural productivity, (2) building the resilience of food systems and farming livelihoods to climate change, and (3) reducing greenhouse gas emissions from agriculture. To succeed, climate-smart agricultural interventions depend on institutional, operational and behavioral changes, which are not possible without social analysis (including gender analysis) influencing policies and projects. CSA strategies are unlikely to be effective, let alone equitable or transformative, without active attention to gender. CSA practices may, for example, have undesired effects on the gender perspective related to workload, assets, crop residues, food waste/loss, food and nutrition security, mechanization and extension. Furthermore, CSA practices may require substantial investments of time, labor or cash, which often pose considerable constraints for women. A pilot training workshop on Gender in Climate-Smart Agriculture for Development Practitioners, was organized by the World Bank, FAO, and Africa Alliance for CSA, and facilitated by CARE Tanzania in May 2016. The pilot program underscored an urgent need for training on practical ways to integrate gender issues in CSA projects, building on past experiences and lessons learned at international and national levels. In Tanzania, some key issues raised by the participants included: the high labor burden placed on women; initial lower yields in conservation agriculture; choice of practices; and lack of extension services on practical CSA solutions. This evidence needs to be made available to policy and decision makers in a tailored and actionable form.

Source: Authors.

less access to information and extension services. In 2015, the World Bank, FAO, and IFAD jointly developed a new module for the Gender in Agriculture Sourcebook entitled “Gender in Climate-Smart Agriculture” (CSA) which emphasizes the importance of integrating gender in CSA practices to reduce gender inequalities and ensure that men and women can equally benefit from any intervention in the agricultural sector to reduce risks linked to climate change. (Box 3.1).

The agriculture and food sector has a significant role to play in the present and future challenges


d of decent job creation. In Africa alone, 350 million young people will enter the labor force between now and 2035. Even under the most optimistic projections, wage jobs in Sub-Saharan Africa will absorb only 25 percent of these individuals. Farming and self-employment will be called upon to provide gainful employment for at least 70 percent of young Africans entering the labor force until at least 2030. However, job opportunities are not equal for everyone. Women’s participation in the agricultural labor force may be significant, but data on wage employment reveal a clear gender gap in wage employment in rural areas, as well as a wide variation between countries. Even when rural women are in wage employment, they are more likely to have seasonal and temporary contracts and lower positions or wages than men. The World Economic Forum’s global and regional competitiveness studies conclude that a nation’s competitiveness in the long term depends significantly on whether and how it educates and utilizes its women and men equally. Various other
factors including men’s migration from rural areas, natural and man-made disasters as well as climate change have a bearing on both the quantity and nature of jobs in agriculture. These can also result in women being left to handle the spectrum of agricultural roles, many times without adequate resources, affecting the quality of such jobs.

### 3.2 CLOSING AGRICULTURE-SPECIFIC GENDER GAPS ACROSS WBG REGIONS THROUGH LENDING OPERATIONS

Gender mainstreaming needs to be complemented by a more selective, targeted approach that builds on regional specificities and the potential for high development impact. In very general terms, efforts in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) need to be designed to focus more on the gender gaps in agricultural productivity, agribusiness operations, and nutrition-sensitive food systems. In South-Asia region (SAR) the priorities are safe food systems, sustainable livelihoods, and linking small-scale producers to value chains. Rural-urban transformation, male outmigration, and the resulting feminization of agriculture create new challenges but also opportunities for women and for pursuing agricultural development, in Europe and Central Asia (ECA), parts of Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC), the Middle East and North Africa (MNA), and East Asia and the Pacific (EAP). (Figure 3.1)

A stocktaking of lending operations reveals that the substantial operational efforts around agriculture related activities—across several WBG GPs (e.g., Water, Environment, Rural and Urban Development etc.)—present a huge opportunity to help mainstream analysis, design, implementation and monitoring and evaluation aspects in support of closing the above gaps. The total annual lending has ranged between US $2.5–4.2 billion during the last five years (FY2011-FY16). The Agriculture GP was responsible for 52 percent of the total lending for agriculture in FY2011–16 (US $12 billion) (Figure 3.2).

The main recipients of agricultural lending by region are South Asia (SAR) and Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA). This distribution, shown in Table 3.2, reflects the fact that these regions are home to many agricultural-based economies. The projects cover subsectors ranging from animal production to agro-industry

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**FIGURE 3.1. AGRICULTURE PORTFOLIO: ADDRESSING THEMATIC GENDER GAPS, BY REGION**

**FY16 Project Global Monitoring Figures by Global Practice**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Global Practice</th>
<th>Grants</th>
<th>Total gender informed</th>
<th>Gender in all Deliverables</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energy &amp; Infrastructure</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>90%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environment &amp; Natural Resources</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finance &amp; Markets</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>83%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Governance</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social, Inclusion &amp; Population</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Macroeconomics &amp; Fiscal Management</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Security</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Protection &amp; Labor</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social, Mit. Agric., Rural and Forestry</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trade &amp; Competitiveness</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transport and ICT</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>90%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All</td>
<td>255</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>91%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

20This is equivalent to 5–12 percent of total World Bank lending.
marketing and trade, and their scopes vary in terms of opportunities and designs in terms of actual efforts at closing the gender gaps.

... VIA INCLUDING GENDER RESPONSIVE “FLAGSHIP OPERATIONS” ...

Strategic and systematic consideration of gender issues and integrating them into project design and implementation has proven to contribute to the success of agriculture projects in many contexts. Several specific examples of flagship projects in agriculture that demonstrate the “what and how” of activities undertaken in these regards are provided in Annex Two.

Examples span projects across all Regions and have contributed to all four objectives of the Gender Strategy and covered the gender gaps.
identified by the GFADR focal points. In Rwanda, for example, the Land Husbandry, Water Harvesting, and Hillside Irrigation Project (P114931) pursues the improvement of human endowments and strengthening voice and agency, in their communities and families—by encouraging women farmers to join self-help groups and cooperatives; often women are selected to serve as leaders in the finance and audit functions, and also get to have a say in land use decisions. In addition to learning techniques that support sustainable agriculture, women and men participate in targeted decision making and financial literacy training. The project also promotes nutrition awareness training, kitchen gardens, and crop-fortification, which can potentially reduce women’s labor burden, improve nutrition, and increase their income. As a result, women now have greater voice and agency. The Brazil Rio Grande do Norte Regional Development and Governance Project (P126452) pursues the ownership and control over assets and more and better jobs, by supporting the increase of food security and access to productive infrastructure and markets for family agriculture. Gender is mainstreamed through the project’s inclusive design also promotes the participation of women and youth, as well as marginalized indigenous and quilombola communities. And finally, Box 3.2 presents a flagship Relaunching Agriculture: Strengthening Agriculture Public Services II Project (RESEPAI I) in Haiti which demonstrates contributions to several objectives of the strategy in an innovative way. The program’s overarching objective is building capacity on gender issues in Haitian ministries and increasing women’s economic empowerment through a multi-agency partnership between the Ministry of Agriculture and the Ministry of Women’s Affairs.

The project portfolio and indicative pipeline over the next couple of years illustrate the focus of the current as well as upcoming agriculture projects in the regions (Annex Two). Most projects present opportunities to address gender gaps. The practical means of doing so will depend on the design of each project and its components. As agriculture becomes increasingly knowledge-intensive, and as that knowledge is increasingly generated/ transferred in an innovation system setting rather than through traditional channels, post-secondary and tertiary agricultural education will enable individuals to understand, generate, share, and use agricultural knowledge more effectively. The technical education agenda presents a significant opportunity to target women and girls’ skills development.

. . . AND THROUGH KNOWLEDGE ACTIVITIES

An Agriculture GP-wide analysis to scan the knowledge portfolio for gender-related analytical work carried out during FY2010–15 by the GP, including global studies, illustrates that there is underreporting in the Operations Portal on gender. The document review found that 35 percent of the analytical work included gender analysis, but only some 4 percent of the studies were marked with a gender flag or included gender in the title. Many studies that carried out gender-disaggregated analysis or included gender-specific recommendations did not check the gender flag in the operations portal (Table 3.3).

The analysis showed that emerging topics (from FY2015 onwards) for Advisory Services and Analytics work are related to agricultural risk management and insurance, value chain analysis, and climate change. These themes are critical, yet more wide-ranging analytical work is needed from the gender perspective on emerging issues such as the rural-urban transformation, ICT for gender and agriculture, access to farm mechanization, and approaches to enable employment generation, self-employment, and hiring of labor. To that effect, the GFADR gender team is pursuing two studies with FAO: one on green jobs in agriculture and one of the implications of feminization of agriculture. In addition, GFADR teams will be encouraged to appropriately and fully code their analytical work.

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21 For each region, future analytical work focuses on the following areas: AFR (agricultural risk management and insurance, agribusiness development and the private sector, and livestock); EAP (food security and food safety, and value chains and agribusiness); ECA (value chain and commercialization); LAC (agricultural innovation and commercialization, risk and insurance, climate change and natural resource management); MENA (agro-industry and value chains); and SAR (poverty and livelihoods, agricultural growth).
**BOX 3.2. GOOD PRACTICE EXAMPLE: BUILDING CAPACITY AND INCREASING WOMEN’S ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT**

The partnership between the Ministry of Agriculture, Ministry of Women’s Affairs, and the World Bank’s Relaunching Agriculture: Strengthening Agriculture Public Services II Project (RESEPAG II)

**Activities:**

- Conducted a gender review that revealed women’s low participation in professional and managerial positions in MARNDR (the Ministry of Agriculture, Natural Resources, and Rural Development). The review also showed women to be largely absent from leadership roles in mixed productive organizations, often due to low levels of literacy, time constraints imposed by domestic duties, and resistance from men to having women occupy such positions.
- Recruited a Gender Focal Point (an agronomist with gender expertise) into MARNDR.
- Facilitated an ongoing collaboration between MARNDR and the Ministry of Women’s Affairs (MCFDF) to begin integrating gender mainstreaming tools into RESEPAG as well as MARNDR policies and programs.
- Conducted an in-depth gender analysis of the project’s implementation documents and instruments, and provided concrete recommendations.
- Strengthened women’s productive involvement in agriculture in the project pilot areas by building skills and providing gender sensitization training.
- Conducted gender sensitization workshops, focus groups discussions with women in producer cooperatives, and community-level training to understand challenges to women’s active participation and leadership.
- Developed a financial literacy program for women in agriculture to teach basic market, economy, and financial skills (for literate and illiterate individuals).
- Created a gender monitoring system for agricultural investments and strengthened the monitoring framework to better understand the project’s impact on its target beneficiaries.

**Results:**

- **Increased capacity within MARNDR to mainstream gender.**
  - In 2009, a Gender Focal Point from MCFDF was appointed to MARNDR to ensure effective mainstreaming of gender in policy and programming development in the agriculture sector.
  - Guidelines for MARNDR recruitment were revised to remove gender bias.
- **Improved inclusion in the project’s incentive fund.**
  - The language of the RESEPEG II Market Support Facility was revised to include more female farmers.
  - The farm area required for an individual to be eligible for incentive funding was reduced from 10 to 5 hectares, as research showed that few women in Haiti owned 10 hectares.
- **Strengthened ability to monitor gender inclusion in the agricultural sector.**
  - Introduced preliminary gender-relevant project indicators in the overall M&E system. The number of women receiving extension services, as well as women’s level of adoption of new technologies, is now tracked with a target of at least 20 percent for women heads of households.
- **Female farmers’ financial capacity improved.**
- **A financial literacy training program developed to serve women in agriculture.**
  - The program teaches basic market, economic, and financial skills to enhance competence in agri-business management. A comprehensive guide for the financial literacy program was produced in French and Creole. The program is designed to be implemented in ways that do not add to women’s complex time burden.

*Source: Authors.*

*Note: RESEPAG II (Renforcement des Services Publics Agricoles); MARNDR (Ministère de l’Agriculture, des Ressources Naturelles et du Développement Rural); MCFDF (Ministère à la Condition Féminine et aux Droits des Femmes).*
**TABLE 3.3. GENDER-RELATED ANALYTICAL WORK IN AGRICULTURE BY REGION AND GLOBALLY, FY2010–FY2015**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Total Number of Analytical Works</th>
<th>With Gender Flag or “Gender, Women, Female” in Title</th>
<th>Gender Considerations Included in the Study</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AFR</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>6 (8%)</td>
<td>31 (40%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EAP</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>1 (2%)</td>
<td>13 (29%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ECA</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7 (15%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LAC</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>1 (2%)</td>
<td>13 (29%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MNA</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>1 (5%)</td>
<td>10 (50%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAR</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>1 (4%)</td>
<td>15 (60%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Global</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>5 (7%)</td>
<td>27 (36%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>334</strong></td>
<td><strong>15 (4%)</strong></td>
<td><strong>116 (35%)</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Authors.*
The Quality Enhancement Review process, including peer reviewers’ comments and discussions in the review meetings, is the most systematic way of sharing good practices on specific themes across the GP. Furthermore, good practices and lessons learned are usually shared among task team members or staff working in the same country or on similar kinds of projects. Different Communities of Practice (formerly Thematic Groups) have assumed the role of collecting and sharing good practices. Within GFADR, the GENRD CoP has—and has since its foundation in 1998—played a major role. GENRD and the Agriculture GP have also prepared several publications, such as the *Gender in Agriculture Sourcebook*, with numerous examples of good practices and lessons. Annex Two gives good practice examples from several countries with a range of gender actions. More efforts are being made to identify, develop and share good practices with teams and national counterparts.

The following good practices are drawn from the GFADR portfolio and can be addressed across the pipeline:

> **Ensure equal opportunities for men and women to engage in project activities.** Because women often have less access to formal and informal networks in addition to having restricted mobility, they do not always have enough information on opportunities to participate in agricultural projects. A good practice is to ensure that both men and women have information on opportunities within projects. Second, ensure that both groups have opportunities to participate in subprojects and committees and hold positions in project implementing units and related collective activities that support a project’s outcomes.

> **Select one of the client government’s implementation team members as a “gender champion.”** The client’s commitment to gender issues and capacity to champion them is necessary for successfully integrating gender in projects. The selection of a “gender champion” and the provision of capacity-building opportunities are special incentives for an individual who can subsequently provide training to the entire team while continuously advising and monitoring the implementation of agreed actions.
» **Organize women.** Organizing women in groups, clubs, or associations is often the first step in empowering women and opening economic opportunities to them, as well as supporting the acquisition and development of new knowledge and skills. Through groups, women often find it easier to access more formal support mechanisms or empowerment programs provided by governments or donors.

