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## Women entrepreneurs: Key players in ACP agribusiness development

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# Women entrepreneurs – Key players in ACP agribusiness development

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## 1. Context

Agriculture is an engine of growth and poverty reduction in countries where it is the main occupation of the poor but the sector is underperforming in many developing countries, in part because women, who represent a crucial resource in agriculture and the rural economy through their roles as farmers, labourers and entrepreneurs, almost everywhere face more severe constraints than men in access to productive resources.<sup>1</sup>

Women make essential contributions to the agricultural and rural economies. Women farmers represent more than a quarter of the World's population, women comprise on average, 43 percent of the agricultural workforce in developing countries, ranging from 20 percent in Latin America to 50 per cent in Eastern Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa (FAO).

Studies show that resources controlled by women are more likely to be used to improve household food consumption and welfare, reduce child malnutrition, and increase the overall well-being of the family (FAO). Rural women often manage complex households and pursue multiple livelihood strategies. Their activities typically include producing agricultural crops, tending animals, processing and preparing food, working for wages in agricultural or other rural enterprises, collecting fuel and water, engaging in trade and marketing, caring for family members and maintaining their homes. Fields dedicated to food crops are often farther from home than those related to cash crops. Because women must also perform

domestic tasks, they must spend a considerable amount of time traveling between their home and the fields.

Many of these activities are not defined as "economically active employment" in national accounts but they are essential to the well-being of rural households.

Women grow, sell and prepare food for their families, yet women have less access to produce resources as men to agriculture related assets, inputs and services. If women enjoyed the same access to produce resources as men, they could boost yield by 20-30 percent, raising the overall agricultural output in developing countries by two and half to four per cent (FAO:2011).

Women face much more complex challenges in the formal economy than women in more developed countries, such as: a lack of policies and programs to support and encourage entrepreneurial activity, excessive norms and regulations, and restricted access to credit. They face challenges in starting as well as in developing their businesses.

Rural women increasingly run their own enterprises, yet their socio-economic contributions and entrepreneurial potential remain largely unrecognized and untapped. They are concentrated in informal, micro-size, low productivity and low-return activities and face particular challenges entering new and lucrative markets and expanding their businesses. Gender responsive policies, services and business environments are crucial to stimulate the start up and upgrading

of women's businesses and thereby help achieve gender equality, reduce poverty and ensure stronger economies and societies.

Women are generally less able than men to participate in economic opportunities because they face a work burden that men do not. In most societies, women are responsible for most of the household and child-rearing activities as well rearing of small livestock, although norms differ by culture and over time. This additional work burden is unpaid and limits women's capacity to engage in income-earning activities, which often require a minimum fixed time before being profitable. Furthermore, the nature of tasks, such as caring for children and elderly household members, requires women to stay near the home, thus limiting options to work for a wage.

Low rates of female land ownership can hinder access to financial assets that are necessary to set up a business.

Women farmers have little or no voice in the development of agricultural policies designed to improve their productivity, access to resources including land and natural resources, and diversification of activities.

The small numbers of women in public decision-making, from national parliaments to local councils, is another manifestation of gender inequality, diminishing their voice, agency and capacity to contribute and govern. Despite some gains for women in terms of representation in national parliaments over the last two decades, globally only around 1 in 5

<sup>1</sup> "The role of women in agriculture", Prepared by the SOFA Team and Cheryl Doss, *ESA Working Paper No. 11-02*. FAO, 2011.

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parliamentarians are women.<sup>2</sup> The gaps are much greater on indicators of women's public participation that are not monitored by the MDGs. As of January 2012, only 17% of government ministers were women.<sup>29</sup> Only 8 women served as Head of State and 13 served as Head of Government as of June 2013. While the data on women's participation as voters is limited, women often experience specific barriers to full and equal civic participation due to the burden of family responsibilities, the lack of identification documents, limited access to information.<sup>3</sup>

### **Lack of conducive legal environment**

Discriminatory laws, regulations and social norms prevent women from starting and consolidating viable businesses. Inequalities in rights and

entitlements, whether economic, civil or family are a powerful source of discrimination against women, and can limit their access to and control over resources that are crucial to starting and consolidating a sustainable enterprise.

Rural women entrepreneurs are often thwarted by discriminatory property, family and inheritance laws and practices. Even when those laws and practices are equitable, women are often unaware of their rights to land and other productive resources or fear a backlash within the family or community if they claim them. Social norms and attitudes affect the implementation of laws, policies and programmes. Even though relevant laws and regulations may not be discriminatory on paper, discrimination often takes place

during their implementation (or lack of implementation).

Direct discrimination may be expressed in family laws that require a woman to obtain her husband's consent before starting a business or employment or to register land. In some countries women are not permitted to work at night.

Legislation regarding membership in cooperatives and associations may not overtly exclude women but may contain conditions that many women cannot fulfill. For example, members may be required to control a key asset such as land, which women are much less likely than men to control or to run a business must of a certain minimum size or have a minimum salaried employees.

<sup>2</sup> United Nations, "The Millennium Development Goals Report 2013", New York, 2013.

<sup>3</sup> United Nations General Assembly "Measures taken and progress achieved in the promotion of women and political participation: Report of the Secretary-General", A/68/184, New York, 2013.



## 2. Policy support to gender equality and economic empowerment of women

Gender inequality is the most pervasive form of inequality around the world and a pressing human rights concern. Recent decades have seen gains in some areas, such as in girls' enrolment in education; however progress has been uneven, with gender inequalities persisting and even growing along several dimensions, such as the gender gap in unemployment since the 2008 crisis. Progress on gender equality is fundamental for realizing human rights for all, creating and sustaining peaceful societies, and building socially inclusive and sustainable development trajectories where the benefits of development are equitably shared. The on-going intergovernmental discussions on Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) provide an important opportunity to build on the lessons learnt from the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) in order to tackle gender inequality in all its dimensions and realize the full spectrum of women's and girls' rights as set out in international human rights norms and global agreements.<sup>4</sup>

Recently, development agencies and donors have increasingly incorporated gender analysis into their agricultural programming and their monitoring and evaluation (M&E). FAO aims to allocate 30% of its operational budgets to programmes targeted at women by 2017. Nearly 80% of the Global Agriculture and Food Security

Program (GAFSP)'s operations include gender analysis as part of the project design. The US Agency for International Development (USAID) launched the Women's Empowerment in Agriculture Index in 2012 to measure progress towards inclusive growth in all 19 of its "Feed the Future" countries. And while 95% of the World Bank's agriculture and rural development projects have successfully integrated gender issues into their monitoring and design, there is now a greater emphasis on rigorously measuring the impact on both women's and men's lives.<sup>5</sup>

### 2.1 International initiatives in support of women

#### The European Commission

EU Commissioner for International Cooperation and Development, Neven Mimica, reaffirmed EU's commitment to making women's empowerment a priority. In a high-level event in Riga, which was one of the flagship events of the European year for development, Commissioner Mimica said: "Development simply cannot happen if half of the world's population is left behind. And the reality is that women and girls in developing countries continue to suffer severely from discrimination; lacking access to the most basic services like health, water and sanitation, or proper nutrition.

As the world's largest donor, the EU has a crucial role to play in empowering women and girls and we are committed to stepping up our efforts even further. That's why we are currently preparing a new Gender Action Plan for development cooperation, which will be more comprehensive, results-focused and better tailored to respond to the specificities in countries the EU works with. We're determined to ensure that women and girls are at the heart of everything we do."<sup>6</sup>

The EU formally committed to promote these values in 2000 when it joined 189 world leaders in a pledge to achieve the eight Millennium Development Goals by 2015 at the United Millennium Summit. By integrating the third Millennium Development Goal ("Promote gender equality and empower women") into its development policy and practice, the EU has made significant advances in achieving its global objectives since 2000. The EU is currently involved in global discussions on a new development agenda. The fruit of these discussions will be a globally-agreed, ambitious framework that addresses poverty eradication and sustainable development, and ensures a decent life for all by 2030. In the post 2015 global agenda, the EU supports a stand-alone goal to achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls.<sup>7</sup>

4 UN Women, UNDP and UNFPA, with contributions from DSPD/DESA, FAO, IFAD, ITU, OHCHR, PBSO, UNAIDS, UNESCO, UNICEF, World Bank, WFP and WMO, "TST Issues Brief: Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment", [https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/content/documents/2396TST%20Issues%20Brief%20GEWE\\_FINAL.pdf](https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/content/documents/2396TST%20Issues%20Brief%20GEWE_FINAL.pdf)

5 The World Bank, One, "Levelling the field. Improving opportunities for women farmers in Africa", 2014, p. 6. <http://tinyurl.com/oxcp6cz>

6 Commissioner Mimica, "Closing Remarks at the Side event *Financing for Gender Equality - Placing Women at the Centre of the SDGs in Africa* on the occasion of the Third International Conference on Financing for Development". <http://tinyurl.com/oxb88ge>

7 European Commission, "The EU's work in gender equality worldwide". [http://ec.europa.eu/europeaid/sites/devco/files/factsheet-gender-equality-wordwide-2015\\_en.pdf](http://ec.europa.eu/europeaid/sites/devco/files/factsheet-gender-equality-wordwide-2015_en.pdf)

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Article 31 of the **Cotonou Agreement** signed in 2000 and revised in 2005 reiterates that a gender-sensitive approach and concerns at every level of development cooperation including macro-economic policies, strategies and operations and the adoption of specific positive measures in favour of women such as “access to productive resources, especially to land and credit and to labour market” are of critical importance.<sup>8</sup>

### The United Nations

The centrality of gender equality, women’s empowerment and the realization of women’s rights in achieving sustainable development has been increasingly recognized in recent decades. This recognition is evident in a number of international norms and agreements, including the **Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women**, adopted in 1979 by the UN General Assembly, often described as an international bill of rights for women. Article 11 states that appropriate measures shall be taken in order to eliminate discrimination against women in the field of employment; article 14 acknowledges “the particular problems faced by rural women and the significant roles which rural women play in the economic survival of their families, including their work in the non-monetized sectors of the economy, and shall take all appropriate measures to ensure the application of the provisions of the present Convention to women in rural areas.”<sup>9</sup>

In the **Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action**, adopted by Member States in 1995, governments were called upon to integrate

gender concerns and perspectives into policies and programmes for sustainable development. The Declaration acknowledges the fact that there are considerable differences in women’s and men’s access to and opportunities to exert power over economic structures in their societies. The first strategic objective regards the advancement of women’s economic rights and independence, including access to employment, appropriate working conditions and control over economic resources<sup>10</sup>.