» **Women and men working together.** Working towards gender equality may induce threats to women’s empowerment from individuals who may be feeling disempowered, such as male family members, colleagues, or community leaders. Encouraging men and women (especially married couples) to work and participate in training together and offering family counseling may reduce such threats.

» **Recognize staff performance on gender issues.** Management’s commitment on gender can be demonstrated effectively when engagement in gender work is clearly one of the performance indicators.

The agriculture portfolio also offers a rich set of specific lessons learned from experience. Table 4.1 offers a few select lessons for integrating gender in agriculture projects. These are drawn from a review of the GFADR Lending portfolio and are arranged to correspond to each of the four objectives of the Gender Strategy.

### DISSEMINATING GOOD PRACTICES AND LESSONS OF EXPERIENCE

The GFADR gender team proposes a number of channels for disseminating lessons learned and good practices, as follows below. A number of these modalities are already in practice while others are being introduced more vigorously:

» Different project-, country-, region-specific email lists to be used for “fast delivery” of good practices.

» Short videos (including YouTube videos), blogs, and brief notes on good practices and studies.

» Field visits and learning facilitated and supported across project teams in a country and region.

» GP’s weekly e-newsletter which highlights project examples.

» Internal country website could include country-specific information related to gender in agriculture and lessons learned from different partners.
### TABLE 4.1. LESSONS LEARNED ON INTEGRATING GENDER IN AGRICULTURE PROJECTS, ORGANIZED BY WBG GENDER STRATEGY OBJECTIVE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Objective</th>
<th>Lesson</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Improving Human Endowments (health, education, social protection) | • Include activities that support food and nutrition security in a relevant manner within the project context.  
• Consider an opportunity for postsecondary and tertiary education in agriculture support in the project, especially in SSA.  
• Assess if lack of basic skills (literacy, financial literacy) hinders women’s participation in the project; arrange basic training or connect them with government or other organizations and projects in the area. |
| Removing Constraints for More and Better Jobs | • Provide transport and childcare (or allowances for them) during training and encourage private enterprises to do the same.  
• Vocational training and on-the-job training are effective ways of guaranteeing the availability of skilled workers for value chains.  
• Use “role models” that have the experience of the local labor market to provide peer support to new entrants in the labor market.  
• Use women-only training at places of employment in areas were women’s mobility is strictly controlled. |
| Removing Barriers to Women’s Ownership and Control over Assets | • Provide practical solutions to removing bottlenecks in obtaining and recognizing land tenure and land use rights at the grassroots level, working with traditional leaders.  
• Combine physical investments in assets with capacity building to use and maintain them.  
• Create incentives (e.g., additional grants) for associations to include women members.  
• Encourage public-private partnerships (e.g., offer skills training for farmers/employees of an identified company).  
• Use a range of ICTs (radio, video, tablets, mobile phones, VOIP), selected based on local infrastructure and capacity (electricity, women’s literacy, connectivity).  
• In Islamic areas, introduce Sharia-compliant microcredit products and establish women-only groups or provide options to do home-based work. |
| Enhancing Voice and Agency and Engaging Men and Boys (child marriage, gender-based violence, changing social norms, women in decision making) | • Engage men, traditional authorities, and local government early in the project design phase in discussions of women’s and men’s roles in project activities.  
• Enable and encourage women to play an active role in the consultation process from project design to the final evaluation.  
• Consider affirmative actions (e.g., quotas for female members and leadership positions in associations and project decision making bodies).  
• Encourage and incentivize the government to recruit/second both men and women to the project implementation unit, research institutes, and other organizations or institutions associated with the project.  
• Liaise at the district level with organizations working to prevent GBV, and provide information to beneficiaries on opportunities to enhance voice and agency. |

*Source: Authors.*
Agriculture is a diverse sector, embracing numerous subsectors (crops, livestock, fisheries, rural finance, extension and research, natural resource management, land tenure and land management, etc.), each requiring specific technical and socioeconomic approaches for effective weaving in of gender considerations. At the same time, in listening to operational staff working across these subsectors, it is clear that some specific gender issues would require attention and action across all operations. A strategic opportunity exists to reduce gender gaps through GFADR investments by making sure that the following questions are systematically reviewed and rigorously addressed in each new project:

» Does this operation build capacity? If so, whose and how?
» Does this operation create jobs? If so, for whom and how?
» Does this operation improve women’s access to assets and information? And if so, how?
» Does this operation improve voice and agency? If so, whose and how?

These questions correspond very closely to the objectives of the WBG Gender Strategy, further underlining the importance of agriculture in achieving those objectives and in providing opportunities for gender-responsive actions.

5.1 PROJECT PIPELINE REVIEWS

At the Agriculture GP level, the Global Engagement Unit systematically reviews gender integration in all Project Concept Notes (PCNs) and Project Appraisal Documents (PADs). Teams preparing projects receive advice on how to improve analysis of issues and gender responsiveness in their projects. Gender aspects of projects are also discussed in Quality Enhancement Review (QER) meetings, and additional information, guidance, and resources are provided where necessary and feasible.

5.2 CAPACITY BUILDING

Capacity building on gender aspects—of all stakeholders involved in the project cycle—is key for the successful integration of gender in projects. In what follows, staff
skills and training needs, and existing learning tools are described below.

» **Staff skills and capacity gaps.** The operational staff of the Agriculture GP generally is well aware of the importance of gender in agriculture projects, but in practice the knowledge and skills to address gender in the context of a project’s particular technical focus can vary significantly among WBG staff members. This disparity is the result of a gap in staff members’ capacity to identify relevant issues in agriculture and to design gender-responsive project activities. The capacity to identify gender issues should be fostered among all operational staff, while the specialized capacity to design interventions specific to agriculture can be built among gender specialists. A mechanism must be created to ensure that these gender specialists are available to assist project teams. Management and all staff should be held accountable for gender equity in their work.

» **Training needs.** Task Team Leaders emphasize the need for concise and practical “how to” advice. They have identified the following training needs: conducting gender analyses and interpreting the results; integrating gender into theories of change/results frameworks and developing gender-sensitive SMART indicators; analyzing project results through a gender lens; and integrating gender into M&E (conducting/overseeing surveys, assessing economic benefits to women, etc.).

» **Learning tools.** World Bank publications and learning tools on gender across topics and regions (Annex Ten). The Agriculture GP gender team regularly prepares technical assistance papers and notes on topical issues specifically for agriculture. These analytical products include comprehensive books (e.g., *Gender in Agriculture Sourcebook*), tools and checklists (for example, *Gender Issues in Monitoring and Evaluation in Agriculture: A Toolkit*), and case studies illustrating good practice. Moreover, online courses on gender in agriculture are available for internal and public use; they include a three-module internal course on integrating gender into agriculture projects from an operational World Bank perspective and a 17-module comprehensive course based on the *Gender in Agriculture Sourcebook*, which is available to external partners as well.

The Gender in Agriculture Team provides assistance to project teams and responds to any query regarding gender during the project cycle. In addition, a team member stands ready to participate in the identification/
appraisal missions when feasible or to provide CVs of vetted gender specialists as short-term consultants. The gender team also assists country teams (e.g., meetings with project teams) by providing information on key gender issues for the agricultural subsector with which they are concerned.

*Gender in Agriculture and Rural Development Community of Practice (GENRD)* shares information, tools, and knowledge products by email and organizes 8–10 seminars each year, along with “friendly fire” clinics on operational challenges. *Working with the four Agriculture GSGs*—Climate-Smart Agriculture, Food Safety and Quality (including nutrition), Access to Markets and Value Chains, Jobs and Livelihoods—will ensure that they will apply a gender lens to identify innovative approaches.

### 5.3 PROJECT CYCLE

As noted previously, agriculture projects have a number of opportunities to close gender gaps, but those opportunities are not pursued fully and systematically. The basis for gender-successful project design and implementation is created by negotiating with the client government to raise awareness and gain support on the one hand, and by providing project teams with adequate skills, tools, and funding to proceed. The first year after a project receives Board approval is an excellent time to plan deeply for gender integration in the project. The sections that follow identify a few critical issues in the project cycle that future projects should take into account more comprehensively.

#### 5.3.1 DESIGN PHASE

A *good gender analysis should be standard practice in the design phase of agriculture projects.* Many social analyses completed during project preparation simply present demographic data and general information on women. Often there is limited interaction between those who complete the social analyses (often consultants) and the project design team. In contrast, a robust analysis would first identify gender gaps and then, in consultations with stakeholders and facilitators, provide specific, practical advice on how to design project activities to be able to close those gaps and ensure women’s involvement.

When gender (and other social) analyses conducted during the design phase reveal only preliminary or superficial insights on gender issues (often due to limited data or time), further analytical work on gender should be part of project activities. When projects fund other analytical work related to core project activities (such as value chain analyses or climate change impact assessments), those studies should integrate gender analysis as an element of the methodology rather than as an afterthought.

**A gender-oriented theory of change needs to be linked to the overall project theory of change.** This approach will clarify and specify the pathways through which the project’s interventions are expected to result in women’s empowerment. The gender theory of change should not be separate from the project’s overall theory of change but embedded within it.

**Implement (not just design) a gender strategy with indicators and targets.** Good gender analysis completed during project preparation should lead to the design of a project gender strategy with key indicators and targets. Gender strategy timelines and mechanisms for implementation as well as indicators and targets (which can be simple) are key for allowing project teams to monitor the strategy’s implementation. However, *not every single operation requires a separate gender strategy.*

**Targeted women’s activities should complement, not replace, gender mainstreaming in core project activities.** Where women face particular constraints (e.g., in relation to social norms), it can be effective to design specific activities to help overcome those challenges. Those activities should not, however, be seen as an alternative to integrating gender considerations across core project activities.

#### 5.3.2 IMPLEMENTATION

**Ensure that gender skills, tools, and funding are available for each project.** For project staff, training for gender skills and concrete actions is essential. The need for a separate gender specialist for the team can be decided on a case-by-case basis. It would be useful to have a pool of experts financed by the GP to ensure timely support to the teams.
**Project Implementation Manuals (PIMs) play a key role in ensuring that, in practice, gender issues are integrated in implementing project activities.** The PIM should facilitate women’s engagement in decision-making processes, monitoring, and social control. Task teams should make sure that PIMs do not present barriers to engaging women in project activities but rather, enable and encourage their participation. As the client owns the PIM, the client’s capacity on gender issues needs to be ensured.

**Actively mobilize women’s participation in any competitive selection process.** It is sometimes argued that the reason a project has more male beneficiaries than women beneficiaries is that women’s groups do not apply for project support. In order to proactively address this situation, it can be effective for project teams to undertake targeted mobilization campaigns to encourage women’s groups apply for project support.

**Ensure that eligibility criteria for subproject activities do not prejudice women’s participation.** Women’s or other marginalized groups’ participation in subprojects can be ensured by defining selection criteria for subprojects to favor their participation. For example, additional points could be awarded based on the percentage of proposal beneficiaries who are female or members of marginalized groups, or the inclusion of organizations with female participation in leadership positions (being careful to confirm that women are effectively performing leadership roles). Another option is to reserve a percentage of subprojects for marginalized groups or to provide a special “funding window” for women’s proposals that meet basic threshold requirements for technical viability and sustainability. Note that it is important to hold these projects to the same standards of technical viability and sustainability, or else the project will essentially subsidize subprojects with a higher likelihood of failure.

**Gender-sensitive technical assistance is key.** Not only is it essential that women receive technical assistance, but that assistance must also be gender-sensitive, taking the particular needs of women producers into consideration. In selecting technical assistance providers, the project team often will have to give priority to providers with a track record of delivering gender-sensitive technical assistance and/or of gender training for others.

**Register individual beneficiaries rather than households.** This step is important for differentiating a project’s impacts on men and women.

**5.3.3 MONITORING AND EVALUATION**

Agriculture projects are very diverse, so it is difficult to define standard gender indicators for all of them. Moreover, while the results framework is a critical tool for tracking project outcomes, it is important to go beyond it to capture project benefits more fully. The core results indicator requirement means that practically all agriculture projects collect sex-disaggregated data on the total number of beneficiaries. However, the compulsory core gender indicator has limited usefulness for tracking progress in gender as it provides no information on the type and quality of the benefits that a project provides to women, and quite frequently it is measured poorly.

**Customized indicators could bring more information on real gender impacts,** such as the gender impact in institutional development or in the use of gender-sensitive practices. It is also extremely important to define indicators clearly to ensure that they measure the correct issues and the good practices in terms of defining SMART indicators also apply here.

**Numerous examples of gender indicators for agricultural subsectors are available from the WBG (e.g., Gender in Agriculture Sourcebook, 2009; Gender Issues in Monitoring and Evaluation, 2012) and other sources.** Nonetheless, in some emerging areas (e.g., job creation), good indicators and good data for agriculture are lacking. The other challenge is to make these examples and other gender and M&E tools easily available for teams to define relevant indicators for their projects.

One opportunity to better capture the critical domains influencing women’s empowerment is to explore how to use the **Women’s Empowerment in Agriculture Index (WEAI)** at the project level.
CHAPTER SIX

DATA

6.1 PROJECT-LEVEL GENDER DATA COLLECTION

The data collected within agricultural projects is demand-driven and project specific. World Bank lending operations in agriculture conduct baseline surveys, needs assessments, specific evaluations, and case studies (and other special studies such as food processing studies, analyses of value chains, land use patterns, or policy reviews; see Box 6.1) that are strongly connected to a project’s geographical area, context and activities. Projects also amass specific M&E information, including empirical data collected through detailed surveys or qualitative data from focus group interviews. Surveys usually collect sex-disaggregated data if they focus on the project’s beneficiaries, and some of the special studies focus specifically on gender issues in a particular area of interest, such as a value chain. Studies and data are not always included in the ISRs or even stored within the project portals, but are available to other Task teams upon request.

BOX 6.1. AN EXAMPLE OF STUDIES CONDUCTED TO SUPPORT GENDER INTEGRATION IN THE IRRIGATION DEVELOPMENT AND SUPPORT PROGRAM (IDSP) IN ZAMBIA


Source: Authors.
It is important to realize that the question of ownership can also hinder the availability of the data. Governments collect and own general data and statistics. Therefore, agricultural census data or statistics on poverty rates may not always be available to outsiders. Some data, such as project baseline data, are collected by the client, and the World Bank may not always influence how it is collected.

In some cases, specific Trust Funds are used to cover the costs of data collection or studies conducted for lending operations, and in other cases funds are allocated from the loans. These reports are requested by the project teams for project-specific purposes, and they often remain in the “gray literature” — that is, not available to the development community at large because of the sensitive nature of the data. Although such studies, by the WBG and other development partners, would be tremendously helpful and contextually relevant, access to the information remains sporadic and informal. There is neither a depository nor recent inventory of this gray literature on agriculture operations.

6.2 PORTFOLIO-LEVEL GENDER DATA COLLECTION

GPs collect data on gender in order to monitor the project portfolio. Other types of data are collected at different levels of the World Bank to assess for gender integration in agriculture. The Gender CCSA has revised the Gender Tag guidelines in the Operational portal. The new guidelines aim at prompting discussion at the design stage on the opportunity to close gender gaps. (Box 6.2).

Quality at Entry (QAE) review: Gender integration in project design documents. Projects are rated “Gender Informed” if at least one of three gender dimensions (Gender Analysis, Gender Actions, and Gender M&E) is included in the PAD. Agriculture GP projects have all been rated “gender informed” since FY2013, and projects incorporating all three gender dimensions increased from 30 percent to 100 percent in six years (Table 6.1).

Quality at Implementation (QAI) review methodology. This methodology, based on key documents (Implementation Status and Results reports, Aide Memoires, and operational manuals), was developed to understand the quality of gender interventions in the project implementation phase. A portfolio review of a sample of projects (FY2008–13) found that on average, 76 percent of the projects were rated Gender Implemented based on

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23 For a relatively small set of projects, after the gender analysis is complete it may reasonably be concluded that gender-specific actions and related M&E are not appropriate.


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**BOX 6.2. NEW GENDER TAG IN OPERATIONAL PORTAL**

The new Gender Tag tracks whether and how project appraisal documents identify specific gaps between women and men, and girls and boys in analyses, as part of the country engagement framework (country gender assessment, poverty assessment, SCD, CPF, Country Gender Action Plan) and links them to specific actions supported by the project, with indicators in the results framework. The gender tag is intended to prompt discussion at the design stage on the opportunity to close gaps between males and females in the four pillars of the World Bank Group Gender Strategy 2016–2023, i.e., human endowments, more and better jobs, ownership and control of assets, and voice and agency. The tag prompts operational teams to take an active role in identifying operations that are critical to closing key gender gaps and in preparing actions to address them in order to try and ensure that reporting on gender captures the good work being done in operations.

The new tag introduces three major changes: First, the prompt in the portal has moved from the Activity Initiation Summary (AIS) to the Concept Note stage, because project conceptualization usually has not progressed sufficiently at AIS to allow the Task Team Leader (TTL) to provide meaningful answers; Second, the questions have been sharpened to ask if teams have articulated a results chain to address the identified gaps, thereby shifting the focus to quality and depth of analysis rather than on processes and tracking quantity alone; and Finally teams will be asked to assess and rate the project’s performance in closing the targeted gender gaps identified during project preparation as part of the Implementation Completion and Results Report (ICR).
the QAI review. The review also indicated that if a project neglects gender during the design phase, it may be possible to catch up during implementation. (Annex Ten)

The World Bank Group Corporate Scorecard Indicators for Agriculture. In FY2015, only 32 projects reported gender-disaggregated results that could be included in the composite indicator farmers reached with agricultural assets and services, of the total pool of 111 projects that reported on this indicator. The share of female farmers reached (of the total reported) was only 6.9 percent. Similarly, only 54 projects (of 86) reported on farmers adopting improved agricultural technology, and only 20 reported gender-disaggregated results. The share of female farmers (of the total reported) was only 6.7 percent. Such gross underreporting of gender disaggregated data needs to be improved. For both indicators, the largest share of female farmers was in EAP.

A new indicator ‘Projects reporting gender indicators during implementation’ measures the share of projects that included gender monitoring at design that report on it during implementation. ISRs must report on all sex-disaggregated results indicators as indicated in the results framework of the Project Appraisal Document. For agriculture projects approved from FY2010–12, 76% reported on these indicators.

Enabling the Business of Agriculture. This systematic review of agribusiness across 40 countries provides a tool for policy makers to identify and analyze legal barriers for the business of agriculture and quantify the transaction costs involved in dealing with government regulations. Presently, data are presented on six topics: seed, fertilizer, machinery, finance, markets, and transport. Gender will be added in future reports, with indicators on women’s access to assets, inputs, voice, and services included.

Women, Business, and the Law. This review presents data focusing on legal and regulatory barriers to women’s entrepreneurship and employment in 173 economies across sectors. It provides quantitative measures of laws and regulations that affect women’s economic opportunities in seven areas: accessing institutions, using property, getting a job, providing incentives to work, going to court, building credit, and protecting women from violence. Many of these measures are relevant to rural areas.

Living Standards Measurement Surveys (LSMS). These surveys are a core data collection effort at the household level by the World Bank. In eight countries in Africa, a comprehensive module on agriculture has been added—the LSMS-Integrated Survey on Agriculture (LSMS-ISA), which supports multiple rounds of a nationally representative panel survey in each country to

### TABLE 6.1. SHARE OF PROJECTS ADDRESSING ALL THREE DIMENSIONS OF GENDER IN AGRICULTURE PROJECTS† IN DIFFERENT REGIONS FY2010–FY2016

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Total Number of Agriculture Projects, FY10–FY16</th>
<th>FY10</th>
<th>FY11</th>
<th>FY12</th>
<th>FY13</th>
<th>FY14</th>
<th>FY15</th>
<th>FY16</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AFR</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EAP</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ECA</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LAC</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MNA</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAR</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>260</strong></td>
<td><strong>30</strong></td>
<td><strong>34</strong></td>
<td><strong>80</strong></td>
<td><strong>76</strong></td>
<td><strong>76</strong></td>
<td><strong>93</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Authors.

Note: FY2010–13 results from all Agriculture and Rural Development projects; FY2014–15 results from Agriculture GP.
improve the understanding of the links between agriculture, socioeconomic status, and nonfarm income activities. These datasets are disaggregated by sex and provide a significant source of data for analytical work. They have already been used for a study of gender differences in agricultural productivity\(^{25}\) and to explore the extent to which women provide agricultural labor in Africa.\(^{26}\)


**Development Impact Evaluation (DIME).** This effort by the Development Research Group assesses the impact of selected WBG projects. One of its programs, Agriculture and Rural Adaptation program (AADAPT) assesses the impact of eight agriculture projects across the world. These impact evaluations disaggregate data by sex and include gender-differentiated impacts.

**Gender Databases.** It is also important to note that there are many databases with global information on gender and agriculture that can be used to support the data needs for World Bank projects (Annex Eleven).
Presently, the gender team in the GFADR Global Engagement unit includes a GG level Senior Gender in Agriculture Specialist funded by the Government of Finland. Each region has nominated a gender focal point. To maintain the momentum of the gender work in agriculture, critical in meeting the twin goals of the WBG and implementing the WBG’s Gender Strategy, it is essential to ensure that a commensurate resource envelope is provided for this work in GFADR.

Adequate budget to finance a gender expert as well as the funds required to ensure that gender expertise and analytical and operational tools are available for the agriculture teams are important to deliver on the implementation of the follow-up note and action plan.

**TABLE 7.1.** GFADR GENDER STRATEGY OPERATIONALIZATION—SELECTED AREAS OF EMPHASIS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Areas of Work</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Support to AGR Project Teams (with &gt; Focus on Implementation Support &amp; M&amp;E)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender in AGR Results Chains Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Client Capacity Building Workshops &amp; Staff Training 100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analytical work to understand gaps and learn from experience and good practices</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER EIGHT
INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL PARTNERSHIPS

Cross-boundary cooperation to achieve stronger gender outcomes and to influence change exist through both current and planned investments, technical assistance and analytics relating to agriculture. Lending to agriculture occurs across multiple World Bank GPs, regions, and thematic areas. The following GPs are key collaborators in moving the agriculture agenda forward: (1) Water Resources, (2) Social, Urban, Rural, and Resilience, (3) Environment and Natural Resources, (4) Trade and Competitiveness and (5) Transport and ICT. GFADR is also working closely with the Health, Nutrition and Population GP. The nature and depth of the cooperation depends on each analytical piece or project’s particular design and approaches. At the operational level, depending on the proportional GP involvement required, some operations will be co-managed by other GPs, while most will have team members engage on cross-GP support. Similarly, effective collaboration with CCSAs Climate Change, Jobs, and Gender, is vital for GFADR’s work in gender. Specifically, interaction with the Gender CCSA will keep GFADR staff current on the implementation of the WBG strategy, new ideas, and new practices, especially within the dimensions of analysis and M&E.

Four thematic priorities—Global Solutions Groups (GSG)—structure GFADR’s efforts to understand and support the sustainability of global food system(s): Climate-Smart Agriculture, Food Quality and Safety, Markets and Value Chains, and Employment and Livelihoods. The GSGs for each of these themes work actively to bring these thematic areas into agriculture operations, and at the same time, the gender team in GFADR and the Gender in Agriculture and Rural Development CoP will make a concerted effort to integrate gender awareness, actions, and evidence-based good practices into the work of the GSGs.
The Agriculture GP actively cooperates and shares information with a number of multilateral and bilateral partners and other stakeholders. These include the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), the International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD), the Consultative Group on International Agricultural Research (CGIAR), the Global Donor Platform for Rural Development, NGOs, bilateral donors, private sector, and other organizations working on gender issues in agriculture sector. Furthermore, relevant tools, research reports, and other knowledge products across global practices and CCSAs as well as other development organizations are collected and disseminated through GENRD.
By many measures, 2015 marks a watershed year in the international community’s efforts to advance gender equality. In September, with the adoption of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), UN Member States committed to a renewed and more ambitious framework for development. This agenda, with a deadline of 2030, emphasizes inclusion not just as an end in and of itself but as critical to development effectiveness. At the center of this agenda is the achievement of gender equality and empowerment of all women and girls (SDG 5). In addition to governments, the private sector is increasingly committed to reducing gaps between men and women not just because it is the right thing to do, but because it makes business sense.\(^27\)

Gender equality is also central to the World Bank Group’s own goals of ending extreme poverty and boosting shared prosperity in a sustainable manner. No society can develop sustainably without transforming the distribution of opportunities, resources, and choices for males and females so that they have equal power to shape their own lives and contribute to their families, communities, and countries. Promoting gender equality is smart development policy.

During the past 15 years the World Bank Group has accelerated progress in addressing gaps between males and females in its operational and analytic work, while at the same time advancing its understanding of what works and what does not to close those gaps. The 2001 strategy called for country and task teams to incorporate a gender lens in the design and objectives of their engagements and established a monitoring framework to track these considerations at entry. This approach helped raise awareness about gender equality and its centrality in Bank Group operations.

The 2015 Gender Strategy—which is based on consultations with more than 1,000 stakeholders in 22 countries from the public and the private sectors as well as civil society—builds on these achievements and reflects both changes in the global landscape and the accumulation of evidence about what works to close gaps. The strategy recognizes that stronger and better-resourced efforts are needed to address gender inequalities in access to jobs as well as control over and ownership of productive assets. Jobs and assets are key levers of change for women, their communities, and economies and fundamental drivers of economic growth and poverty reduction. Achieving results also entails closing the remaining gender gaps in health and education and enhancing women’s voice and agency—the ability to be heard and to make choices about their own lives. And it requires engaging men and boys.

The past two decades have seen significant progress in raising living standards and closing gaps between men and women, especially in education and health, yet critical gaps persist in economic opportunity as well as in voice and agency of women and girls. Improvements mask steep income variance in access to services, with women in poorer households and poorer countries facing widening gaps with their richer counterparts. Increased access to schools has helped close female-to-male gaps in enrollment, completion of primary school, and transition to secondary school in all developing regions. However, issues of learning and quality of services remain, and in some regions, reverse gender gaps—whereby males are disadvantaged—are appearing at secondary and tertiary levels.

Women lag behind men in most measures of economic opportunity. Even though the gap between male and female labor force participation narrowed between 1990 and 2013, female labor force participation remains low, hovering around 55 percent. Women are less likely to work full time, and when they work they earn 10 to 30 percent less than men (World Bank 2011, 2014a). Female owners of formal small- and medium-sized businesses face a credit gap of roughly US$300 billion (IFC and GPFI 2011).

Gains in voice and agency are uneven, with changes in the enabling environment still not fully translated into practice. Gender-based violence is a constraint to women’s voice and agency, especially in fragile and conflict-affected situations. In 2015, 127 countries had adopted laws on gender-based violence but one in three women globally have experienced physical or sexual intimate partner violence in their lifetimes. Companies realize they are affected as well, particularly in countries with high incidence of intimate partner violence, where they often record a loss of productivity. More countries have adopted laws against child marriage, but in one-third of the countries for which data are available, more than 30 percent of girls are married by age 18. The proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments has increased from 13 percent in 1990 to 22 percent in 2014, but these are small absolute gains. Gender equality is also about changing the norms and expectations about female and male roles and ultimately changing power relations, and men are key actors for, and beneficiaries of, fostering a more balanced distribution of power within governments, companies, formal and informal institutions, and households.

Addressing gender disparities is critical to the consolidation of peace and security in fragile and conflict-affected environments. Violent conflict and fragility affect men and women in different ways, a difference that is seldom recognized or addressed in mainstream conflict and reconstruction policies and programs. At the same time, extended exposure to conflict and crisis can give rise to new dynamics in the traditional gender roles that men and women assume. These shifts can present opportunities to reassess and transform gender roles for positive change. And while gender equality challenges prevalent in fragile and conflict-affected situations are broadly similar to those in other developing countries, important contextual factors in those situations require different operational approaches. The World Bank Group has committed to supporting efforts to address gender gaps in fragile and conflict-affected situations (IDA Resource Mobilization Department 2013).

This strategy builds on the conceptual framework of the World Development Report 2012: Gender Equality and Development (World Bank 2011), which posits that households, markets, and institutions, and the interactions between them, influence gender equality and economic development. The framework focuses on three domains of gender equality: human endowments, notably health and education; economic opportunity, as measured by participation
in economic activities and access to and control of key productive assets; and voice and agency, as expressed in freedom from violence, the ability to have voice and influence in governance and political processes, and the ability to exercise control on key decisions such as marriage, sexual activity, and childbearing. The three pillars are strongly interconnected. For example, although health and education are important in their own right, they also contribute to women’s ability to take advantage of economic opportunities and their capacity to exercise voice and agency. Gender-based violence is a constraint to women’s voice and agency and can lead to reduced mobility, restricted access to certain jobs, work absenteeism for both men and women, and long-term trauma and mental health issues, which affect the next generation. The Bank Group’s country-driven approach allows for the emphasis within each pillar to vary according to specific situations within the country and the private sector.