### The Doha Declaration on Financing for Development (2008) reaffirms the recommendations of **Monterrey Consensus on Financing for Development** and goes further.

Paragraph 4 recalls that “gender equality is a basic human right, a fundamental value and an issue of social justice; it is essential for economic growth, poverty reduction, environmental sustainability and development effectiveness” and reiterates “the need for gender mainstreaming into the formulation and implementation of development policies, including financing for development policies, and for dedicated resources”, committing to increase efforts to fulfil engagements regarding gender equality and the empowerment of women.<sup>11</sup>

**The UN Women**, the United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women, was established by the UN General Assembly resolution 64/289 in 2010 and it represented a momentous step in accelerating the Organization’s goals on gender equality and the empowerment of women. UN Women supports the leadership

and participation of rural women in shaping laws, strategies, policies and programmes on all issues that affect their lives, including improved food and nutrition security, and better rural livelihoods. Training equips them with skills to pursue new livelihoods and adapt technology to their needs.<sup>12</sup>

The fifth of the seventeen **Sustainable Development Goals** (2015) is achieving gender equality and empower all women and girls, including the recognition and acknowledgment of unpaid care and domestic work “through the provision of public services, infrastructure and social protection policies and the promotion of shared responsibility within the household and the family as nationally appropriate.”<sup>13</sup>

Most recently, through the **Political declaration on the occasion of the twentieth anniversary of the Fourth World Conference on Women** in March 2015, governments pledged to take concrete action in order to ensure: “significantly increased investment to close resource gaps, including through the mobilization of financial resources from all sources, including domestic resource mobilization and allocation and increased priority on gender equality and the empowerment of women in official development assistance to build on progress achieved and ensure that official development assistance is used effectively to contribute to the implementation of the Platform for Action; strengthened accountability for the implementation of existing commitments; and enhanced capacity-building, data collection,

8 “The Cotonou Agreement”, 2000, pp. 1-180. <http://tinyurl.com/odl9zk8>

9 UN, “Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women”, 1979. <http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/cedaw/text/econvention.htm#article14>

10 *Ibid.*

11 United Nations, “Doha Declaration on Financing for Development”, 2008, pp. 1-34. [http://www.un.org/esa/ffd/doha/documents/Doha\\_Declaration\\_FFD.pdf](http://www.un.org/esa/ffd/doha/documents/Doha_Declaration_FFD.pdf)

12 UN Women <http://www.unwomen.org/en>

13 UN, “Sustainable development goals” <http://www.un.org/sustainabledevelopment/sustainable-development-goals/>



monitoring and evaluation, and access to and use of information and communications technologies”.<sup>14</sup>

Important partners in the work with rural women include the **Food and Agriculture Organization**, the **International Fund for Agricultural Development** and the **World Food Programme** under the initiative “**Accelerating Progress towards the Economic Empowerment of Rural Women (RWEE)**”.

The Rural Women’s Rural Economic Empowerment (RWEE) established in 2012, is a five year joint programme will support a results-oriented collaborative effort among FAO, IFAD, WFP and UN Women to promote the economic empowerment of rural women. Each agency brings a distinct comparative advantage to respond to the diversity of issues constraining rural women’s economic empowerment which go beyond the mandate of any individual UN entity to tackle alone. By bringing together their know-how, resources, experiences and constituencies, the four entities will have the potential to greatly enhance the relevance, efficiency, effectiveness, impact and sustainability of their work on rural women’s economic empowerment. The RWEE programme is implemented in: Ethiopia, Guatemala, Kyrgyzstan, Liberia, Nepal, Niger and Rwanda. Each country will define its specific detailed programme implementation plan based on the local context, in partnership with Government and other national stakeholders and in line with Government priorities.<sup>15</sup>

The **International Trade Centre’s (ITC) Women and Trade Programme** seeks to increase the participation of women entrepreneurs and producers in global value chains and to ensure that they enjoy greater economic benefits from participation in international trade.

**The World Bank** aims to reduce gender disparities and inequalities by enhancing women’s participation in economic development. It assists member countries in formulating and implementing their gender and development goals.

**The Women’s Empowerment in Agriculture Index (WEAI)** is a new survey-based index designed to measure the empowerment, agency, and inclusion of women in the agricultural sector. Developed by USAID, the International Food Policy Research Institute, and the Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative, this innovative tool tracks women’s engagement in agriculture in five areas: Production; Resources; Income; Leadership; Time use. Unlike any other tool, it also measures women’s empowerment relative to men within their households, providing a more robust understanding of gender dynamics within households and communities. The WEAI is a composite measurement tool that allows researchers to identify women who are disempowered and understand how to increase autonomy and decision making in key domains.<sup>16</sup>

**The International Center for Research on Women (ICRW)** is a global research institute with headquarters in Washington, D.C.,

and regional offices in Nairobi, Kenya, and New Delhi, India. Its research evidence identifies women’s contributions as well as the obstacles that prevent them from being economically strong and able to fully participate in society. Its research helps development organizations, policymakers and others find practical ways to enhance women’s roles in agricultural production and trade, thereby improving their incomes and livelihoods.<sup>17</sup>

To measure progress in the economic advancement of women, the Economist Intelligence Unit created the **Women’s Economic Opportunity (WEO) Index** which looks beyond gender disparities to the underlying factors affecting women’s access to economic opportunity. It draws on data from a wide range of international organizations in a comprehensive assessment of the enabling environment for women’s economic participation in 128 countries. It assesses the laws, regulations, practices, and attitudes that affect women workers and entrepreneurs.

**The Global Gender Gap Report 2014**<sup>18</sup> emphasizes persisting gender gap divides across and within regions. Based on the nine years of data available for the 111 countries that have been part of the report since its inception, the world has seen only a small improvement in equality for women in the workplace. The index tracks the strong correlation between a country’s gender gap and its national competitiveness.

14 UN Economic and Social Council, “Political declaration on the occasion of the twentieth anniversary of the Fourth World Conference on Women”, 2015, pp.1-4. [http://www.un.org/ga/search/view\\_doc.asp?symbol=E/CN.6/2015/L.1](http://www.un.org/ga/search/view_doc.asp?symbol=E/CN.6/2015/L.1)

15 UN WOMEN, FAO, IFAD, WFP, “Accelerating Progress toward the Economic Empowerment of Rural Women (RWEE)”, 2013 <http://tinyurl.com/n9muk27>

16 OPHI Working Paper No. 58, “The Women’s Empowerment in Agriculture Index”. <http://www.ophi.org.uk/wp-content/uploads/ophi-wp-58.pdf>

17 International Center for Research on Women, “Agriculture and Food Security”. <http://www.icrw.org/what-we-do/agriculture-food-security>

18 World Economic Forum. The Global Gender Gap report. 2014.

### 2.2 Regional initiatives in support of women

#### Africa

Women comprise nearly half of the labour force in Africa's agriculture sector, and more than half in several countries, but on the whole they produce less per hectare than men. Existing evidence from small-scale studies across the continent documents the numerous disadvantages that women face in accessing the same resources, training, markets and opportunities as men. Investing in women farmers and instituting policies that close this gender gap in African agriculture could yield enormous benefits for women and their families, communities and countries. Closing the gender gap could help increase food security and improve livelihoods for Africa's growing population, which is expected to quadruple within the next 90 years. Recognizing these opportunities, many African policy-makers, donor governments and development partners have turned their attention to the gender gap in agriculture. Several leaders have championed the importance of supporting Africa's female farmers, yet these efforts have not always translated into targeted policies in country agricultural plans.

#### The Pan African Women's Organisation (PAWO),

was established in 1962 and has played a significant role in building African unity and solidarity among women during a crucial period in the struggle for political emancipation. PAWO works in order to ensure full and effective participation of Women in Political, Economical and Social development particularly in member countries and internationally. PAWO intends to be in the driving wheel of the programme of the African

Women Decade with regards to the following 10 focal points: Fighting poverty and promoting economic empowerment of women; agriculture and food security; women's health, Maternal Mortality and HIV/AIDS; education, science and technology; environment and climate change; peace and security and violence against women; finance and gender budget; women in decision making position.<sup>19</sup>

#### African Women in Agricultural Research and Development

(AWARD)'s mission is to build an effective and transferable career-development program for women in agricultural research and development in sub-Saharan Africa. Building on the success of AWARD Phase I (2008-2011), AWARD launched its second five-year program in 2012, with support from the Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation and USAID. Its first objective is to *empower the top 10 percent of African women agricultural scientists in 11 countries—making them technically stronger, better networked, and more confident and visible—to deliver effective solutions for smallholders. Empowering high-potential African women in ARD is the centerpiece of AWARD II. AWARD's first round of M&E findings (2011) revealed that its fellowship model is working well. While offering a similar package of activities, AWARD II puts a greater focus on strengthening the fellows' research and its gender-responsiveness, while adding more opportunities to strengthen institutions, and includes improved cost-efficiencies*<sup>20</sup>.