Within this framework, the World Bank Group Gender Strategy focuses on four objectives:

1. Improving human endowments—health, education, and social protection. Closing the remaining sticky “first-generation” gaps, while starting to tackle emerging issues, is fundamental to poverty reduction and shared prosperity. First-generation issues include further decreasing maternal mortality, improving women’s access to health services, closing the remaining gender gaps in education, and expanding social safety nets. Among emerging, or “second-generation,” issues are ensuring health care for an aging population and for noncommunicable diseases; improving early childhood development; breaking down gender stereotypes in teacher training and curriculum development; increasing girls’ enrollment in science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM); facilitating school-to-work transitions; and developing innovations to promote women’s economic empowerment in social safety net interventions.

2. Removing constraints for more and better jobs. Increasing women’s participation in the labor force, their income-earning opportunities, and their access to productive assets are critical to advancing economic opportunities for women—one such partnership, SheWorks, led by the International Finance Corporation (IFC), focuses on quality employment opportunities for all. The strategy will focus on the determinants for women to access more and better jobs, including developing policy frameworks for care services, reducing deficits in infrastructure that prevent women’s participation in paid employment, promoting the conditions for women’s entrepreneurship, and reducing skill gaps and occupational sex segregation.

3. Removing barriers to women’s ownership of and control over assets. The strategy will focus on key productive assets such as land (individual ownership and female access to community-owned lands), housing, and technology. Access to financial and insurance services are key enablers of asset ownership, and the World Bank Group has committed to push Universal Financial Inclusion to help close the persistent gap between women and men, notably in access to accounts. Another important prerequisite is access to identification, which still eludes the poorest women and children. To provide services at scale, technology can play an important role. The World Bank Group will assist clients in analyzing data on gender gaps in these areas, and using evidence to inform policy making, improve business practices, promote universal identification, and prioritize financial inclusion in ways that close gender gaps.

4. Enhancing women’s voice and agency and engaging men and boys. The World Bank Group will promote and enhance women’s participation and decision making in service delivery and support the reduction of gender-based violence and mitigate its impact in conflict situations. For example, increased attention can be paid to safety and sexual harassment in transport or sanitation projects or the promotion of positive parenting and peaceful conflict resolution among participants in social safety net projects. Psychosocial and economic support can be made available to survivors of gender-based violence in crisis environments. The World Bank Group will continue to support the collection of evidence about legal gender differences—building
the base for changing adverse masculinity norms and promoting positive behaviors—and the effective representation, participation, and decision making of women in local service-delivery governance structures, notably water, energy, schools, health center management committees, and local development committees.

The new strategy also places a stronger emphasis on outcomes and results. This requires the following:

- **Strengthening the country-driven approach**, with better country-level diagnostics, policy dialogue, and sex-disaggregated data.
- **Developing a better understanding of what works for gender equality**, by enriching the evidence base.
- **Building more systematically on what works**, by bringing the evidence to task teams and clients.
- **Adopting a strategic approach to mainstreaming that helps achieve results in client countries**, including a more robust monitoring system.
- **Leveraging partnerships for effective outcomes**, particularly with key UN agencies and the private sector.

From 1979 to 2014, the global framework for gender equality and the engagement of various actors promoting this agenda strengthened significantly. However, donor financial commitments have not kept pace with political commitments. Using data from the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development’s Development Assistance Committee gender marker, the share of total aid from bilateral donors that can be attributed to gender equality increased from 8 percent in 2003 to 15 percent in 2013.

At the same time, the private sector increasingly recognizes that closing gender gaps in employment and leadership means better talent, more productivity, more diverse leadership, more customers, and a stronger bottom line. More firms in the private sector are changing business practices, developing public-private partnerships, and committing resources to achieving gender equality. The World Bank Group will work with the private sector to create equal opportunities for women and men in their supply chains as part of their corporate leadership, in their workforce, and as customers. Efforts to transform the way companies do business will not only result in a reduction of the gaps between men and women in the economy, but it will enable them to capture previously overlooked talent and customers.

The World Bank Group is fully committed to the 2030 Sustainable Development Agenda and SDG 5, and to achieving its vision of a shared planet free of poverty with nobody left behind. The new goals build on the achievements and lessons of the Millennium Development Goals and reflect the growing interconnectedness of development challenges and the changing institutional and financial landscape for development. With its country-driven, multisectoral, and public-private business model, as well as its ability to leverage financial resources, the World Bank Group will make an important contribution to operationalizing this agenda. Ultimately, ensuring equal opportunities for women and girls is not just a global goal in itself, it is critical to the achievement of all the goals.
ANNEX TWO

CLOSING GENDER GAPS IN AGRICULTURE PROJECTS

The table below sets out the focal areas of the active portfolio and projects under development, pertaining to agriculture that offers opportunities to close gender gaps.

**TABLE A2.1. FOCUS AREAS OF THE REGIONAL PORTFOLIO AND PIPELINE PROJECTS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Ongoing Projects</th>
<th>Projects under Development</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| SSA    | • Agricultural productivity (research & extension, input distribution)  
• Commercial agriculture, agribusiness  
• Emergency and crisis recovery  
• Community-based rural development | ✓ Combining agricultural productivity with value chains and competitiveness  
✓ Climate change adaptation (CSA, landscape approach, resilience)  
✓ CDD |
| MNA    | • Natural resource management, Community-Driven Development (CDD) | ✓ Value chain and agribusiness |
| LAC    | • Sustainable agriculture and rural development | ✓ Agricultural competitiveness, sustainable production |
| ECA    | • Agricultural competitiveness, institutional development | ✓ Agricultural competitiveness |
| EAP    | • Rural area poverty alleviation (rural development/rural livelihoods) | ✓ Land allocation  
✓ Rural area poverty alleviation (rural development/rural livelihoods) |
| SAR    | • Water management (irrigated agriculture, rural livelihoods) | ✓ Rural transformation, economic development, irrigated agriculture |

*Source: Authors.*
The subsequent table and sections offer specific examples of flagship projects that demonstrate the “what and how” of activities undertaken to fill the 7 critical gaps identified by regional gender focal points in agriculture.

**TABLE A2.2. AGRICULTURE PROJECTS BY REGION ADDRESSING THEMATIC GENDER GAPS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Labor</th>
<th>Land</th>
<th>Services and Inputs</th>
<th>Education</th>
<th>Voice</th>
<th>Gender-Based Violence (GBV)</th>
<th>Nutrition</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SSA</strong></td>
<td>Regional Sahel Pastoralism</td>
<td>Zambia: Irrigation Development Project</td>
<td>Agricultural</td>
<td>Africa Higher Education</td>
<td>Agricultural Cluster</td>
<td>Second Agricultural Growth</td>
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<td></td>
<td>examples†</td>
<td>(P147674)</td>
<td>Productivity</td>
<td>Centers of Excellence Project</td>
<td>Development Project, Uganda</td>
<td>Project, Ethiopia</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Program for Southern Africa (P094183)</td>
<td>(P126974)†</td>
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<td>(P148591)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Yemen: Rainfed Agriculture</td>
<td>Project (P089205)</td>
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*Source: Authors.*

†Projects listed as examples have a component or actions that contribute to closing gender gap(s) in the region. Land projects are led mainly from other GPs but contribute directly to closing that gender gap in the region. For more information on the projects, see Flagship projects or regional briefs.

‡Led by GED, in cooperation with GFADR on agriculture education.
FLAGSHIP PROJECTS

Improving Human Endowments and Strengthening Voice and Agency

RWANDA: Land Husbandry, Water Harvesting, and Hillside Irrigation Project (P114931, FY2010–17) has the objective to increase the productivity and commercialization of hillside agriculture in target areas. Women are encouraged to join self-help groups and cooperatives, where women are often leaders in the finance and audit functions. In addition to learning techniques that support sustainable agriculture, women and men have participated in targeted decision making and financial literacy training. The project also promotes nutrition awareness training, kitchen gardens, and crop-fortification, which can potentially reduce women’s labor burden, improve nutrition, and increase their income. Women now have greater voice and agency in their communities and families because of their participation in cooperatives and in decisions over land use.

BOLIVIA: Community Investment in Rural Areas (PICAR) (P107137, FY2011–19) project aims to improve access to sustainable basic infrastructure and services for 300,000 individuals from the most disadvantaged rural communities, selected from some of Bolivia’s poorest municipalities. The communities themselves define and prioritize the investments and manage the government funds. The results have been outstanding: by actively involving women in managing and accounting for the use of public resources, the project has created a high standard of transparency to the committees’ work and the increased engagement from women has become a valuable and intangible asset for the communities.

MYANMAR: Agricultural Development Support Project (P147629, FY2015–FY22) aims to increase crop yields and cropping intensity. The project pays close attention to women’s empowerment and gender aspects of water management services: poor rural transport infrastructure and safety concerns limit women interactions outside their villages, constraining their opportunity for social networking and learning. In addition, it seeks to address the impact of cultural norms and practices that prevent women from fully participating in decision making with regard to resource allocation such as water management in irrigated areas.

MOROCCO: Social and Integrated Agriculture Project (ASIMA) Project (P129774, FY2013–FY17) aims to increase the implementation of land and biodiversity conservation measures in selected projects directed at small farmers in targeted marginal areas characterized by high poverty rates, low levels of education, and low productivity. Nearly 11 percent of agricultural cooperatives in Morocco are women’s cooperatives and ASIMA promotes social inclusion by giving particular attention to female small farmers. The selection of agri-food chains and of the demonstration projects has been made taking into consideration the representativeness of female beneficiaries.

SAHEL REGION: Regional Sahel Pastoralism Support Project (P147674, FY2015–21). The objective of the project is to improve access to essential productive assets, services, and markets for pastoralists and agro-pastoralists in selected transborder areas and along transhumance axes across six Sahelian countries, and strengthen country capacities to respond promptly and effectively to pastoral crises or emergencies. The project operates in a fragile conflict area where women’s participation in income-generating activities may be circumscribed by a lack of mobility and resources and by cultural and religious norms. Empowering women and recognizing their inputs in pastoralism will reduce communities’ vulnerability to external shocks, including conflict. The project is looking for innovative ways for addressing gender in all of its activities, and the aim is to have women constitute 30 percent of the more than 2 million beneficiaries. The project coordination units in each country have local gender facilitators, who are trained in gender issues and form a network of gender specialists in pastoral areas.

ZAMBIA: Irrigation Development and Support Project (P102459, FY2012–18) has promoted gender equality by strengthening women’s collective action and participation in agricultural growth initiatives through the use of ICT. Women were able to openly discuss their expectations of the project, their concerns, and factors that would constrain their participation, especially concerns regarding land resettlement and reallocation in

Ownership and Control over Assets and More and Better Jobs

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polygamous households and in relation to land held under customary tenure arrangements. This information triggered just-in-time analytical work (“Women’s Land Ownership and Compensation Study in Zambia”) to refine the project’s resettlement approach and ensure women’s access to land at all stages of implementation.

REPUBLIC OF KYRGYZSTAN: Agriculture Productivity Assistance Project (P144338 and P118838, FY2013–18) promoted women’s equality by increasing their incomes and improving nutrition for the whole family. The project’s objective is to increase agricultural productivity among the beneficiaries. Its Community Seed Fund sub-component includes assistance for self-help groups (92 percent women) that were selected through discussions with local authorities and on the basis of poverty criteria. The groups were trained in agronomic practices and vegetable processing, and each participant received seed for four crops, whose values was repaid in cash after harvest with 100% repayment.

INDIA: National Rural Livelihoods Project (NRLP) (P104164, FY2011–17) has promoted women’s equality by enabling them to build financial capital and become clients of formal financial institutions. This project works intensively with nearly 2.86 million households in 13 states populated by almost 85 percent of the nation’s poor. Focusing on the women in rural households, the project mobilizes them to form self-help groups which are then federated at the village, subdistrict, and district level (the project currently includes 280,519 self-help groups of rural women). By promoting savings among the rural poor, particularly women, the project helps them to build financial capital and become clients of formal financial institutions, so that they can obtain credit and other financial services.

BRAZIL: The Rio Grande do Norte Regional Development and Governance Project (P126452, FY2013–FY19) supports the Government of Brazil in increasing food security and access to productive infrastructure and markets for family agriculture; improving the quality of, and access to, health, education and public security services; and improving systems for public expenditure, human resource and physical asset management in the context of a results-based management approach. Gender is mainstreamed through the project activities and the project’s inclusive design also promotes the participation of women and youth, as well as marginalized indigenous and quilombola communities. Project Interventions in the health sector will benefit infants, women of reproductive age and those at risk for breast and cervical cancer.
BACKGROUND

Gender inequality permeates the economic fabric of many African countries: addressing it is an integral part of solving structural challenges faced by half of the region’s population, as well as for unleashing Africa’s economic potential. In most of the African countries, agriculture is the engine of growth, and the gender asymmetries are critical in rural areas. The framing of this annex on the Gender Strategy and agriculture in Africa follows the framing of the Gender Action Plan (2013–18) recently developed by the Gender Team in Africa. The action plan stresses the need for generating and using a sound evidence base to guide policy dialogue in African countries. While supporting the mainstreaming of gender, the plan raises four thematic issues: (1) reducing female mortality rates; (2) closing earnings and productivity gaps; (3) shrinking the differences in voice in the household and society; and (4) investing in youth. All of these themes are relevant to agriculture.

CRITICAL GAPS

Reducing Female Mortality. Gender asymmetries in health care provision contribute to female mortality, along with deficiencies in nutrition among pregnant women and children. The links between malnutrition, child mortality, and stunting are clear. Regional maternal mortality rates for 2015 ranged from 12 deaths per 100,000 livebirths for developed regions to 546 (511–652) for SSA. While the figures for SSA are high, there has been substantial improvement from 1 death per 16 women in 1990, to 1 per 36 women in 2015. Rwanda and Cape Verde achieved a 75 percent reduction in maternal mortality during that period.

Gender inequality in nutrition—resulting from women’s weak land rights, lower levels of education, and inadequate access to credit, extension services, and technologies—has been widely documented. Conversely, when women have more control over household resources, children’s nutrition has been found to be better. Households in which women
have more resources often spend more on household and child nutrition—improving the quantity and quality of the diet—compared to male-dominated households.