**The New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD)**, an African Union strategic framework for pan-African socio-economic development, is both a vision and

a policy framework for Africa in the twenty-first century. NEPAD is a radically new intervention, spearheaded by African leaders, to address critical challenges facing the continent: poverty, development and Africa's marginalisation internationally. Supporting activities aimed at empowering African women and improving their lives represents one of The Partnership's goals. NEPAD acknowledges that women farmers are the pillars of African agriculture. Recognizing the critical role that women farmers play in ensuring household food security, in July 2009, The Food, Agriculture and Natural Resources Policy Analysis Network (FANRPAN) launched Women Accessing Realigned Markets, a three-year pilot project supported by the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation, which seeks to strengthen women farmers' ability to advocate for appropriate agricultural policies and programmes in Malawi and Mozambique through an innovative tool, Theatre for Policy Advocacy (TPA). Based on results of a FANRPAN commissioned input subsidy study done in Malawi and Mozambique, FANRPAN has developed a theatre script "The Winds of Change". The play explores challenges rural women farmers face in accessing agricultural inputs, land, credit and extension services among other things. In 2010, FANRPAN together with its partners took the play to rural communities in Malawi and Mozambique. The play was modified to suit the local context in each village. Following each performance, women, men, young people and local leaders were encouraged to participate in facilitated dialogues. These gave all community members, especially women, a chance to voice the difficulties they face and speak with local leaders and policy makers who

19 PAWO-SARO, <http://pawo-saro.org/>

20 AWARD, <http://www.awardfellowships.org/about-us/our-vision-mission>



represent their interests at national level.<sup>21</sup>

### Caribbean

In the Caribbean, large numbers of women are employed as seasonal and occasional workers to provide plantations and farms throughout the region with unskilled, low-paid labour. Few opportunities have been provided for them to be exposed to any type of training, or to be promoted to other areas of agricultural work. The available data shows that in several countries there are more female than male farmers and that large numbers of women are employed in the agricultural sector as farm operators, labourers small or subsistence farmers, and as producers of cash crops for local and export markets. Women hoe, plant, weed and harvest agricultural produce, and are an important link in the regional food chain as producers and marketers of agricultural products. They are also involved in fisheries and forestry. However, although they play such important roles and make valuable contributions to the agricultural sector and to rural development, much of their contribution remains invisible because the food that they grow in backyards gardens and on small-holdings, the unpaid labour that they do on family land, and the produce that they sell in the market are not accurately recorded or reflected in national statistics.<sup>22</sup>

### ECLAC

The Regional Conference on Women in Latin America and the Caribbean is a subsidiary body of the Economic Commission for Latin America and Caribbean (ECLAC) which is convened on a regular basis, every three years, to identify women's needs at the regional

and sub regional levels, present recommendations, undertake periodic assessments of the activities of the activities carried out in fulfillment of regional and international plans and agreements on the subject, and serve as a forum for discussion of relevant issues.

In this framework, the 12th session of the Regional Conference on Women in Latin America and the Caribbean took place in October 2013 and focused on **gender equality, women's empowerment and information and communications technologies (ICTs)**. Representatives of Member States and associate members of ECLAC tackled women's economic autonomy and their full and equal participation in all spheres of society and all decision-making processes. This commitment is part of the Santo Domingo Consensus, which establishes a series of measures relating to the role of ICT in gender equality and women's autonomy in its various forms. The Consensus agrees on six main aspects: gender equality, empowerment of women and information and communications technologies; gender equality and the economic empowerment of women; gender equality and women's sexual health and reproductive health; gender equality and the elimination of violence against women; gender equality and the empowerment of women for political participation and decision-making; gender equality and mechanisms for women's empowerment. With regards to the economic empowerment of women, the Consensus urges States to accede to and ratify the International Labour Organization conventions relating to gender equality, to recognize the value of

unpaid domestic work, establish necessary instruments, reinforce the empowerment of women in terms of their right to ownership of land and other natural resources, provide them business education and business incubators, design public policies and programmes to provide technical and financial support for productive activities launched by women living in poverty etc.<sup>23</sup>

Delegates also recommended the renovation the Gender Equality Observatory for Latin America and the Caribbean, created in 2007 at the request of countries and coordinated by the Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), whose objectives are to analyse the fulfillment of international gender-equality goals and targets and increase their visibility by making strategic gender inequality indicators and analytical tools for policymaking available to Government and maintaining up-to-date oversight of women's physical, economic and political-decision-making as it pertain to gender equality; the Observatory will provide technical support and training for producers of official statistics in National Statistical Institutes and Machineries for the Advancement of Women in requesting countries to help them to process statistical data and generate the indicators selected for the Observatory; and the Observatory will provide annual reports offering a diagnosis of inequalities between men and women in key areas such as: paid and unpaid work, time use and poverty; access to decision-making and political representation; gender violence; health and reproductive rights.<sup>24</sup>

### The Caribbean Network of Rural Women Producers (CANROP)

21 NEPAD, <http://www.nepad.org/foodsecurity/news/2103/women-farmers-voiceless-pillars-african-agriculture>

22 Ellis, P., "Women, Gender and Development in the Caribbean: Reflections and Projections", 2003, pp. 1-192.

23 "Santo Domingo Consensus", 2013, <http://tinyurl.com/osg6ftr>

24 Gender Equality Observatory for Latin America and the Caribbean. <http://tinyurl.com/nse6qlr>

is the umbrella organization that embraces national chapters of rural women's associations in the Caribbean. The regional network is a non-profit organization. The Network was formally launched in 1999, to create a single entity of already existing associations of rural women producers. These associations had been established in response to the need to equip women with technical, administrative and entrepreneurial skills as a means to improving their socio-economic status and create employment in the rural areas in which they live. The Network is a member of the Alliance for Sustainable Development of Agriculture and the Rural Milieu (The Alliance) and is supported by the Offices of the Inter-American Institute for Cooperation on Agriculture (IICA) in the Caribbean. The mission of CANROP is to empower rural women to improve their standard of living. This is done through training, cultural exchanges, networking and promoting inter- and intra-regional trade. It facilitates access to specialized credit, seeks to create sustainable employment opportunities and undertakes advocacy to sensitize society to the needs and contributions of women in agriculture.<sup>25</sup>

**The Regional Conference on Women in Latin America and the Caribbean** is a subsidiary body of the Economic Commission for Latin America and Caribbean (ECLAC) which is convened on a regular basis, every three years, to identify women's needs at the regional and sub regional levels, present recommendations, undertake periodic assessments of the activities of the activities carried out in fulfillment of regional and international plans and agreements

on the subject, and serve as a forum for discussion of relevant issues.

The **Gender Equality Observatory for Latin America and the Caribbean**, was created in 2007 at the request of countries and coordinated by ECLAC, to analyse the fulfillment of international gender-equality goals and targets and increase their visibility by making strategic gender inequality indicators and analytical tools for policymaking available to Government.

### Pacific

Rural women throughout the Pacific region make critical contributions to household production and consequently to household and national food security. Although the specific nature of their contribution varies among the Pacific countries, clearly the majority of rural women take on an increasing share of household labour and their lives are characterized by mounting drudgery.<sup>26</sup>

Rural women throughout the Pacific region work long hours and confront drudgery as a reality of their daily existence. Poor women pursue a number of survival strategies to earn enough cash to feed and maintain their families; one indisputable facet of these strategies is the frequent and inordinate extension of working hours inside and outside the home. In the countries of the Pacific Islands, smallholders represent the largest production unit, producing goods for use in the home, for exchange, and for sale in domestic and export markets. Traditionally, women and girls assumed primary responsibility for food production and family food security by growing crops in homestead gardens, rearing small livestock, producing handicrafts

and engaging in other value added activities (such as copra making, fish drying, weaving, coconut oil production, preparation of traditional medicines, planting materials and seeds). Men, on the other hand, engaged in cash cropping. Over time, as cash cropping acquired a higher status for its economic value and contribution to national development, the various kinds of agricultural work performed by women remained associated with food security and were regarded as somewhat lesser in importance in the emerging economic model. Although some reports indicate that agricultural production may be declining in the Pacific, the limited data available show that women's role in agriculture is increasing throughout the entire production and post production chain.<sup>27</sup>

### Women in Business Development Inc

Women in Business Development Inc is dedicated to strengthening village economies in Samoa in ways that honour indigenous tradition, use traditional and modern technology, and promote fair trade. We empower and equip rural families to cultivate sustainable businesses that maximize farm-based resources. We also facilitate trade with global and regional partners, including The Body Shop, All Good Organics and C1Espresso, which understand the potential as well as the limitations of small-scale farming in Samoa. The organization works in 183 Samoan villages and nurtures certified organic agricultural enterprises that annually puts more than SAT\$600,000 into the hands of rural families. These families then have a chance to participate in a cash economy. For many, this means being able to send children to school, to pay utility bills and, importantly, to

25 Caribbean Network of Rural Women Producers (CANROP). <http://www.agricarib.org/caribbean-network-rural-women-producers-canrop>

26 FAO, "Rural women and food security: current situation and perspectives, DR. R. Balakrishnan, <http://www.fao.org/docrep/003/w8376e/w8376e05.htm#3.%20pacific%20rural%20women%20in%20agriculture>

27 FAO, "Rural women and food security in Asia and the Pacific: Prospects and paradoxes", <http://www.fao.org/docrep/008/af348e/af348e07.htm>



have control over their lives instead of relying on remittances. On a national scale, farmers and artisans are using their skills, experience and time to uplift themselves and their communities. Through their collective industry, they are contributing to Samoa's success as a nation.

### **Pacific Women Shaping Pacific Development (*Pacific Women*)**

is a 10 year \$320 million program supported by the Australian Government to improve the political, economic and social opportunities of Pacific women in 14 Pacific countries. Pacific Women supports Pacific countries to meet the commitments made in the 2012 Pacific Island Forum Leaders' Gender Equality Declaration to: (i) Increase the effective representation of women,

and women's interests, through leadership at all levels of decision-making; (ii) Expand women's economic opportunities to earn an income and accumulate economic assets (*Women make up just four percent of parliamentarians in the Pacific (the lowest rate in the world), compared to a global average of around 21 percent.*).

The part related to Women's Economic Empowerment includes:

- Improving infrastructure and management of **produce markets in PNG, Fiji, Vanuatu, and Solomon Islands** so that women have a safer place to work and to support women's equal participation in local economies.
- Supporting reforms in the **coffee industry** to open up cash cropping opportunities for women farmers in remote areas of Eastern Highlands Province of PNG. The program also aims to increase the number of skilled women agriculture extension officers directly supporting women.
- Programs to **reduce barriers** to women's economic empowerment, e.g. simplifying the **process to register companies**, are being supported through the Asian Development Bank.

### 3. Women employment in agriculture <sup>28</sup>

Women are clearly an important part of the agricultural labour force, but agriculture and agricultural value chains are equally important to women as a source of employment. Commercial value chains for high-value products such as fresh fruit, vegetables, flowers and livestock products are growing rapidly to supply urban supermarkets and export markets.

The growth of modern value chains and the broader structural transformation of the agriculture sector in many developing countries have major implications for women's employment, but the impact of these trends for women has received relatively little analytical attention.<sup>29</sup>

and women, but in most countries women are more likely than men to be employed seasonally.

In many countries, informal sector jobs are synonymous with female employment and associated with low status and poor working conditions. Consequently the factors keeping women in the informal sector also imply that women continue to face poor working conditions. In addition, as outlined below, women may continue to face poor working conditions due to flaws in labour market legislation. Poor compliance of labour market legislations at the work place and weak enforcement mechanisms may also contribute to

Many women are not guaranteed decent work conditions due to flawed labour market legislation. Working conditions with direct impact on women, such as equal wage, maternity leave, and pension are in many cases not properly addressed.

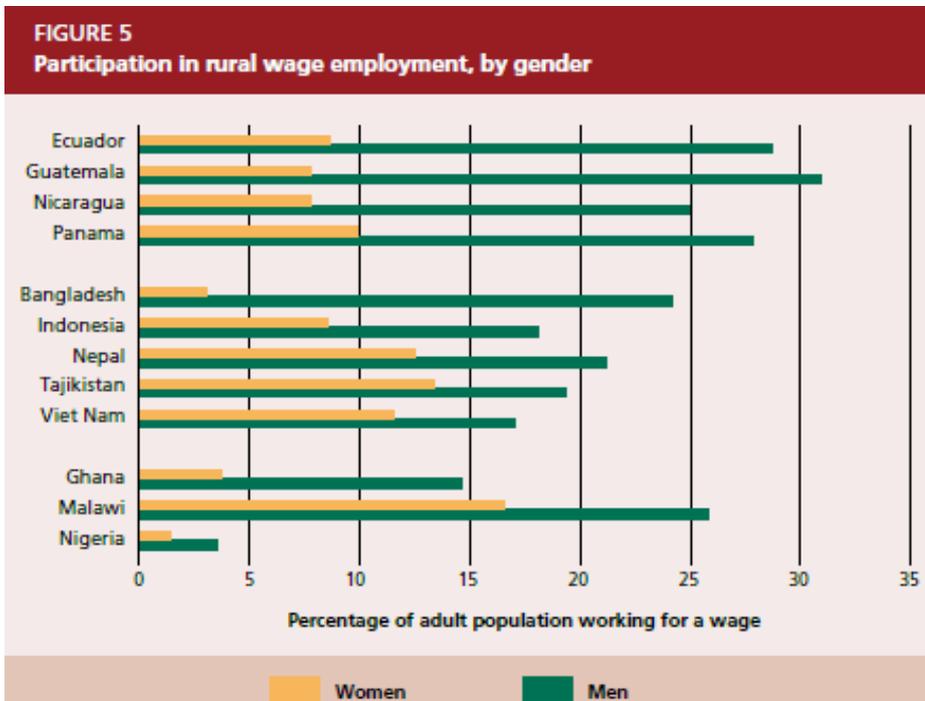
Many employers, especially small and medium sized enterprises lack the knowledge, skills and motivation to put in place working conditions that are attractive to women. This includes measures such as flexibility in working hours and place of work, accessible means of transport, affordable quality child care facilities and access to training and education.

Compliance with ILO conventions and good corporate practices can improve access and working conditions for women.

Women-led businesses often concentrate in low paying, feminized markets (handicrafts, agricultural, fish and livestock products for local markets, food processing, sales of goods and services) in the informal economy with no legal registration, no regular workforce with rights and freedom of association, and no adequate operating capital to cover employees' social protection and health benefits.<sup>30</sup>

Women's obstacles in accessing domestic and export markets (small scale of operation, lack of transportation and information, and time constraints) limit their capacity to achieve growth,

create decent working conditions and build sustainable livelihoods.



Rural wage employment is characterized by a high prevalence of seasonal jobs for both men

keeping women (and men for that matter) in jobs with poor working conditions:

29 FAO, "The State of Food and Agriculture", Women in Agriculture. Closing the gender gap for development. Rome, 2010.

30 IFAD.FAO.ILO, "Rural women's entrepreneurship is "good business"! Gender and rural employment policy Brief 3", 2010.



Social norms are also an important factor accounting for the high number of women entrepreneurs who operate in the informal sector. A qualitative study on gender and economic choice in the 2012 World Development Report on Gender and Development found that, in all 19 countries studied, social norms are the most frequently reported constraint to physical mobility, followed by public safety.

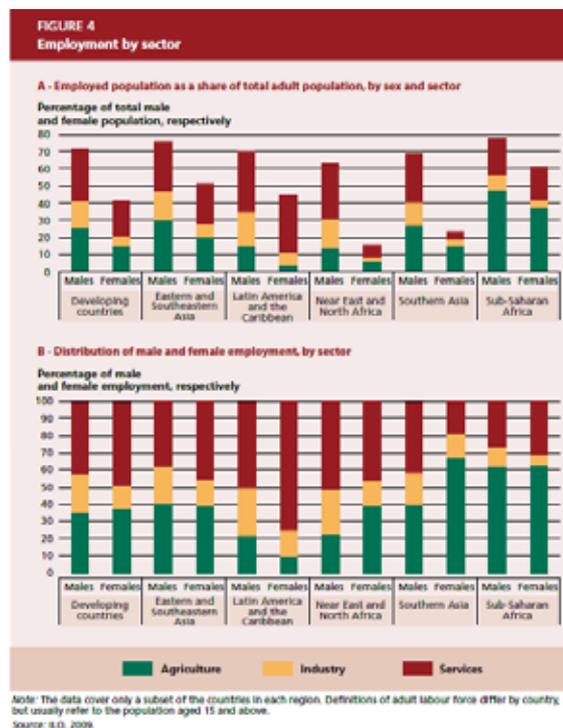
The burden of **unpaid work** – which has not been monitored by the MDGs – is disproportionately borne by women and poses a significant obstacle to women’s ability to access education, training, and decent employment opportunities, or engage in politics.<sup>31</sup> For countries where data is available, women spend, on average, roughly twice as much or more time than men on domestic work, including family care, and rural women spend more time than urban women and men in domestic and household work, including time spent obtaining water and fuel, caring for children and the sick, and processing food. This work is intensified in contexts of economic crisis, environmental degradation, natural disasters, and inadequate infrastructure and services (especially water and sanitation).<sup>32</sup>

## 3.1 Share of women in the agricultural labour force

The share of women in the agricultural labour force (or economically active in agriculture) comprises just over 40 percent of the agricultural labour force in the developing world, a figure that has risen slightly since 1980 and ranges from about 20 percent in the Americas to almost 50 percent in Africa.

Agriculture is, relative to manufacturing and services, the most important source of employment for women by a wide margin in South Asia and in sub-Saharan Africa. It is also the most important sector for women in East Asia and South-East Asia but nearly equally so with services. Agriculture is much more important for women than for men in terms of employment in South Asia and the Middle East. It is somewhat more important for women than for men in East Asia, North Africa and sub-Saharan Africa. In Central and South Eastern Europe and in Latin America women are much more concentrated in the service sector. The figure shows that both the level of employment and the distribution of employment in different sectors vary substantially across regions. However there is always a significant gap between the level of male and female employment and for women the service and/or agriculture sectors are relatively more important than the manufacturing sector.

Women make up almost 50 percent of the agricultural labour force in sub-Saharan Africa, an increase from about 45 percent in 1980. The averages in Africa range from just over 40 percent in Southern Africa to just over 50 percent in Eastern Africa. These sub-regional averages have remained fairly stable since 1980, with the exception of Northern Africa, where the female share appears to have risen from 30 percent to almost 45 percent. The sub-regional data for Africa conceal wide differences between countries both in the share of female labour in agriculture and the trend.



### Women as livestock keepers

Within pastoralist and mixed farming systems, livestock play an important role in supporting women and in improving their financial situation, and women are heavily engaged in the sector. The influence of women is strong in the use of eggs, milk and poultry meat for home consumption and they often have control over marketing and the income from these products. In some countries small-scale pig production is also dominated by women.

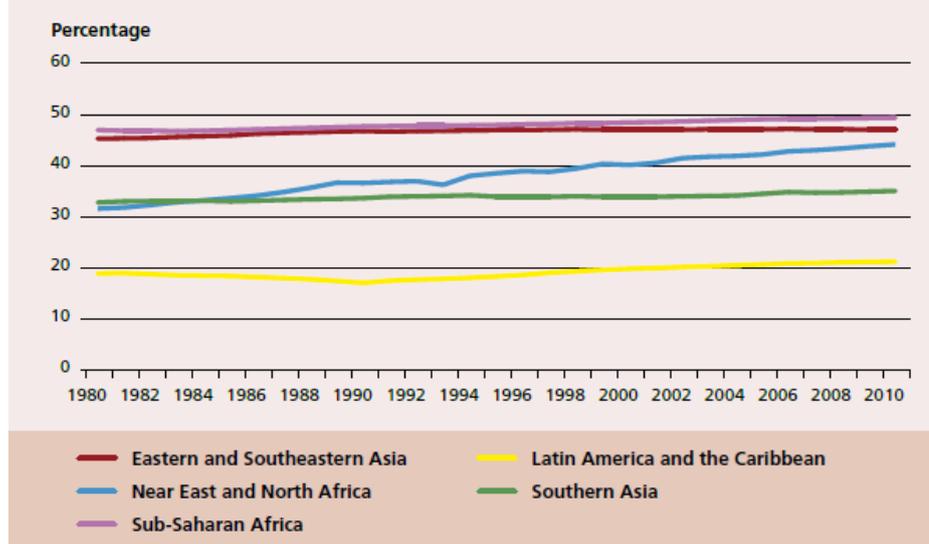
While the role of women in small-scale livestock production is well recognized, much less has been documented about the engagement of women in intensive production and the market chains associated with large commercial enterprises. Demand for livestock products has grown much faster than the demand for crop staples during the past 40 years, fuelled by rising incomes, particularly in Asia and Latin

31 United Nations General Assembly, "Report of the Special Rapporteur on Extreme Poverty and Human Rights", A/68/293, 2013.