**Actions.** Improving women’s access to assets, services, and voice addresses the question of nutrition, through both the production and consumption of a more diversified diet. Agricultural policies and strategies can address the nutrition issue by promoting the diversification of crop production (pulses, vegetables, fruits), increasing the consumption of livestock products and fish, mitigating health and nutrition risks associated with agriculture (waterborne, food-borne, and zoonotic diseases, as well as occupational injuries and health hazards), and breeding more nutritious varieties of the staple food crops consumed by poor people in developing countries. All of these efforts must include women in the decision-making process. For instance, under the Ethiopia Second Agricultural Growth Project (P148591), the European Union supports efforts to mainstream nutrition into the project’s activities. In addition to nutrition, this project also addresses female farmers’ access to services and markets. The project should benefit an estimated 1.6 million smallholders.

**Agricultural Productivity: Land.** Women make up about half of the labor force in SSA. They typically farm smaller, less productive plots and grow less profitable crops. FAO estimates that less than 20 percent of landholders globally are women. In Western and Central Africa and the Middle East and North Africa (MENA), this proportion is less than 10 percent. Compared to men, women have less security over their landholdings, which are also consistently smaller than those owned by men (for example, in Ghana the mean value of men’s landholdings is three times that of women’s landholdings). When women have more secure tenure over land, the impacts are substantial. In Rwanda, for instance, improved land tenure security led women landowners to increase their investments in agriculture by 18 percent, twice the level observed for men.

The issue of rural land ownership is becoming more acute as increasing numbers of men are leaving rural areas for urban centers in search of work, leaving women to assume all of the agricultural tasks, often without sufficient decision-making power. As the rural-urban transition proceeds ever more rapidly in many regions, not enough is known about the parallel feminization of agriculture and the opportunities and challenges it poses for women farmers.

**Actions.** The Land team in GSURR leads the work on land projects, and GP Agriculture is collaborating with them. The Global Land Unit will continue to incorporate gender into all land projects, and (going forward) specifically those in Africa. The Development Data Group—Center for Development Data is working on gender-disaggregated data on land ownership and use through modifications to the LSMS surveys, and the pilots are focusing on Africa.

The rural-urban transition, especially accompanied by male out-migration, is a prominent ongoing development, yet fairly little is known about its impacts. To address this knowledge gap, the GE Gender team is engaging in a global study with FAO to improve the understanding of pathways to the feminization of agriculture and make it possible to craft effective interventions to address it. The new Africa Region Agricultural Policy Unit will be involved in reviewing and developing these studies so they can seamlessly feed into the country profiles and dialogues.

**Agricultural Productivity: Services.** Women in Africa do not have nearly as much access to credit, fertilizer and other inputs, or technical and market information as men, stifling their productive power in the agricultural sector. If women enjoyed the same access to agricultural inputs as men, the productivity of women’s farms could increase by 10–30 percent. But there is more to this issue. The recent “Levelling the Field” report shows that equalizing women’s access to productive resources is not enough to close this gap—the returns to those resources are often even more important. This consideration is especially true for farm labor, which emerges as the chief driver of the productivity gap. For example, in Niger women use less adult male farm labor on their plots—a factor behind the country’s 19 percent productivity gap. But even when Niger’s female farmers deploy

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the same amount of labor on their plots as males, men still enjoy an advantage by garnering higher returns (in terms of output per hectare) from the male labor that they use on their fields. Many context-specific factors contribute to this discrepancy: childcare duties impinge on women’s ability to mobilize and supervise farm labor, norms lead male laborers to exert more effort on male-managed plots, women are not able to command labor at key planting and harvesting periods, and/or cash constraints oblige women to hire less effective farm labor.

**Actions.** Supporting the development of the care economy is coming to be recognized as an underused opportunity. For example, Martinez and co-authors conducted a randomized evaluation of a preschool program in rural Mozambique and found that, in addition to positive effects on schooling and child development outcomes for beneficiary children, the program led to a big positive externality: primary caregivers increased their labor force participation by 26 percent relative to a control group. Similar approaches need to be piloted more broadly and scaled up where feasible. They can free more time for women farmers and create local employment opportunities for caregivers.

ICT-enhanced service provision will be expanded, ranging from mobile banking to e-extension and the provision of market information (Digital Green videos, Interactive Voice Response systems, rural radio, and other technologies). The new CoP on ICT in agriculture with the GE Gender team will lead this work.

The Second Agricultural Growth Project in Ethiopia (P148591) is using Digital Green participatory videos to reach farmers with extension services, including extension advice on nutrition. Since 2008, Africa Region has engaged in a set of regional productivity programs covering 15 countries in West Africa (P094084, ongoing), 4 countries in East Africa (EAAPP, closed) and 3 countries in Southern Africa (APPSA, P094183). Investments have focused on research, extension, seed production and value chains for selected commodities (cassava, wheat, maize, rice, dairy, aquaculture, and others). EAAPP and APPSA are applying a 30 percent quota for women’s involvement across the activities. The provision of improved cassava planting material and the introduction of SRI rice production systems have particularly involved and benefited women farmers, substantially increasing their incomes. In all programs, women were 30 percent of the advanced degree students sponsored, and the AWARD mentor program for women scientists was associated with WAAPP. WAAPP also influenced the establishment of a gender task force in ECOWAS (the Economic Community of West African States).

**Employment.** Labor productivity in firms managed by women in Africa is 6–8 percent lower than in firms managed by men. Market segregation often constrains women to less productive sectors. For example, 9–14 percent of the differential in gender earnings for the self-employed is attributed to the industry in which they operate. Women are also overrepresented among unpaid and wage workers and in the informal sector. With a total of 65 percent of women being employed, Africa has the highest rate of unpaid female workers. There is a dearth of information on female participation in the informal sector and on earnings from various sources of paid work.

**Actions.** With FAO and the GSG on Livelihoods and Jobs, the Gender group in GE is engaging in a study to understand the gender aspects of “green jobs” (defined as jobs in agriculture, forestry, and natural resource management) and is developing a methodology to review the agriculture portfolio in terms of green jobs. In addition, the Jobs CCSA is reviewing the kinds of jobs (primary, secondary, tertiary) agriculture can generate in Africa. The GE will work with the team led by Luc Christiansen to bring gender into that analysis. The Jobs CCSA is also engaged in a Let’s Work Program that includes a horticulture sector review in Tanzania. These are great entry points to bring in gender in data collection and analysis and in crafting policies and interventions. Lastly, a recent study on the contractual arrangements and HR policies between agribusiness companies and

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women farmers/employees in Zambia noted that private companies often have quite progressive HR policies in the interests of supporting sustainable supply chains and keeping trained staff. These kinds of arrangements can present an opportunity for PPPs that make more and better jobs available for women in agriculture.

**Voice.** In relation to agency, the key issues identified in the Gender Strategy are women’s lack of societal voice through underrepresentation in national and local decision-making bodies; the muted voice of women within households in many countries (which is associated with their limited control over household resources and fertility); and women’s exposure to domestic violence. While agricultural projects might not directly address these issues, they can be aware of them and collaborate with NGOs or responsible national agencies.

The major form of collective action for farmers is the formation of rural producer organizations (RPOs) and water user associations (WUAs). Some 25 percent of the World Bank’s support for agriculture involves RPOs in some way—mainly through support for capacity building at the grassroots level, or support to RPOs as implementers of subprojects. In 2010, 55 percent of the RPO support components gave attention to gender (in particular to ensuring women’s inclusion and meaningful participation). A major deficiency has been the lack of attention to improving the capacity of producer organizations beyond the community level (at the subnational and national levels). Another deficiency has been the lack of attention to strengthening women’s voice.

A more structural constraint for women’s limited involvement in RPOs and WUAs is their limited access to land. Because their rights to land and water are often insecure, women can be marginalized in RPOs and in WUAs (which often formalize farmer’s rights to use water).

**Actions.** Going forward, Enabling the Business of Agriculture is going to include indicators for women’s collective action. Systematic data of this kind will help to articulate these points more convincingly in policy dialogues and design better investments. The Agriculture GP will cooperate with the Water group and the Land group to strengthen women’s voices in relation to these two themes.

Two specific operations to enhance women’s voice can be highlighted—the Uganda Agricultural Cluster Development Project (P148591) and the Regional SahelPastoralism Support Project (P147674). The Uganda project identifies commodities, their production areas, and communities to support. Each value chain is analyzed, and support to farmer groups is designed based on a gender analysis. Progress is tracked by gender-disaggregated data. The regional pastoralism project will apply gender analysis across its activities, engage a group of gender focal points in participating countries, and support women’s groups in livestock production.

**Investing in Building the Capacity of Youth.** Africa is closing the gender gap in primary education, and as a result girls will be better educated than their mothers. At the same time, a serious gap remains in terms of support for vocational and tertiary education in agriculture, especially for females. In 2007 a joint study by the World Bank’s Human Development and Agricultural and Rural Development groups showed that agricultural education overall had been gravely neglected by donors and national governments. Women students and professionals were especially affected. For example, the Agricultural Science and Technology Indicators database of the International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI) reveals that among agricultural researchers in SSA in 2007, 14 percent of PhDs were female, 19 percent of MScs, and 23 percent of BScs. Data from 2014 show a mere 5 percent increase in each category. Agriculture is becoming increasingly knowledge-intensive and oriented toward participation in innovation systems. As a result, up-to-date technical skills and improved competence in soft skills (communication,
leading consultations, fostering collective action, using ICTs, and others) are increasingly required.

**Actions.** The 2007 report urgently needs to be updated to make the case for vocational and tertiary education in agriculture. Vocational training has unexploited potential to impart critical skills in a relatively short time, and new vocational training models (such as Helvetas) need to be piloted in Africa and scaled up where possible.
BACKGROUND

The EAP region is very diverse, and the gender constraints differ, especially between the Pacific and other parts of the region. The Pacific region has experienced faster growth and greater poverty reduction than any other region. These achievements have helped to narrow gender gaps, most notably in education and health. Gender gaps in access to education—including secondary and tertiary education—have closed dramatically.

Despite progress, important challenges remain to achieving gender equality in the region. Growth and development alone are not sufficient to achieve gender equality in all socioeconomic dimensions and for all women. Gender gaps in economic opportunity and influence in society have proven particularly persistent. The Pacific region suffers from gender inequalities reflected in women’s inferior asset endowments, economic opportunities, and voice and agency. Women are also disproportionately vulnerable to the effects of natural disasters and climate change, which heighten the risks to their livelihoods, especially in the Pacific.

Female labor force participation is relatively high in EAP, where about 70 percent of women participate in economic activities—exceeding every other region. Women also have a higher level of participation in the management and ownership of firms than women in other developing regions. In the Pacific region, many women in both urban and rural areas work in the informal sector. Even though most of the region’s economies have shifted away from agriculture and toward manufacturing and services, agriculture still employs a large share of the labor force, ranging from about 34 percent in the Philippines to 70 percent in Lao PDR. Most people in the poorest households work in agriculture. Men have more opportunities for employment outside of agriculture, while women are more likely to engage in unpaid family labor in agriculture and in the informal sector. In addition, the EAP population is aging faster—and on a larger scale—than the population of any other region in history, which increases women’s care-related work burden.
Women still earn less than men for similar work—around 70–80 percent, on average. Female workers are more likely than men to work as unpaid family labor or in the informal sector. Whether as farmers or entrepreneurs, women still own less land and have weaker access to productive inputs, adversely affecting productivity and profitability.

World Bank analyses find that promoting gender equality in access to productive resources and economic opportunities can contribute to higher economic productivity that benefits women and men alike. If societies in EAP were to allocate resources on the basis of people’s skills and abilities, rather than on the basis of gender, per worker productivity could increase by as much as 7–18 percent, with important implications for growth and poverty reduction.

Women continue to have a weaker voice and influence than men in the home, in politics, and in civil society. And violence against women remains high. Women’s lack of voice and influence is particularly acute in the Pacific, where the prevalence of gender-based violence is among the highest of any developing region.

The EAP Gender Action Plan (2011–13) (still in effect) advocates the following agenda for public action: (1) promoting gender equality in endowments and human development; (2) taking measures to close gender gaps in economic opportunity; (3) taking initiatives to strengthen women’s voice and influence—and to protect them from violence; and (4) fostering opportunities and managing risks associated with emerging regional trends.

CRITICAL GAPS

Economic Empowerment. Gender gaps in economic opportunity and influence in society have proven particularly persistent in EAP. Gaps in access to credit and assets remain critical gaps for women farmers. Women’s participation in economic activities is further complicated by the fact that women face different issues, such as high tax burdens and very small enterprises. In addition to the lack of nonfarm employment, employment segregation by gender remains substantial, and as noted, women earn less than men for the same work. With the exception of China, every country in EAP has at least one law that makes it harder for women to get a job or start a business. In this respect, Malaysia is among the most restrictive economies in the region. Such stereotypes clearly limit women’s opportunities and prevent them from achieving their potential and participating, on an equal footing with men, in the labor market. Women remaining in rural areas are often overburdened with work related to caretaking.

Actions. Hundreds of thousands of women are being reached through WGB-supported microfinance activities in the region, including rural women and female entrepreneurs in Vietnam, Mongolia, Indonesia, Papua New Guinea, and Timor-Leste. In Vietnam the Second Rural Finance Project has created some 10,000 jobs with women. Beyond offering microcredit, the project has helped women to deal with social issues that affect them adversely. The Philippines Rural Development Project has tailored support to women for adding value to agricultural products, marketing products, and developing an enterprise.

Voice and Participation. Gender-based differences in social and political capital in a number of rural areas reduce women’s access to information on farming techniques and their ability to protect and regulate local resources and their marketing channels. Even though women are often active in different community groups, they belong to groups that do not have influence on community or farming decisions, while men dominate such groups.31 As mentioned, women’s lack of voice and influence and exposure to gender-based violence is particularly acute in the Pacific.

Actions. Increasing women’s access to information and training, extension services, and other productive inputs can play a key role in enhancing the productivity of female-led enterprises, both within and outside agriculture. The Poverty Reduction Fund in Lao PDR has a built-in mechanism to favor proposals identified by women in poor rural communities for public services and small-scale infrastructure. As a result, 650,000 poor people in remote areas gained access to basic services between 2003 and 2011, with 91 percent of these projects reflecting the priorities of women. In China, women are offered equal

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opportunities to join farmer cooperatives and participate in training and capacity-building activities. Special consideration is given to the voice of women as a vulnerable group, both in accessing employment and in taking part in joint decisions.

Land. Despite strong recent economic growth and overall development, gender disparities in access to and control over land remain pervasive in the East Asia Region. Women are still less likely to own land than men, and even when they do, their holdings are likely to be smaller and less valuable than those of men. Female-headed households also tend to have poorer access to other productive inputs and support services, including livestock and access to agricultural extension services. Because the reasons for women’s lower access to land differ across the region—from unfavorable legal frameworks to cultural norms and practices that deem land to be a “male asset”—effective policies to increase female landholdings need to account for context-specific constraints.