32 United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, "The World's Women 2010: Trends and Statistics", New York, 2010, <http://www.un.org/womenwatch/feature/ruralwomen/facts-figures.html>.

## Women entrepreneurs: Key players in ACP agribusiness development

**FIGURE 1**  
Female share of the agricultural labour force



Note: The female share of the agricultural labour force is calculated as the total number of women economically active in agriculture divided by the total population economically active in agriculture. Regional averages are weighted by population.

Source: FAO, 2010b. See Annex table A4.

America, and this trend is expected to continue. While pastoralist and small scale mixed farming systems continue to be important in meeting the needs of rural consumers, the demands of growing urban populations are increasingly supplied with meat, milk and eggs from intensive commercial systems. This has important implications for the engagement of women in the livestock sector because of the different roles, responsibilities and access to resources that are evident within different scales of production system and at different points on the production and marketing chain.

### Women in fisheries and aquaculture

Women have rarely engaged in commercial offshore and long distance capture fisheries due to the difficulties of the work involved but also because of women's domestic responsibilities and/or social norms. Women are more commonly occupied in subsistence

and commercial fishing from small boats and canoes in coastal or inland waters. Women also contribute as entrepreneurs and provide labour before, during and after the catch in both artisanal and commercial fisheries. For example, in West Africa, the so called "Fish Mamas" play a major role. They usually own capital and are directly and vigorously involved in the coordination of the fisheries chain, from production to sale of fish.

Studies of women in aquaculture, especially in Asia where aquaculture has a long tradition, indicate that the contribution of women in labour is often greater than men's although there is almost a complete absence of macro-level aquaculture-related sex- disaggregated data.

The most significant role played by women in both artisanal and industrial fisheries is at the processing and marketing stages,

where they are very active in all regions. In some countries, women have become important entrepreneurs in fish processing; in fact, most fish processing is performed by women, either in their own household-level industries or as wage labourers in the large-scale processing industry.<sup>33</sup>

### Women's access to technology

Access to new technology is crucial in maintaining and improving agricultural productivity. Gender gaps exist for a wide range of agricultural technologies, including machines and tools, improved plant varieties and animal breeds, fertilizers, pest control measures and management techniques. A number of constraints, including the gender gaps described above, lead to gender inequalities in access to and adoption of new technologies, as well as in the use of purchased inputs and existing technologies.

The use of purchased inputs depends on the availability of complementary assets such as land, credit, education and labour, all of which tend to be more constrained for female-headed

households than for male-headed households. Working capital is required for purchasing inputs such as fertilizers and improved seeds and women face more obstacles relative to men in their access to credit. Adoption of improved technologies and inputs may also be constrained by women's lower ability to absorb risk.

The evidence points to significant gender differences in the adoption of improved technologies and the use of purchased inputs across regions.<sup>34</sup>

33 "The role of women in agriculture", Prepared by the SOFA Team and Cheryl Doss, ESA Working Paper No. 11-02. FAO, 2011.

34 Peterman A., Behrman J., Quisumbing A. "A review of empirical evidence on gender differences in non-land agricultural inputs, technology, and services in developing countries", IFPRI, 2010.



## 4. Women access to agricultural markets

### 4.1 Making commercialisation an opportunity for women

Operationally, programmes linking small-scale producers and agricultural workers to markets can be:

- Gender blind: neither distinguishing nor acknowledging gender power relations or the gender division of labour;
- Gender aware in that they address women's and men's practical needs within existing gender relations and divisions of labour;
- Gender transformative in that they challenge existing gender roles and divisions of labour<sup>35</sup>.

A review of 30 cases linking small-scale farmers to markets found only a handful where women formed the majority of participants. These included One Acre Fund, a Ugandan potato grower group, some Rwandan coffee cooperatives and a shea nut processing federation in Burkina Faso.<sup>36</sup> This is partly understandable, because programmes focus on boosting production and incomes: they are not designed to challenge long-standing structural inequalities in gender relations. Even where agricultural programmes seek to promote women's welfare, the extent to which they are able to achieve improved gender relations and

promote processes of empowerment for women is often limited.

Women interviewed in Ethiopia, Tanzania and Guatemala as part of a WFP evaluation showed a preference for women-only groups. South Asia has considerable experience of women-only self-help groups which have been used to good effect to increase access to credit and savings; to boost overall household income and consumption, as well as women's self-confidence and esteem; to facilitate social mobility, social capital and political awareness; and to improve participation in decision-making activities.<sup>37</sup>

Where women-only groups are not possible, quotas in mixed-gender groups may be a first step to support women's involvement, increase women's visibility and give them a platform from which to claim rights – particularly when complemented by leadership training and other capacity development. The WFP's Purchase for Progress (P4P) programme has the target that at least half of the farmers in P4P groups should be women, even if this is not always realised.

Other ways to increase women's participation in commercial agricultural activities include:<sup>38</sup>

- **Working with crops that are more traditionally associated with women** – including for instance certain pulses, or rice in West Africa, or dairy and poultry in East Africa as

opposed to other livestock. At the same time care is taken that traditional women-controlled crops do not become the domain of men as they become more profitable<sup>19</sup> and that the barriers to women's participation in crops traditionally associated with men are removed. The use of transitional hives for backyard-beekeeping in Ethiopia has dramatically improved women's participation in honey production, replacing traditional hives mounted on trees in forest areas which were exclusively men's business (see Wiggins and Keats 2013a Case 21 or Case Study 1 in Tripathi et al. 2012);

- **Working with crops that help diversify livelihoods across a household**, since women in focus groups stress this as way to reduce risk (WFP and ALINe 2011);
- **Encouraging extension agents and field officers to work with women producers** through training or other measures – and indeed training women extension agents who are more likely to encourage other women to participate and who will understand better the barriers they face;
- Targeting the practical needs of women, for instance **group-organised microcredit schemes**, input acquisition,

35 Global Gender Strategy, "Agricultural Learning and Impacts Network (ALINe) P4P", 2011, <http://documents.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/reports/wfp239391.pdf>

36 Wiggins, S., Keats, S. "Topic Guide. Leveraging the private sector to promote agriculture and natural resource-based livelihoods", 2014.

37 Global Gender Strategy, "Agricultural Learning and Impacts Network (ALINe) P4P", 2011.

38 Wiggins, S., Keats, S., "Leveraging the private sector to promote agriculture and natural resource-based livelihoods. Topic Guide", ODI, 2014.

or transport services may ease some of the specific constraints facing women (Fischer and Qaim 2012);

- **Designing programmes to overcome time constraints faced by women**, which are often more binding than those faced by men – including, for example, providing care for both children and the chronically ill, improving transport, developing technologies to support planting, weeding or processing 20 and making it easier to obtain water and fuelwood;
- **Improving women's functional literacy.**

### 4.2 Concentration on specific activities in the food chain

Women are clearly an important part of the agricultural labour force, but agriculture and agricultural value chains are equally important to women as a source of employment.

Women activities are more concentrated in certain stages of the food chain such as packaging, post-processing. They are in low-technology occupations which limits the opportunities to generate new skills and capabilities.

#### Gender in Value chains

Addressing gender within value chain analysis recognizes that value chains are embedded in a social context that defines the work that men and women do, the groups they join, and how resources and benefits are

distributed. However, the process of building efficient and effective value chains can also transform gender relations both within and outside the household. For example, introducing new technologies or new crops can change gendered relations of production with different outcomes for men and for women. When women gain access to labor-saving farm equipment required to transform crop outputs for market sale, they can free up time for other productive activities. Conversely, in communities where men typically own land, women may lose income from or access to their garden plots as new markets enhance the value of the crops grown on them and the land is repossessed. Formalizing market linkages can also shift household financial management practices. Finally, it may be possible that, with awareness of how value chains and systems of gender relations intersect, value chain development and achieving gender equity can be mutually supportive (Rubin, Manfre, and Barrett 2009; Rubin and Manfre 2012).

While women continue to face occupational segregation and discrimination in rural labour markets, some new forms of organization in supply chains for export-oriented crops and agro-processing have created better-paying employment opportunities for women in many countries than existed before. Wages are typically higher and working conditions better than in traditional agricultural employment. The large-scale incorporation of women in the packing stage of non-traditional agro-export production may be one of the most important developments for female employment over the last few decades.<sup>39</sup>

Commercial value chains for high-value products such as fresh fruit, vegetables, flowers and livestock products are growing rapidly to supply urban supermarkets and export markets. The growth of modern value chains and the broader structural transformation of the agricultural sector in many developing countries have major implications for women's employment, but the impact of these trends for women has received relatively little analytical attention.<sup>40</sup>

Women dominate employment in many of the high-value agricultural commodity chains in sub-Saharan Africa and Latin America. New jobs in export-oriented agro-industries may not employ men and women on equal terms, however they often provide better opportunities for women than exist within the confines of traditional agriculture and can also be instruments of change with significant implications for women and rural development.<sup>41</sup>

There is evidence that professionalizing women's work and supporting women in taking up new roles in the value chain contribute to chain performance. Women have become better in what they do (producing better quality); in many cases they have also scaled up production (also through collective marketing). We see that women groups have been linked to higher value or better organized markets. We see also that in most cases women gained a degree of control over the value chain, being involved in negotiating prices and establishing direct linkages with more attractive buyers.

**Women and men may also perform specific tasks along a value chain**

39 Deere, C.D., "The feminization of agriculture?: economic restructuring in rural Latin America", UNRISD, 2005, <http://tinyurl.com/ntavhhz>

40 Maaertens, M., Swinnen, J., "Gender and modern supply chains in developing countries", Katholieke Universiteit Leuven, LICOS Centre for Institutions and Economic Performance, 2008.