Actions. In Myanmar, a project focusing on productivity growth and irrigation will develop an inclusive land administration plan in the targeted irrigation sites.

Resilience to Climate Change. The Pacific region is known to be one of the most natural-disaster-prone regions of the world. Women farmers are more exposed to climate risks than men, considering that women have fewer endowments and entitlements. They also have less access to information and services and are less mobile than men, which can limit their capacity to recover from disasters.

Actions. In China, a CSA project encourages women to participate in technical activities and training programs to improve their capacity to adopt new agricultural techniques and increase their resilience to climate change.
BACKGROUND

Overall, ECA countries have managed to close large gender gaps in human development, yet women continue to lag behind men in economic opportunities in most countries. Attitudes towards gender have been greatly affected by political systems in the region. The socialist ideology that prevailed in much of ECA included a fairly strong element of gender parity and contributed to the development of a legal framework that is broadly gender neutral with respect to inheritance, property, freedom of movement, and the educational rights of women and girls. The collapse of the communist and socialist regimes and a resurgence of religiosity has led to some backtracking in equality as traditional paternalistic patterns have reasserted themselves and spread.

While some countries have become more equal, women in certain communities face barriers that reduce welfare and growth. The barriers are most evident when it comes to women’s economic and leadership opportunities, even though their educational achievement and tertiary education levels are generally higher than those of men in many ECA countries. Female labor participation and educational attainment vary considerably across the region. Women play a crucial role in local food security and comprise about 17 percent of agricultural workers in ECA countries. Variation across countries with respect to averages is modest. In Central Asia, however, women are almost exclusively responsible for weeding cotton fields, and they provide a large part of the labor for the harvest. Because much of this labor is informal, and like other labor spent on family farms, it is not usually captured in official statistics. In fact, most agricultural employment in the region is informal. Many women work as farmers on their own account or as unpaid family workers, yet they do not declare themselves to be employed (or seeking work) in agriculture. Self-employment tends to be more widespread in ECA countries with large rural populations.

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The Regional Gender Action Plan does not have sector-level gender priorities for agriculture, but the Sector Unit for Private and Financial Sector Development, Europe and Central Asia Region (ECSPF), promotes access to finance for both women and men, which is important for the agricultural sector.

CRITICAL GAPS

Property and Land Rights. The legal frameworks in ECA countries are gender-neutral, yet significant differences in implementation are evident among countries. For example, the share of female agricultural landholders ranges from 5 percent in Albania to 36 percent in Moldova. Ensuring women’s access to and control of land as well as other assets is important for eliminating poverty and increasing economic productivity.

Actions. All ECA land projects include a social assessment with a gender focus and specialized activities to increase women’s knowledge of and access to information about their land rights, gender sensitivity training for land agency staff, and gender-disaggregated monitoring. Other actions are context and country specific (legal aid, promoting joint titling, and others). It will be important for the Agriculture GP to work with the Global Land Unit to ensure that agricultural operations address these issues where possible.

Economic Empowerment. The persistence of traditional social roles and deep-rooted stereotypes limit women’s and girls’ education and employment options in many countries in the region, even though the legal framework and educational attainments are effectively gender neutral. Women are also largely responsible for household work and childcare, which further limits their participation in the labor market and engagement in entrepreneurial activities, especially in rural areas. It is widely accepted that the man is primarily responsible for providing the income for the family. Domestic violence toward women is a widespread problem. In addition, women’s wage rates overall lag behind men’s.

Actions. Improving access to information, training, and finance can benefit both women and men in the agricultural sector. In the Republic of Kyrgyzstan, women make up the majority (92 percent) of rural self-help groups; with support from the World Bank, these groups receive training in sustainable agriculture practices and food processing (preserving vegetables), as well as in business skills that enable them to improve the nutrition of their families as well as increase their incomes. In Uzbekistan a project focuses on creating better rural jobs within the horticulture value chain.

Migration. Male migration in Central Asia and the Caucasus has left women alone and responsible for their farms and households. This situation can empower women as decision makers and increase their agency, but it can also further entrench gender roles. Women left behind in societies with very rigid gender norms may not be able to challenge patriarchal norms and gender inequalities, which restricts their flexibility and farm management options. Across the Balkans, it is young women rather than men who leave the homestead and seek employment in towns, perhaps also as a consequence of their relatively higher average educational achievement relative to men.

Actions. The feminization of agriculture study described in the main text will help to define the factors that drive the feminization of agriculture and clarify the consequences for women, their families, and agricultural production and food systems. This information will help to inform WBG operations and investments, including the design of agricultural projects and programs in general.

36 See http://eca.unwomen.org/en/where-we-are/moldova/economic-empowerment#hash.1awmgU/9.dpuF
**Decision-Making Power.** Increasing women’s decision-making power requires changes in social perceptions of gender norms and stereotypes, and it requires actions to address gender-based violence, which limits women’s power to make decisions. Encouraging women to form agricultural self-help groups, as well as giving them opportunities and the capacity to participate meaningfully in farmers’ associations, are ways to increase their decision-making power. Decision-making power within a farming household is not absolute, but as a rule of thumb, most farms that are commercial in nature tend to be led by men, whereas agricultural activities that are oriented more toward subsistence and household survival are the domain of women. In cases in which one partner works off of the farm, the other usually has more decision-making power.

**Actions.** Women can be excluded by male-dominated community decision-making structures and processes in rural areas. Under a *Community Agricultural Resource Management and Competitiveness Project in Armenia*, women are receiving training and information to enhance their participation and decision-making capacity in producer organizations.
BACKGROUND

Agriculture is one of the keys to promoting growth and reducing poverty and food insecurity in LAC. It represents almost 8 percent of the region’s combined GDP and employs 20 percent of the population. It is also the most pro-poor sector, with growth in agriculture proving more effective than nonagricultural growth at reducing poverty. Almost two-thirds of the region’s rural population still lives in poverty, and women are overrepresented among the poor. For that reason, mainstreaming gender in agriculture not only is essential for the sector’s performance but also is also essential for poverty reduction, food security, and gender equality.

The region’s rural women have less access than men to resources, particularly to productive assets such as land, water, credit, and agriculture inputs. This disparity helps account for women’s higher levels of poverty and vulnerability. The latest data available for the region show that women in rural areas are poorer than men, except in Guatemala and El Salvador. The gap is most pronounced in Uruguay and the Dominican Republic, where women are 20 percent and 18 percent poorer than men, respectively.

The countries of Latin America have high overall rates of female labor-force participation, but women participate much less in agriculture than women in other developing country regions. This pattern reflects relatively high female education levels, economic growth and diversification, and cultural norms that support female migration to service jobs in urban areas. Just over 20 percent of the agricultural labor force in Latin America was female in 2010, slightly higher than in 1980. Their participation in agriculture varies from a low of 10 percent in Central America to 43 percent

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in Paraguay, 70 percent in Brazil and more than 86 percent in Bolivia. The South American countries of the Plurinational State of Bolivia, Brazil, Colombia, Ecuador, and Peru dominate both the average and the rising trend, while many countries in Central America and the Caribbean have seen declining shares of women in the agricultural labor force.

Even so, the feminization of agriculture is occurring within LAC as well. Either within “family farming” or as wage laborers, women constitute a growing portion of the agricultural labor force. As in other regions, evidence suggests that poor female farmers face a number of disadvantages in comparison to their male counterparts. Women may have less access to productive inputs, credit, and consumer markets. Gender-blind technical assistance and rural extension programs may fail to provide appropriate services adapted to women’s needs and constraints. Restrictive social norms may limit women’s mobility, autonomy, and agency, leading to lower participation of women in producer networks. Permanent and temporary migration of the region’s men to the United States are accelerating the feminization of agriculture in the LAC region, particularly in Central America. This change is having important implications for the agricultural sector, as women face specific constraints that prevent them from fully compensating for lost labor due to male migration. But very little is known in this regard, since national statistics and most current agricultural projects do not capture this transformation.

Brazil has been recognized for its efforts over the past decade to promote social inclusion and reduce poverty and inequality through policies and programs targeting the rural poor; more than 67 million Brazilians were lifted out of poverty between 2003 and 2014. The reduction in poverty levels has been stronger in rural areas, where the 52 percent growth in income generated by family farming and rural employment easily surpassed the 29 percent growth in GDP per capita between 2003 and 2013. Since 2011, the flagship plan Brasil Sem Miséria (Brazil without Poverty) has, as one of its key components, a series of rural productive inclusion programs aimed at expanding basic services (water and sanitation, electricity, roads, and so on), productive inputs and grants, as well as increased access to technical assistance, credit, and rural extension coverage for “family farmers.”

CRITICAL GAPS

Agency, Participation, and Recognition of Women as Farmers. Rural women are still affected by many forms of discrimination. In Bolivia, women overall have less access to education compared to men, which is illustrated by the illiteracy rate in the National Survey for Discrimination and Social Exclusion from 2014: 8.1 percent of women versus 2.9 percent of men. This survey also revealed that 3 in 10 women feel discriminated against when searching for a job, and 2 in 10 perceive discrimination when requesting something at a public office or service. A recent WBG study indicated that women who identify themselves as indigenous or Afro-descendants feel even greater discrimination, above all with respect to economic circumstances.

Men in Guatemala, for example, score higher than women on all indicators of agricultural empowerment. Women are frequently seen as passive beneficiaries of agricultural

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48 World Bank 2016. Impact of male out-migration from Guatemala on rural women’s agency, land use and agricultural production. World Bank, Washington, DC.
49 As shown in data from the National Household Survey (PNAD) from 2003 and 2014, considering the national poverty line of R$ 140 in September 2011.

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See IPEA [http://www.ipeadata.gov.br].
"The use of the “family agriculture” or “family farming” category as a demographic and economic unit for federal and state land reform and poverty reduction policies and programs in Brazil was formally established under the National Program for the Strengthening of Family Farming (PRONAF). The legal framework for PRONAF established the official definition of family farming (Decree No. 1946 of 29/06/96). PRONAF intersects with the National Program for Agrarian Reform, which provides specific funding for families resettled under land reform. The farming family unit, as legally defined, is the recipient of the critical document—the Declaration of Eligibility for PRONAF (Declaração de Aptidão, DAP): “The family unit for the purposes of issuing a DAP comprises the set of individuals within the nuclear family (husband or partner, wife or partner and children) and other individuals who exploit the same rural property under various ownership conditions, but strictly under the management of the family, including cases in which the property is operated by an individual with no family.”
investments rather than as “farmers.”48 Women are considered responsible for domestic tasks, reproductive and caretaking activities, supporting the man in productive sectors, subsistence activities (domestic animals, subsistence crops, and gardens) and small-scale income-generating activities (such as artisanal crafts and beekeeping).

This understanding of men’s and women’s roles results in the (explicit or implicit) exclusion of women from diverse activities in projects, such as projects focusing on technology transfer. In addition, in many male-dominated crops, such as rice, it is very difficult to gather sex-disaggregated data unless the projects amend their M&E strategies—such as the typical procedures for agricultural household surveys, which ask for the principal farmer or landholder to provide information.

**Access to and Control over Resources.** In Latin America, land ownership is most frequently transferred through inheritance, but daughters are much less likely than sons to inherit land. Many countries in the region have instituted legal reforms that have strengthened married women’s land rights, but land-titling efforts have not always facilitated the practice of including both husbands’ and wives’ names.

The first comprehensive and standardized measure of women’s empowerment and inclusion in the agricultural sector in Guatemala revealed that lack of access to credit and lack of decision-making power over income were the most salient attributes of disempowerment of Guatemala’s rural women.49

In most countries in Latin America, women have limited access to water for productive uses, which depresses agricultural productivity. Because women in Latin America are overrepresented in arid and semiarid areas, climate change may affect women more adversely than men.50 Access to water and irrigation depends not only on the availability of water, but also on the legal and regulatory systems governing its distribution and use and on the negotiating power of different actors, as well as on the technological and institutional development of irrigation. In the context of a “water market,” women may find it hard to negotiate for water rights and defend their interests. Where water and its management are exclusively public or communal, there is still no guarantee that women will have equitable access to water. In most countries in the region, access to water is contingent on land tenure, and as a result, women may find themselves disadvantaged in relation to irrigation.51

**Example: Expanding Women’s Agency through Productive Inclusion in Rural Areas of Northeast Brazil.** This exploratory study (March 2016, Umbrella Facility for Gender Equality funds) investigates the constraints to productive inclusion faced by rural women in the state of Rio Grande do Norte, located in the poor, drought-affected Northeast Region of Brazil. The study was carried out to guide the gender-sensitive implementation and mid-term review52 of productive inclusion components of the World Bank-financed Rio Grande do Norte Regional Development and Governance Project.53 In addition, it will inform the design and insertion of a gender module, based on IFPRI’s WEAI framework54 in the project’s impact evaluation surveys.

The study’s main findings confirm that in this environment, where producers are already burdened with the impact of drought and desertification and difficult access to markets and new technologies, women producers face additional constraints compared to their male counterparts. Interviews with women producers

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50 Parada, S. 2008. “Rural women in Latin America and their access to economic resources.” Division for the Advancement of Women, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, United Nations, New York.

51 Ibid.

52 Scheduled to be completed before the end of FY2016.

53 Rio Grande do Norte Sustentável (P126452, approved by the Bank in June 2013).

found that they face constraints in relation to the following particular dimensions of agency:

» **Leadership within the community:** Community associations, producer organizations, and farmers’ cooperatives have been very male-dominated, as the family representative in public spaces in rural communities is usually the male head of the household. Many of the women interviewed provided justifications such as “men know better” or “men speak better,” revealing their internalization of gender norms. The study found that where women had participated in women-only groups, in general they were more likely to challenge these traditional roles and to be more active participants in community associations. Some women’s husbands opposed their participation in women’s groups, but the women found support and encouragement from their fellow group members. Finally, continuous support to women’s groups is essential to prevent men from taking over women’s activities once they become lucrative.

» **Decision making related to production and commercialization:** The gender division of labor within rural households often results in women being responsible for domestic work and men for productive work. Where women engage in productive activities, they often differ from their husbands on decisions related to those activities. Women who participate in producer organizations report having greater control over productive activities. Both men and women producers have difficulty accessing both public and private markets and rely heavily on intermediaries. Women face additional challenges in accessing markets for commercialization due to security concerns and social norms restricting independent travel.