41 *Ibid.*



and therefore have gender-specific knowledge related to that value chain—for example, knowledge of particular elements of a crop's life cycle and its requirements at that stage. The separation of tasks by gender may mean that neither men nor women possess a complete understanding of the whole value chain and of how the roles and responsibilities of different actors intersect and interact at different stages. In fishing communities in São Tome and Principe, for instance, men catch fish and maintain fishing tackle and boats. Women purchase the catch directly from the fishermen. They transport and market the catch, and in some cases transform it into dried or salted fish. In some cases the gender division of labor may appear to proceed harmoniously and result in a good product. In other cases, if men or women have little understanding of the requirements of the next stage in the chain, gradual losses in product quality and quantity along the chain will yield a relatively poor product. Interventions aimed at adding value through processing and marketing need to consider how to increase understanding between chain actors, identify which gender may benefit at which stage, and determine whether women can be drawn into those activities that add the most value.

### 4.3 Gender and assets dynamics in specific value chains <sup>42</sup>

#### The flower industry in Latin America

In Colombia, for example, Friedemann-Sánchez<sup>43</sup> finds that 64 percent of the workforce directly growing fresh-cut flowers for export are women and consider this type of agro-industrial work skilled, while others consider it unskilled

(Meier, 1999). While women do have supervisory jobs among those directly involved in cultivation activities, they have a much lower share of managerial or professional jobs in other aspects of the sector. Similarly, Fontana (2003) finds that in sectors producing primarily for the export market, women tend to be replaced by males as profits increase.

The arrival of the flower industry in the Ecuadorian town of Cayambe in the late 1980s (in combination with other household and individual factors) affected time use patterns in some surprising ways. The total time spent by women in paid and unpaid work did not increase, contrary to a frequent criticism of agricultural export development which maintains that women are unduly burdened by work in the industry. Indeed, the most compelling evidence of the industry's impact was on men's increased participation in housework. In Cotacachi, Ecuador, in contrast, women were not prepared to move or even commute to work in the flower industry despite the higher wages offered there. The women did not view flower employment as an option, indicating either that their husbands would not allow them to work or that the work would be detrimental to family relations.

#### The growth of modern horticulture supply chains in Senegal

The horticulture sector has been associated with direct beneficial effects for rural women and reduced gender inequalities in rural areas (Maertens and Swinnen, 2009). That study also finds that women benefit more from employment in large-scale estate production and agro-industrial processing than from high-value smallholder contract-farming in which they often provide unpaid family labour.

#### Dairy value-chains in Mozambique

Both productivity and consumption are low in Mozambique's dairy industry. In Manica, agriculture is the primary household-income-generating activity, and earnings from dairy and meat sales are the second-most-important source of income for rural households after sales of plant crops. Livestock, comprising mostly small stock such as chickens or pigs, was found to contribute 74 percent of the value of women's asset portfolio. Men are also active in the dairy industry, but women provide most of the labor, contributing 53 percent of their time to the daily care of dairy cows including milking and selling milk. Despite their high degree of involvement in agriculture, Mozambican women are limited in their control of and access to household cash, land, and crops, and thus in their ability to meet the minimum requirements for dairy production. Cattle are typically considered to be men's property, except where women are household heads.

Men and women have different responsibilities in livestock care and management as well as milk production and marketing. Men typically prepare forage plots and pasture areas, build enclosures for their animals, cut grass for feed, purchase supplementary rations, clean cow teats, take milk to the collection centers, and report sick cows to veterinary technicians. Women typically feed and water cows, collect fodder, make minor repairs on cattle enclosures, sell milk in local markets, and hand-dress cows (for example, removing ticks). Both men and women may clean enclosures or change dirty water. Some women household heads hire laborers to perform this work.

42 Quisumbing, A., Rubin, D., Manfre, C., Waithanji, E., van den Bold, M., Olney, D. & Meinzen-Dick, R., "Closing the Gender Asset Gap: Learning from value chain development in Africa and Asia", 2013. [http://www.womeneconroadmap.org/sites/default/files/IFPRI\\_Gender%20Assets%20and%20Value%20Chains.pdf](http://www.womeneconroadmap.org/sites/default/files/IFPRI_Gender%20Assets%20and%20Value%20Chains.pdf)

43 Friedemann-Sánchez, G., "Assembling Flowers and Cultivating Homes: Labor and Gender in Colombia", Lanham, Lexington Books, 2006.

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Men are the ultimate decision-makers on most cattle or dairy-related issues, for example, about input use, production practices used, technologies adopted, attendance at trainings, joining a cooperative or association, or registration for cow distribution. Women were often consulted but did not have final authority.

### Horticulture value-chains in Burkina Faso and Uganda

The creation and formalization of value chains is occurring in Burkina Faso but vegetables and fruits continue to be marketed in small quantities, typically through local markets. The 2010 baseline study showed that agriculture is the main livelihood of the study population, with sorghum, millet, and beans produced most often (Behrman et al. 2011). Households typically cultivate multiple household plots, but face constraints of water availability and inputs that “limit the production potential of households and constrain both the food availability and dietary diversity of households” (Behrman et al. 2011, 30). In Fada N’Gourma, men are generally responsible for buying and selling high-value livestock like goats, and women are engaged in the cultivation, harvest, and preparation of food, collection of water and firewood, and care of their children.

Men cultivate larger land areas than do women, but women farm one more plot than men, on average. Production on men’s plots is about six times higher than that on women’s plots, possibly reflecting more intensive application of fertilizer and manure. Men also hold more small animals and large livestock than women, both in terms of the value and number of animals. Men own more pieces of

agricultural equipment; women own more durables. Although overall men held a fewer number of household assets than women, their value was significantly higher than that of the assets held by women (Behrman et al. 2011).

### Cocoa in Côte d’Ivoire<sup>44</sup>

Cocoa supports the livelihoods of about 3.6 million people in Côte d’Ivoire and is one of the country’s major foreign-currency earners. Women own 25 percent of the cocoa plantations and make up about 68 percent of the labour force. However, due to their relatively low plantation ownership rates, they have very little control over the revenues they generate and are largely unremunerated for their labour.

Three major constraints for women in cocoa cultivation in Côte d’Ivoire exist:

- The majority of women working in cocoa production do not own the plantations but instead work on family farms where they are mostly unremunerated, as cash crops such as cocoa are traditionally within the purview of their husbands;
- In primary processing and production, the majority of women are excluded from cooperatives and their associated benefits, as membership in cooperatives usually requires land ownership; and
- Lastly, the broad exclusion of women in aggregation, trade and transport activities and their under-representation as intermediaries prevents them from moving further downstream into sales.

Opportunities to increase women’s incomes in Côte d’Ivoire through the cocoa value chain include:

- Develop and help promote large-scale women-owned agribusiness enterprises along the value chain, especially where women are already involved but lack entrepreneurial support;
- Help women entrepreneurs create chocolate and cocoa products that can be branded as coming from women-led value chains and marketed to target niche markets, and build on current artisanal chocolate production in Côte d’Ivoire; and
- Expand women-inclusive cooperative programmes that can help women increase their productivity and establish women as co-owners.

### Coffee in Ethiopia<sup>45</sup>

Ethiopia is Africa’s largest producer: coffee provides livelihoods for 4.5–5.0 million people. Women make up 75 percent of the coffee-industry workforce, but only control 43 percent of the revenue. This is because they receive only about 20 percent of the revenue from smallholder plots that they do not own, and usually occupy lower-paid positions that are further down on the value chain.

Women working in coffee in Ethiopia face three major constraints that reduce their income:

- Much of the wet-milling (which fetches a 25 percent higher price than dried coffee) is done through cooperatives. Because relatively few women coffee farmers are members

44 AfDB, “Economic Empowerment of African Women through Equitable Participation in Agricultural Value Chains”, 2015, pp. 1-148. <http://tinyurl.com/odgjbux>

45 Ibid.



of cooperatives, they miss out on opportunities to boost the value of their production;

- The Ethiopia Commodity Exchange (ECX) does not allow for traceability to original producers, so coffee grown by women cannot achieve the higher price that specialty markets are willing to pay unless it is marketed as such through a cooperative union and sold directly to an international buyer; and
- Women lack business training, links to other value chain players and financing to start

businesses because they do not own land.

Three opportunities for women working in coffee production in Ethiopia are identified:

- Expand women-inclusive cooperative programmes that can help women increase their incomes and productivity and establish them as co-owners;
- Create women-grown brands of speciality coffee to achieve premium prices; and
- Create large, women-owned coffee processing businesses in high-value-capture activities.

## Cassava in Nigeria<sup>46</sup>

Nigeria is the world's largest producer: in 2013 it produced approximately 20 percent of global cassava but less than 1 percent of exports. African production depends primarily on small-scale farmers. Processing is also largely done through small-scale processors. Significant opportunities exist to increase profitability through improved processing and

management of the supply chain, and through expanded exports. There are 6 million smallholder cassava farmers in Nigeria. Women account for 25 percent of these but earn just 17 percent of the income, mainly because of their lower productivity. Most commercial production and processing are owned by men, while women are predominant in smallholder processing.

Women cassava producers and processors face a number of constraints:

- Women smallholders tend to be 25–30 percent less productive than men. They apply less fertiliser per hectare than men, they have less training in agronomic practices and they are responsible for household chores, which reduces the time available to farm;
- Women, 90 percent of whom are small-scale processors, lack access to reliable sources of electricity as well as the capital

to buy efficient, modern processing equipment; and

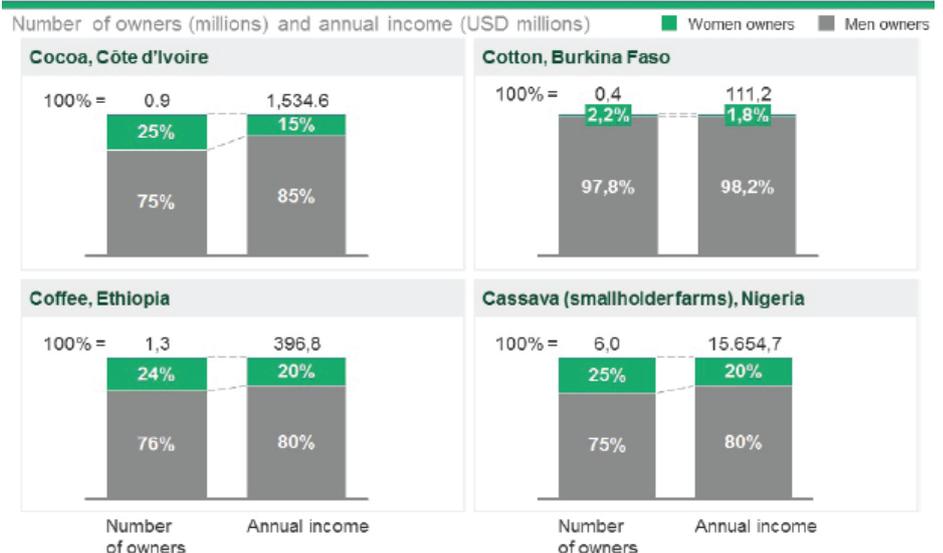
- Women commercial processors may produce less due to limited working capital to run their operations.

There are three main opportunities for women in Nigeria's cassava value chain:

- Increase women smallholder incomes by improving productivity and establishing links with large-scale industrial processors;
- Increase the incomes of women processors by providing funding and training; and
- Develop large-scale, women-owned commercial processing plants that will produce high-value added industrial cassava products.

Across the four sub-sectors, three cross-cutting themes emerge:

## Income for women farmers is proportionally lower than for male counterparts



SOURCE: FAOSTAT; NBS; Africa Business Review; Mars; Fair Labour Institute; TechnoServe; expert interviews

46 Ibid.

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- Increase the number of women entrepreneurs in large-scale agribusiness through training, providing access to financing and improving market links;
- Increase incomes by improving productivity and training women in core business skills, and ensure that women get a bigger share of the income generated as a result of their work; and
- Increase access to niche markets by producing and marketing products as coming from women-led value chains.



## 5. Limited access to finance and business services: a major constraint to women economic development<sup>47</sup>

### 5.1 Access to finance is key for women entrepreneurs

Increasing women's access to microfinance can increase **household well being**. This is partly the result of economic empowerment, but may occur even where women use microfinance services for the activities of other household members, for example husbands or children. Even where women are not directly engaged in income earning activities, channeling credit or savings options to households *through women* may enable them to play a more active role in intra household decision-making, decrease their own and household vulnerability, and increase investment in family welfare.

A combination of women's increased economic activity and increased decision-making in the household can lead to wider **social and political empowerment**. Women, themselves, often value the opportunity to make a greater contribution to household well-being – giving them greater confidence and sense of self-worth.

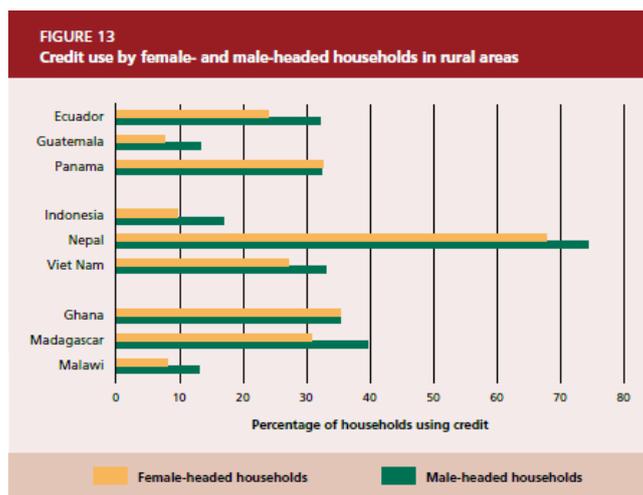
Finally, women's **economic empowerment at the individual level** can make potentially significant contributions at the macro level through increasing women's visibility as agents of economic growth and their voices as economic actors in policy decisions.<sup>48</sup>

Access to finance is often cited as a main constraint to the growth of female-owned enterprises. Women have less access to basic banking services such as checking and saving accounts. In Tunisia, for example, 76 percent of women business-owners sought bank credit, but only 47 percent received it. In Latin America and the Caribbean, women entrepreneurs are often required to provide significantly more collateral than men. As a result, many female entrepreneurs rely on their own savings, loans from family and friends, or micro loans to finance their business needs. However, the small size and short-term nature of micro-loans do not allow women borrowers to make long-term investments in their businesses.

Many studies have shown that improving women's direct access to financial resources leads to higher investments in human capital in the form of children's health, nutrition and education.

Evidence shows that credit markets are not gender-neutral. Legal barriers and cultural norms sometimes bar women from holding bank accounts or entering into financial contracts in their own right. Women generally

have less control over the types of fixed assets that are usually necessary as collateral for loans. Institutional discrimination by private and public lending institutions often either ration women out of the market or grant women loans that are smaller than those granted to men for similar activities<sup>49</sup>.



Note: Calculations made using nationally representative household surveys. The gender gap is calculated as the difference between the percentages of male- and female-headed households that use credit. Sources: FAO, RIGA team, and Anriquez, 2010.

The ability to obtain a loan is crucial for women entrepreneurs, while, more generally, access to a savings account helps to boost savings and growth.

Financial institutions may be wary of extending credit to women because they may have less professional/business experience, and also because women's businesses are often concentrated in low-growth sectors. Women may sometimes face greater difficulties than men

47 IFAD, FAO, ILO, "Rural women's entrepreneurship is 'good business'! Gender and rural employment policy Brief #3. 2010.

48 Mayoux, L., Hartl, M., "Gender and rural microfinance: Reaching and empowering women. Guide for practitioners", 2009.

49 Fletschner, World Bank, FAO & IFAD, 2009.

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in accessing credit, as in many countries women's access to moveable and immoveable property is restricted either by law or by social and customary practices, leaving them with very few assets. Moreover, choices regarding how a woman can dispose of her income and assets may be decided by the male head of the household, a designation either by tradition, or in some countries, by law. Norms are gradually changing as women gain more decision-making power within the family, in part due to their increasing economic participation and corresponding ability to contribute financially.

Few banks operate in rural areas. Although financial institutions have increased access to micro finance in many countries, loans are seldom large enough to enable significant growth of enterprises. Women entrepreneurs, particularly in rural areas, often experience difficulties accessing relevant financial products and services due to a lack of appropriate products, information, understanding of their needs and collateral.

Disproportionately high legal and regulatory barriers can also have a profound effect on women's ability to

run stronger, more viable businesses. Only 38 out of 141 economies covered in the Women, Business and the Law database set out equal legal rights for women and men in key areas such as opening a bank account, getting a job without permission from their

spouse, and owning and managing property. In Latin America and the Caribbean, women feel more vulnerable to corrupt officials and report difficulties in understanding rules and regulations that govern the registration of businesses.<sup>50</sup>

Increasing women's access to **microfinance services** can lead to their economic empowerment. Women's roles in household financial management may improve, in some cases enabling them to access significant amounts of money in their own right for the first time. This might enable women to start their own economic activities, invest more in existing activities, acquire assets or raise their status in household economic activities through their visible capital contribution.

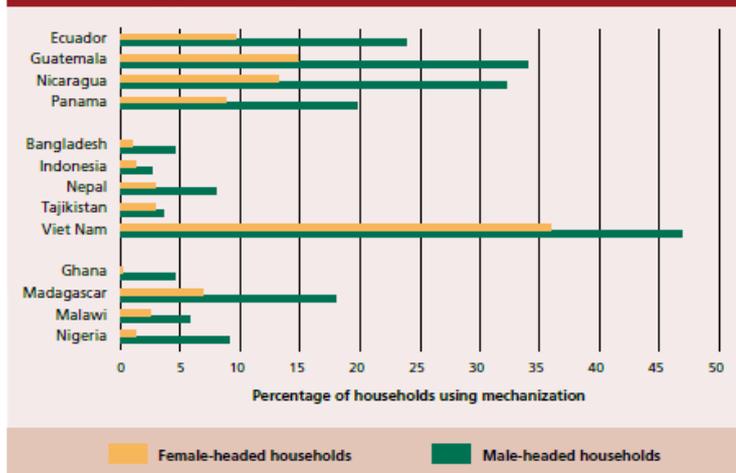
However, the small size and terms of micro-loans makes this source of financing more useful for providing working capital and addressing liquidity constraints, but unsuitable to support longer-term investments.

Despite some advances, women's access to microfinance is still unequal. Statistics on client or membership numbers, even when gender disaggregated, say very little about the quality of the services accessed by women compared with those for men.

**Legal constraints to access finance**  
**Legal constraints in the area of family law and inheritance can determine a women's ability to own property and access collateral for financing**

The institutional and legal environment is critical to the growth of female-owned enterprises. Laws regulating the private sphere specifically those regarding marriage, inheritance and land can hinder women's access to assets, which can be used as collateral when securing a loan. According to the Women's Legal and Economic Empowerment Database for Africa (LEED), only eight countries include provisions to give women the right to own property. While gender gaps in education tend to close with development, the same is not true of gender gaps in legal rights – middle-income countries are as likely as low-income countries to define men as the head of the household, to give the husband the

**FIGURE 15**  
**Mechanical equipment use by female- and male-headed households**



Note: Calculations made using nationally representative household surveys. Differences between female- and male-headed households are significant at the 95 percent confidence level for all countries.  
 Sources: FAO, RIGA team, and Anriquez, 2010.

There are no comprehensive sex-disaggregated data relating to financial services. Most of the financial indicators in the Index therefore are based on the disproportionately positive effect they have on women's ability to access financial services. Improvements in national conditions measured by these indicators would have a positive effect on women's employment and business opportunities.