» **Access to and control over productive resources, including project grants, credit, and other productive assets such as land:** Often women producers have less access to and control over productive resources. Having secure land ownership rights is directly correlated to women’s decision-making power in relation to productive activities. Land ownership traditionally has been registered to male heads of households, however. The lack of ownership rights also prejudices women’s access to financing, which often requires land ownership as a form of collateral. While Brazil has programs with dedicated credit lines for women, women are not always aware of them, and in practice there is very little uptake.

» **Control over use of income:** Women’s control over the use of income from productive activities is generally related to their participation in productive activities. With the diversification of household income sources, particularly resulting from cash transfer programs that target women, women report having greater control over household income.

» **Gender division of household labor and women’s time use:** The traditional gender division of labor persists in much of rural Brazil, although this situation is changing as women increasingly participate in productive activities. With their increased participation in on-farm and off-farm activities, women retain primary responsibility for domestic and reproductive tasks, which increases their time poverty.

» **Autonomy in decision making related to mobility:** Restrictive social norms persist in much of rural Brazil, making it hard for individual women producers and producer organizations to complete bureaucratic processes required for legal registration and to obtain various certifications, which often require repeated trips to municipal centers. Travel to markets is similarly complicated, not only by restrictive social norms but by security concerns.
BACKGROUND

In MNA, agriculture is central to national economies, and women play key roles in the production of goods. The female share of the agricultural labor force in the Near East and North Africa appears to have risen substantially, from 30 percent in 1980 to almost 45 percent in 2010. Some of the highest and fastest-growing participation in the region is found in Jordan, the Libyan Arab Jamahiriya, and the Syrian Arab Republic. Rapid growth in the number of wage workers in the region and in women’s agricultural labor is widening the gap between female urban and rural labor force participation. Some studies suggest that this feminization of agriculture maybe partly attributable to male out-migration but is due mostly to globalization, population increase, and agricultural intensification affecting differential gender roles as a response to labor market supply and demand. For example, a case study from Syria indicates that the feminization of agricultural labor reflects a situation in which women provide the bulk of agricultural labor but are not involved in farm management, because the male head of the household remains on the farm while other male household members work off of the farm in urban areas or migrate to neighboring countries for work.

In MNA, conservative gender norms and an institutional framework that sometimes formalizes unequal rights for women limit women’s opportunities to participate in the economy by limiting their mobility and occupational choices, as well as their agency and voice within and outside the home. Combined with an economic structure that incentivizes women to stay at home or work in the public sector, limited options in the

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private sector, and a skills mismatch, these factors imply very low rates of female participation in the workforce. There are variations within the region in terms of gender norms, women’s participation in the economy, and the extent to which it has changed; rural women in Tunisia (or in the Maghreb) do not face the same level of discrimination as rural women in Yemen (or in the Arabian Peninsula in general).

Women in MNA are farmers and family and wage workers, but because they lack control over most resources and other opportunities, their contribution to agricultural development as well as broader economic and social development remains limited. Women typically work long hours as unpaid family labor, engaged mainly in non-mechanized, labor-intensive, non-capital-intensive activities in crop and livestock production, including post-harvest activities such as producing tomato paste, freekeh, and milk and other animal products such as wool. They are responsible for storing and processing many agrobiodiversity products, which are mainly marketed by men. Women also have primary responsibility for the husbandry of small animals (poultry, ruminants) as well as supporting large-animal systems through herding, providing feed and water, maintaining stalls, and milking.

For example, about 75 percent of women working in agriculture in the Republic of Yemen are unpaid, as are 66 percent in Syria, 45 percent in the West Bank and Gaza, and 70 percent in Egypt. Female farmers are estimated to perform more than 70 percent of the work in the agricultural sector in Yemen. Women are mainly in charge of the very labor-intensive rainfed systems that produce basic food crops for family consumption, and as mentioned, women are also usually in charge of animal husbandry. Women also grind grain by hand, haul water, collect firewood, and store, preserve, and process dairy and food products. Men are responsible for irrigated agriculture and the production of cash crops, particularly qat and coffee.

### Critical Gaps

**Gender Norms and Regulations.** Social and cultural norms in MNA generally place high value on women’s role within the home and family and her investments in family life. These norms reflect elements of a patriarchal society in which women and men are partners in a marriage but with separate roles. Women’s primary sphere of influence is perceived to be within the home, whereas men are supposed to be the breadwinners and decision makers in the public sphere. These elements are not unique to MNA society but are perhaps more pronounced there than elsewhere in the world.

A range of countries in the region retain many laws limiting female mobility and autonomy within the household. Fathers and husbands are still the legal gatekeepers of women’s and girls’ activities. Applying for a passport, traveling outside the country, working outside the home, and deciding to marry all can require male permission. Gender issues in the legal sphere include gender gaps in access to courts, differences between traditional and legal rights and the application and enforcement of laws, as well as laws that disadvantage women.

Women’s access to productive assets, especially agriculture land, is limited by social norms that reinforce male control and ownership of those resources. In the Arab world women make up a small proportion of total landowners, ranging from 29 percent in Jordan to only 4 percent in Syria. When women do own land, they tend to own smaller plots. Women’s land is also often controlled by a male member of the family until marriage, and after marriage by their husband or son. In many countries, women...
also risk losing their entitlements in case of divorce, widowhood, or the husband’s migration.65

**Actions.** The Social and Integrated Agriculture Project (ASIMA)66 in Morocco aims to increase the implementation of land and biodiversity conservation measures in selected projects directed to small farmers located in targeted marginal areas in the project area. The project will also promote social inclusion by giving particular attention to female small-scale farmers. The selection of agri-food chains and of the demonstration projects reflects the representative conditions of female beneficiaries.

The Rainfed Agriculture and Livestock Project (RALP) in Yemen addressed social and gender-specific issues through a set of gender-sensitive implementation arrangements to ensure that female farmers and other vulnerable groups (such as poor farmers with limited access to water and land) could benefit from the project. The focus on female beneficiaries was an important aspect of the design and implementation of RALP. Through the project interventions, women gained access not only to better seed but also to community labor-saving devices, agro-processing facilities, and production-related startup activities.

**Mobility: Transportation for Women.** Mobility is a major factor in access to economic resources, education, health care, and other key elements influencing women’s empowerment. Poor transportation and access to markets limit the opportunities to market and sell products. In MNA countries, as in many other developing economies, women’s mobility is constrained not only by the limited supply of transport but by social factors reducing women’s access to the outside world and by political realities.67 Additionally, rural women in tribal areas are usually not allowed to travel by themselves outside their villages. Whenever they want to leave, they need to be accompanied by a male family member, a so-called “mahram.”

This traditional practice puts major limitations on women’s mobility and thus on their access to services and any kind of external interaction.

For example, social constraints imposed on women’s mobility in rural Yemen are so high that the impact of providing transport infrastructure and services is limited and mostly indirect. In rural Yemen, women’s mobility is mostly restricted to areas they can reach by walking. The use of motorized transport is restricted to accessing health care. Even then, women have to ride in a covered car, accompanied by a male family member. Women’s use of intermediary means of transport is also greatly restricted by social norms: bikes and motorbikes are not allowed; donkeys can be used to transport loads but not to ride.

Compounding the restricted use of transportation by women is the fact that transport costs are significantly higher for women because they need special seating conditions, or they have to travel with a male family member. In rural Tunisia, for example, transportation expenses rank fourth in the list of the family’s total expenditures, with 19 percent of the family’s income spent on transportation. These high expenditures are attributed mainly to poor infrastructure and the absence of public and alternative means of accessible, affordable transportation.

**Data Availability.** Data access (and a general lack of data) are major issues across the region, with the exceptions of Iraq, the Palestinian Territories, and Yemen. Challenges include making national statistical data available and systematically learning from rigorously evaluated policy pilots, which can provide invaluable lessons, identify country-specific gender gaps, and help to formulate nuanced policy interventions. MNA countries have very little data or statistical information on the status of rural women, and often it is outdated. Rural women’s work in the household or agriculture is generally overlooked. Surveys, analyses, and policies are rarely gender based—the concept of gender mainstreaming has gained little traction in the region. The gender bias and opacity in agricultural census data both conceals and marginalizes women’s contribution to the socioeconomic development of rural areas.68

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66 Agriculture solidaire et intégrée au Maroc.
BACKGROUND

South Asia has experienced a long period of robust economic growth and has been among the fastest growing in the world. From a sectorial point of view, agriculture and services have driven the growth performance across South Asia. Despite recent economic growth and changing social norms, dramatic gender inequities persist in South Asia. SAR has the second-lowest rate of female labor force participation among the six World Bank regions (MNA is lowest). SAR also has the largest gender disparity (16 percentage points) of all six regions when considering accounts held at formal institutions, and gender gaps in secondary education completion rates continue to be large.

The female share of the total population economically active in agriculture is about 35 percent in South Asia. The female share in India has remained steady at just over 30 percent. A very large country such as India can mask changes in some smaller countries in the region, where the female share of the agricultural labor force appears to have increased dramatically—for instance, it now exceeds 50 percent in Bangladesh. Almost 70 percent of employed women in South Asia work in agriculture, making it the most important source of employment for women by a wide margin, and much more important for women than for men. At the same time, women in SAR engage relatively more in agricultural wage employment than women in any other region, most likely because of the increasing landlessness in SAR and because women in other regions tend to have weaker property rights in land and other assets. Women in SAR

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72 Ibid.
73 Ibid.
are involved in crop and livestock production at subsistence and commercial levels. They produce food and cash crops and manage mixed agricultural operations often involving crops, livestock and fish farming. According to the Asian Development Bank, however, in India unpaid work in almost all sectors in family agricultural enterprises accounts for 34 percent of informal employment for women.

In South Asia as a whole, women tend to cluster in traditionally “female” arenas of employment, which are generally pay less than the traditionally “male” arenas (for example, Pakistan has few female mechanics, farm machine operators, or truck drivers). Within agriculture, especially in off-farm activities, opportunities exist to develop non-traditional employment for women across South Asia. Such opportunities will not only generate higher incomes but will eventually contribute to the evolution of women’s traditionally perceived roles in their respective communities. Studies in South Asia have found that enhancing women’s knowledge and managerial skills related to agricultural value addition and value chains can reduce occupational sex-segregation.

The fact that gender inequality is particularly severe in SAR has been a factor in explaining the “Asian Enigma,” the fact that underweight rates in the 1990s were (and in many cases still are) higher for South Asia than for many countries in SSA, despite similar or better levels of GNP per capita in SAR countries. Studies have shown sanitation, urbanization, and women’s status to be the key factors in narrowing the gap in children’s nutritional status. The latest figures, reported in the Global Nutrition Report 2014, suggest that rates of stunting (low height for age) have declined from 48 percent in 2005 to 39 percent in 2013. This number is still very high but represents a decline of 14 million in the number of malnourished children.74

**Critical Gaps**

**Customary Laws and Social Norms.** Equal opportunities for women in business and the workplace depend on an interplay of economic, social, and cultural factors. Customary law can exist in parallel with formal legal regimes. Where these systems coexist, customary law can determine a woman’s rights in marriage or to property and inheritance, which are often different from the rights granted under statutory law. In South Asia social norms interlock with religion, caste, language, and geography to promote some and exclude others, and efforts to achieve key gender goals at the country level have proven challenging. Cultural norms generally dictate that men own and inherit land while women gain access to land through their relationship with a male relative.75

**Maternal and Early Childhood Nutrition.** Among children under five years of age, 38 percent have stunted growth owing to persistent nutritional deprivation. The high prevalence of stunting combined with the region’s large number of children (SAR has 26 percent of the world’s children under the age of five) explain why South Asia bears about 40 percent of the global burden of child stunting. Globally, child stunting is significantly more common in the poorest segments of society, but in South Asia the difference between rich and poor is particularly marked.

Improving nutritional outcomes involves empowering women across multiple domains. For example, women must not only be able to produce nutrient-rich foods but to allocate those foods to the household members who need them most. In education programs the main emphasis is to improve female enrollment and retention in primary and secondary schools, but schools are also platforms for delivering nutrition interventions, including—but not limited to—interventions for adolescent girls. The main contribution of agriculture and food security initiatives to nutrition is to ensure that they improve diets, particularly for mothers and young children, by improving the availability of and access to diverse, nutrient-dense foods through production, value-chain interventions, or markets.76

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Actions. The Andhra Pradesh Rural Inclusive Growth project in India aims to enable selected poor households to enhance agricultural incomes and secure increased access to human development services and social entitlements. To boost human development, the project supports investments to increase the nutritional content of agricultural production (by including milk, vegetables, and poultry) and also to use innovative access to rural retail chains and enterprises to improve the local food environment. Concurrent investments are testing new ways of ensuring access to human development, nutrition, and sanitation services with a combination of demand, supply, and enterprise approaches.

Education. Gender differences in coverage are low in the case of primary education. Persistent challenges remain in secondary and tertiary education, including gender gaps in vocational and professional training. These gaps mean that fewer women work in agriculture, science, and technology at the professional level, and that fewer women participate in decision making in these domains.

ICT can be a powerful tool to empower disadvantaged groups and improve socioeconomic and health outcomes for women, men, and children, but barriers to technology adoption disproportionately impact women. In South Asia women are 37 percent less likely to own a mobile phone than men, and nearly 35 percent fewer women than men have access to the Internet. This digital gender divide—that is, the gap between men and women in accessing ICTs—remains large.

Lack of Access to Productive and Financial Resources. The issue of women’s land ownership is persistent in most of South Asia—in Bangladesh, for instance, individual land titles held by women accounted for about 5 percent of land ownership. The significant exception is Sri Lanka, where both sons and daughters can inherit, widows can inherit all of the deceased husband’s property in the absence of descendants, and married women have the right to acquire and dispose of their individually owned property. In many cases land ownership records exist, but women either cannot access them or are unaware of them. Many women who are aware of their land ownership and inheritance rights choose not claim them for fear of reprisal from other family members, especially brothers. Even if laws allow women to inherit ancestral lands and other family assets, as is the case across most of South Asia, customary practices still strongly favor male inheritance.

Significant gender differences exist in access to financial services across many countries in South Asia, which (as noted) has the largest gender disparity of all regions when considering accounts held at formal institutions. Lack of access to finance (agricultural and nonagricultural) and microcredit is a huge impediment to taking advantage of opportunities to earn a higher income, improve productivity, pursue entrepreneurship, and create an enterprise. For example, in Pakistan, less than 3 percent of women have access to finance, and when they do, their use of credit is low. In Bhutan, where agriculture is dominated by women, their ability to hire men for physically hard labor on the farm is very limited. Agriculture in South Asia in general is dominated by female labor, and yet crop yields are lower for women than for men, primarily because of this lack of access to adequate productive resources.

Actions. In Afghanistan, the National Horticulture and Livestock Productivity Project promotes the adoption of improved production practices by target farmers, with the gradual rollout of farmer-centric agricultural services and support for investments. Nearly half of the project’s beneficiaries are women. The project attained this rate of female participation by identifying and selecting agricultural subsectors that lend themselves to women’s participation or which do not present significant constraints to women’s participation, such as kitchen gardening, household poultry production, and (to a lesser extent) small ruminant production systems. The project ensured that sufficient financial and technical resources were directed toward such activities to ensure substantial levels of female participation.

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77 Asian Development Bank.
Feminization of Agriculture. Migration is changing the face of South Asia's families and farms as a shifting climate and economic development make agricultural-based livelihoods increasingly less viable. Rural Nepal is going through unprecedented demographic, socioeconomic, and environmental changes as men move from villages to urban areas and overseas in search of better opportunities. Women, in addition to looking after children and the elderly, are left behind. With limited access to capital and resources, they nevertheless assume responsibility for performing traditionally male-dominated farming practices. This situation has lowered the use and productivity of land and has perpetuated, if not exacerbated, food insecurity. Women are increasingly adopting less intensive farming practices as well as abandoning agricultural land.81

Mobility and Women's Participation. In much of South Asia, violence against women and girls is occurring against a backdrop of socioeconomic changes that may be the most rapid changes the region has ever witnessed. Those changes may influence violence directly or indirectly through shifts in gender equality. For instance, women's opportunities for and participation in higher education, employment, and politics have expanded in most countries. As such opportunities arise and open the doors to greater gender equality and women's empowerment, however, women and girls may face a backlash, including an increased risk of violence as they leave home to work or study. As women's greater participation in public life—including higher education and employment—eventually becomes the norm, violence may decrease.

The transformation of rural areas has also led to a change in the structure of female employment. Perhaps the best-known illustration of this point comes from Bangladesh, where rapid growth in the garment industry created wage employment for young village women. In Pakistan, too, women benefitted more than men from the expansion of nonfarm activities. The number of unskilled women working as agricultural laborers fell by one-third between 2000 and 2008, whereas the number of those working in manufacturing and construction tripled. This shift is more significant than that among rural unskilled male workers, for whom employment in manufacturing and construction increased by about 60 percent. The new employment opportunities have increased labor force participation among women who were less likely to work before.

Actions. In Bangladesh, the second phase of the National Agricultural Technology Program aims to have a special impact on women and enhance benefits to them and other vulnerable groups. The project design includes a Gender and Inclusion Framework (GIF) focused on participatory processes, social inclusion, and accountability. All community subprojects will follow the guidelines provided in the GIF and maintain the requisite consultation processes and documentation. The project will ensure inclusion and gender equity in access to its services through the establishment of a component-specific targeting and gender mainstreaming action plan, formed on the basis of in-depth targeting and gender studies and audits.

ANNEX NINE
WORLD BANK AGRICULTURE AND GENDER PUBLICATIONS

GENERAL: GLOBAL

» Women, Business and the Law (2016)
» Enabling the Business of Agriculture 2016: Comparing Regulatory Good Practices
» Are Gender Differences in Performance Innate or Socially Mediated? (2016)
» As Good as the Company They Keep?: Improving Farmers’ Social Networks (2016)
» Gender in Climate Smart Agriculture (2015)
» Gender at Work: A Companion to the WDR on Jobs (2014)
» Gender and Agriculture: Inefficiencies, Segregation, and Low Productivity Traps (2013)
» World Development Report 2012: Gender and Development
» Gender and Governance in Agricultural Extension Services: Insights from India, Ghana, and Ethiopia (2010)
» Gender in Agriculture Sourcebook (2008)

AFRICA (AFR)

» Gender-differentiated impacts of tenure insecurity on agricultural performance in Malawi’s customary tenure systems (2017)
» Investigating the gender gap in agricultural productivity: Evidence from Uganda (2016)
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN (LAC)


MIDDLE EAST AND NORTH AFRICA (MENA)

» Gender Equality and Development in the Middle East and North Africa (2013)

THEMATIC

AQUACULTURE AND FISHERIES


CLIMATE CHANGE

» AES Note #6: Gender, Agriculture, and Climate Change (2014)


FOOD AID

» Child Growth, Shocks, and Food Aid in Rural Ethiopia (2005)

GOVERNANCE

» Gender and Governance in Rural Services: Insights from India, Ghana and Ethiopia (2010)

» Engendering Rural Information Systems in Indonesia (2005)

ICT


» ARD Note #64: Filling the data gap on gender in rural Kenya (2012)

INFRASTRUCTURE


EAST ASIA AND THE PACIFIC (EAP)

» Gender-Dimensions of Collective Forest Tenure Reform in China (2016)


» Toward gender equality in East Asia and the Pacific: a companion to the world development report (2012)

LAND ISSUES

» Land Tenure and Gender: Approaches and Challenges for Strengthening Rural Women’s Land Rights (2014)
» AES Note #10: Examples from East Asia on Strengthening Women’s Land Rights (2014)
» AES Note #1: Property Rights for Women in the ECA Region: Results from Recent World Bank Projects (2013)
» Internal Paper: Women’s Land Ownership and Compensation Study (2013)
» Toolkit for integrating gender-related issues in Land Policy and Administration Projects (2013)
» Gender and Land Administration: Issues and Responses (2012)
» Women’s Inheritance Rights and Intergenerational Transmission of Resources in India (2012)
» Environmental and gender impacts of land tenure regularization in Africa: pilot evidence from Rwanda (2011) and the policy research working paper
» A Practical Guide for Addressing Gender Concerns in Land Titling Projects (2010)
» Female Land Rights and Rural Household Incomes in Brazil, Paraguay and Peru (2006)

NUTRITION

» Agriculture GP Note #1: Promoting Agriculture-Nutrition Convergence through Participatory Extension Videos (2015)
» Agriculture GP Note #2: Fostering Agriculture—Nutrition Links. Recommendations for Agriculture Extension Curriculum Reforms in India

PRIVATE SECTOR

» Agriculture as a Sector of Opportunity for Young People in Africa (2013)
» Investing in Women’s Employment: Good for Business, Good for Development (2013)
» Gender and Rural Non-farm Entrepreneurship (2013)

RURAL DEVELOPMENT

» AES Note #11: Empowering Rural Women in East Asia and Pacific Region (2014)
» AES Note #4: Supporting Women through Agriculture Projects in the Latin America and Caribbean Region (2013)
» Giving Women a Bigger Voice in Rural China (2011)

VALUE CHAINS, ENTERPRISES

» Linking women with Agribusiness in Zambia (2015)
» Global Value Chains, Economic Upgrading, and Gender: Case Studies of the Horticulture, Tourism, and Call Center Industries (2013)
» AES Note #7: Participation of Women in the Second Participatory Rural Investment (PDCR)—Case Study Bolivia (2014)
» Internal Paper: Integrating Women Producers and their organizations into agricultural investments programs in Zambia and Mali (2012)
» Sustainable Support System for Rural Women Entrepreneurs: Ethiopia (2011)
» Incorporating Gender Activities into Cotton Lending Project Design: High Impact at Reasonable Cost (2010)
» Liberia—Gender-aware programs and women’s roles in agricultural value chains (2010)
» Gender, Time Use, and Change: Impacts of Agricultural Export Employment in Ecuador (2001)

WATER & IRRIGATION

» Gender Sensitive Planning, Monitoring and Evaluation in Agricultural Water Management (2016)
» AES Note #8: Empowering Women in Irrigation Management—The Case of the Gender Pilot Plan in Peru (2014)
» AES Note #9: Mainstreaming Gender in the Irrigation Development Support Programme—Case Study Zambia (2014)
» Checklist for integrating gender-related issues into Agriculture Water Management (2013)
» Empowering Women in Irrigation Management: The Sierra of Peru (2013)
» Enhancing the Role of Women in Water User Associations in Azerbaijan (2012)
» Internal Paper: Gender Mainstreaming in Water Resources Management (2005)
## ANNEX TEN
### QUALITY AT ENTRY AND QUALITY AT IMPLEMENTATION METHODOLOGIES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender Dimension</th>
<th>Criteria for Rating Project: <em>The Activity …</em></th>
<th>Guiding Questions: <em>Does the Project …</em></th>
<th>Check</th>
<th>Score 1/0</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender Analysis</strong></td>
<td>includes analysis and/or consultation on gender-related issues</td>
<td>• identify and analyze gender issues relevant to the project objectives or components?</td>
<td>1/0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• report findings of country/regional gender diagnostics (gender assessment, poverty assessment, etc.) relevant to project development objectives or components, or does the project undertake a social or environmental or poverty and social impact assessment?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• reflect the results of consultations with women/girls/men/boys and/or NGOs that focus on these groups and/or specific line ministries?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender Actions</strong></td>
<td>is expected to narrow gender disparities, including through specific actions to address the distinct needs of women/girls (men/boys) and/or to have positive impact(s) on gender equality</td>
<td>• include specific or targeted actions that address the needs of women/girls or men/boys?</td>
<td>1/0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• propose gender-specific safeguards in a social/environmental assessment or in a resettlement framework?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• show how interventions are expected to narrow existing gender disparities?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**If at least one check above, a score of 1 is achieved**

| Gender Monitoring and Evaluation | includes mechanisms to monitor gender impact and facilitate gender-disaggregated analysis | • include specific gender and sex-disaggregated indicators in the results framework? | 1/0 | |
| | | • propose an evaluation, which will analyze the gender-specific impacts of the project? | | |

**If at least one check above, a score of 1 is achieved**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Overall Score</th>
<th>In how many dimensions does the project score 1?</th>
<th>0–3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**The project must score 1 in at least one dimension to be rated Gender Informed by Gender Cross-Cutting Solution Area**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Y/N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**The project must score 3 to be rated Gender Informed by Agriculture Global Practice**
## QUALITY AT IMPLEMENTATION METHODOLOGY

### Gender in Implementation and Completion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender Dimension</th>
<th>Criteria for Rating Project: <em>The Activity</em>...</th>
<th>Guiding Questions: <em>Does the Project</em>...</th>
<th>Check</th>
<th>Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender Analysis</td>
<td>Gender analysis is incorporated in project manual(s), and/or further analysis on gender-related issues is conducted.</td>
<td>• Was any gender analysis conducted (e.g., studies, social and environmental assessment, a substantive gender component of a study)?</td>
<td></td>
<td>1/0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Gender Actions                            | Actions are taken to narrow gender disparities and to address the distinct needs of women/girls (men/boys) and/or to have positive impact(s) on gender equality. | • Are actions to incorporate gender mainstreaming outlined in project manual(s)?  
• Are recommendations to mainstream gender made to government by the World Bank?  
• Did activities to mainstream gender occur? |       | 1/0   |
| Gender Monitoring and Evaluation (M&E)    | Mechanisms to monitor and evaluate gender outputs and outcomes are functional. | • Is the core compulsory gender indicator in the results framework?  
• Are additional gender-disaggregated indicators in the results framework?  
• Were additional gender data collected and reported? |       | 1/0   |

#### Overall Score at Implementation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of 1s in Gender Dimensions</th>
<th>Y/N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1–3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Gender Implemented

- Project must score at least two points, one of them being Gender Actions, to be rated Gender Implemented

#### Qualitative Review of Implementation (potential source documents in parentheses)

- Did the team include a gender specialist (World Bank/Donor/Government/Other)? (AM)  
- What type of gender actions were taken? (AM, PIM)  
- To what extent is gender disaggregated in the results framework? (ISR)  
- Were any gender issues brought to the attention of government? (ISR, AM)  
- Were any gender issues brought to the attention of World Bank Management? (ISR, AM)  
- What kind of gender-related operational measures were included in the PIM?

#### COMPLETION (Project Implementation and Completion Report)

- How successfully was gender mainstreamed in the project from entry to completion?  
  - How was gender addressed?  
  - Were gender activities successful?  
  - What lessons were learned from gender mainstreaming?
ANNEX ELEVEN
DATA SOURCES FOR GENDER IN AGRICULTURE

World Bank: **Gender Equality Data and Statistics**. This gender data portal is a one-stop shop for gender information, catering to a wide range of users and providing data from a variety of sources. The portal has indicators related to five dimensions of gender equality: economic structures and access to resources; education; health and related services; public life and decision making; and human rights of women and girl children.

IFAD: **Rural Poverty Portal**. This portal provides a brief description of the poverty status in rural areas in different countries as well as general information on rural poverty.

FAO: **Gender and Land Rights Database**. This portal highlights the major political, legal, and cultural factors that influence women’s ability to claim their land rights throughout the world. It includes 84 country profiles, land tenure statistics disaggregated by gender, and a Legislation Assessment Tool for gender-equitable land tenure.

FAO: **Agri-gender Statistics Toolkit**. This toolkit supports increased collection and analysis of sex-disaggregated agricultural data. It includes a compilation of gender-sensitive questions, questionnaire components, and tables. The database is structured around nine items related to agriculture: agricultural population and households; access to productive resources; production and productivity; destination of agricultural produce; labor and time use; income and expenditures; membership in agricultural or farmer organizations; and food security poverty indicators.

UN Women Watch: **Facts and Figures**: *Rural Women and the Millennium Development Goals*. The portal highlights the rural women’s progress in achieving key Millennium Development Goal indicators, pointing to advances that have been made and gaps that still exist. In addition, the portal describes the comparative advantage of different UN organizations in relation to rural women.

World Economic Forum: **Annual Global Gender Gap Report**. The Global Gender Gap Index 2015 ranks 145 economies according to how well they are leveraging their female talent pool, based on economic, educational, health-based, and political indicators.
World Bank: Women, Business and the Law. Getting to Equal measures legal and regulatory barriers to women’s entrepreneurship and employment in 173 economies. It provides quantitative measures of laws and regulations that affect women’s economic opportunities in seven areas: accessing institutions, using property, getting a job, providing incentives to work, going to court, building credit, and protecting women from violence.

UNDP: International Human Development Indicators. The Human Development Report Office releases five indices each year: the Human Development Index (HDI), the Inequality-Adjusted Human Development Index, the Gender Development Index (GDI), the Gender Inequality Index (GII), and the Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI).

UN Statistics: The World’s Women. This portal highlights differences in the status of women and men in eight areas: population and families; health; education; work; power and decision making; violence against women; environment; and poverty.