Increasing women's access to **microfinance services** can lead to their economic empowerment. Women's roles in household financial management may improve, in some cases enabling them to access

50 World Development Report, "Gender Equality and Development and World Bank (2012) Are Pakistan's Women Entrepreneurs being served by the Microfinance Sector?", 2012.



right to choose the matrimonial home or to deny women the ability to own assets in their own name.

Women generally receive lower loan amounts, and this cannot be completely accounted for by demand factors. Some women have extremely good business ideas requiring larger loans, but they face discrimination in accessing such loans, with the result that their businesses collapse because they are forced to purchase inferior equipment or materials. Most programmes to which women have access do not give them sufficiently large loans to purchase assets such as land and housing. Many require assets as collateral or the signature of a 'male guardian'.

### Promoting financial literacy

Financial institutions, governments and NGOs should offer financial literacy training to ensure that women can compare products and make decisions based on a clear understanding of the characteristics and conditions of the products available.<sup>51</sup> Such efforts could involve steps such as disseminating information and promotion materials in places or through channels that women can access, simplifying application procedures and adapting them to women's literacy and numeracy levels, and simplifying insurance contracts and communicating their conditions using language and examples that less-literate women can easily understand.

## 5.2 Initiatives supporting women's access to finance

### Tanzania – Women Entrepreneurs Finance Program (Exim Bank & IFC)

Exim Bank in Tanzania launched its Women Entrepreneurs Finance

Program in 2007 to provide lines of credit to women entrepreneurs running midsize enterprises. In order to address the needs of female entrepreneurs who lack collateral to access the financing needed for their enterprises, Exim Bank offers an innovative approach by allowing the entrepreneurs to use contracts with reputable companies as collateral for their loans. The average size of the contracts is \$160,000. IFC provided a \$5 million credit line to finance the program and the Canadian International Development Agency helped fund the business advisory services. In addition, with the help of IFC, Exim Bank has also partnered with Sero Lease and Finance, a micro-leasing company in Tanzania, to aid women moving from microfinance to the formal banking sector, by facilitating the transfer of borrowers' good credit histories from microfinance institutions to commercial banks. Also known as the "Tumaini" savings and loan product, this program received a \$1 million commitment from IFC to target 30,000 women. The women are provided with training on banking services such as loan application process and business planning and management.

### Nigeria – Gender Empowerment Program (International Finance Corporation & Access Bank of Nigeria)

In order to support aspiring female entrepreneurs to start businesses and existing female entrepreneurs to grow their businesses, Access Bank of Nigeria started the Gender Empowerment Program which provides finance, capacity planning, networking, advisory services, and market support to female entrepreneurs. Female entrepreneurs were also able to use d use alternative forms of collateral to obtain financing

such as debentures, bills of sales and jewelry. Since the program was implemented, 680 women have received training and \$37 million has been lent to 550 females entrepreneurs with only one percent in non-performing loans. In addition, Access Bank has opened about 1,600 deposit accounts resulting in a \$10 million increase in deposits.

### Papua New Guinea – Small and Medium Enterprise Access to Finance Project (World Bank)

The Small and Medium Enterprise Access to Finance Project looks to increase the flow of credit to the SME sector, especially women-owned SMEs. The project supports the establishment of a risk-sharing facility to guarantee that participating financial institutions are generating loans and lending and leasing to the SMEs. Participating financial institutions will receive technical assistance to create products for SMES. In addition, the project will develop a training program that emphasizes core financial literacy skills, such as money management, business planning, and marketing skills, and includes mentoring and coaching in order to develop the capacity of SMEs. The training will target SMEs who will be receiving finances from financial institutions participating in the risk-sharing facility.

The project's monitoring framework includes the collection of data on female-owned SMEs, including loans and training received, which will be used in an evaluation to assess the impact of the project on female entrepreneurs.

### Togo – Private Sector Development Project (World Bank)

In order to enhance job creation, the government of Togo has created

51 Mayoux, L., Hartl M., "Gender and rural microfinance: Reaching and empowering women. Guide for practitioners", 2009

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initiatives to develop entrepreneurial capacities of SMEs, particularly those owned by women. In partnership with the World Bank, the government of Togo has signed a \$13 million grant to implement the Private Sector Development Support Project to improve the investment climate to benefit informal, traditional micro-businesses and SMEs. The project has three components—investment climate reforms, development of entrepreneurial capacities and development of a new Free Zone.

A main objective of the project is to reform the current investment infrastructure by implementing and supporting a one-stop shop to register a company and simplify the process of issuance and transfer of land titles. The expected outcome is to decrease the number of days it takes to register a business and to register property, which in turn improves access to finance from formal institutions. In addition, the project will implement Licensed Management Centers to help SMEs with the formalization process at reasonable prices. The project will also provide targeted and practical business training coupled with matching grants and mentoring to informal enterprises. Through this training, participants are encouraged to apply for a matching grant to finance a viable project within their enterprise.

The project will also develop the entrepreneurial capacity for micro, small and medium enterprises through targeted business training, matching grants and mentoring services. The project also supports informal businesses, of which female entrepreneurs make up a large percentage. For these business owners, training is provided on basic accounting skills, marketing and customer relations, and management and negotiation. To complement the

training, small businesses also receive mentoring services where business owners can seek help for managing their business.

### **Rwanda – 10,000 Women (Goldman Sachs)**

The 10,000 Women Project is a Goldman Sachs initiative launched in 2008, constituting a \$100 million commitment to training women globally. The program supports initiatives in 40 countries and includes 80 partners. Currently, 7,000 women have benefited from program's activities and 10,000 are expected to benefit by the end of 2013. In Rwanda, the 10,000 Women program is implemented by the Rwandan government and the School of Finance and Banking, and is overseen by the University of Michigan. To date five cohorts of about 30 women each have been trained in Rwanda. The target beneficiaries are growth-oriented female business owners who can demonstrate financial need to attend a business-based educational program.

The training package consists of nine modules that cover a range of business development topics such as public relations, marketing, management, human resources, negotiations, business plans, and customer care, in addition to other topics. These topics are taught over a six-month period, with training two to four days per week. The program in Rwanda also includes a business plan competition for which the top five award winners receive a \$1,000 prize. This competition is meant to make the program more competitive and motivate participants further. Local and international organizations identify trainees, along with financial institutions. Trainees are able to request post-graduation services, which can include further training on the loan process, mentoring

and gender sensitization training for husbands to see the need for women to be able to use property as collateral.

### **Uganda – Women in Business Program (Development Finance Corporation Uganda & IFC)**

In 2007, Development Finance Corporation Uganda (DFCU) Bank created the Women in Business program to assist women who own SMEs to achieve growth by providing them with business management, financial literacy and traditional loans. In order to address the collateral challenges faced by women in Uganda, DFCU created a land loan, enabling women to purchase property that could eventually be used as collateral for a future business loan. In addition, DFCU created an investment club which served as a savings scheme, allowing female entrepreneurs to raise funds together for future business investments. The funds raised could also be used as collateral for business loans. The program has also introduced a medium term credit facility, Savings and Credit Cooperatives Societies Loan (SACCO). The SACCO registers associations and groups whose members have overcome the start-up phase of business but lack conventional securities needed to secure individual business loans and prefer to borrow through a group approach.

## 5.3 Business and entrepreneurial skills development

Business Development Services are not readily available in many rural areas where there is low population density. Where they do exist, women may not access them due to low literacy,



education, time, cost and mobility constraints or because these services do not serve their specific needs. Women are left to rely on friends and family for management decisions and other support to their businesses.

Lack of training and business education and experience in business management, record keeping, marketing can limit the capacity of rural women entrepreneurs to consolidate sustainable enterprises.

### **Gender gaps are still present in the critical skills needed to run a successful enterprise**

While women are making major strides in terms of educational attainment at primary and secondary levels, they often lack the combination of education, vocational and technical skills and work experience needed to support the

development of highly productive businesses. Male entrepreneurs, for example, are more likely than female entrepreneurs to have been employed in the wage sector prior to starting a business. Female entrepreneurs who were surveyed as part of the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor reported being less confident in having sufficient skills to run a business and were more likely to state that fear of failure prevented them from starting a business.

Information and Communications Technology (ICT) is increasingly providing new opportunities for entrepreneurs to access market information, communicate with customers and provide a new channel for buying and selling products. In particular, the global explosion in mobile technologies in many developing countries has led

to increased and more affordable access to ICTs. However, women face some constraints in accessing ICTs to support their entrepreneurial activities due to low levels of functional literacy.

A study among female fishmongers and fish producers in Dakar, Senegal has shown that the use of mobile phones has introduced significant benefits – a reduction in travel time as suppliers and customers can be contacted without the need for travel, improved contact with clients resulting in increased client loyalty, and, most importantly, improved use of time. The study identified the need for more training in the use of ICTs as some women were unfamiliar with the use of text messages, and, therefore, did not use them.<sup>52</sup>

52 “World Development Report 2012: Gender Equality and Development and Lao PDR Investment Climate Assessment, Policies to Promote Growth in the Non-Resource Sectors.”

## 6. Gender-sensitive monitoring and evaluation indicators

The obstacles to women’s empowerment range from sadly predictable to surprising. Many people are familiar with the gender wage gap where women earn 10 to 30 percent less than men for the same work. Fewer know that women and girls are 16 percent less likely to have access to information communication technologies, such as mobile phones and computers.

The United Nations has done a comprehensive review of the obstacles that women and girls face and proposed key targets to help break down the barriers to gender equality around the world. To make progress against these targets, it is important to recognize that women’s empowerment is not just a social issue, but also an economic one.

The potential global impact of this goal begs the question: How much stronger would the global economy be if 50 percent of the world had better access to financial services, higher salaries to invest, healthier options and more access to higher education?

Improving the collection and analysis of reliable data on rural women’s enterprises to understand their needs and realities and inform policies, including generating better indicators, programme/project evaluations, lessons on what does or does not work and why, and feedback mechanisms is a priority.

Monitoring and evaluation activities that track gender differences can help programmes adjust to reduce inequities, and can highlight the

issues and provide evidence to lobby for legislation on rights.

Being able to measure the impact that agricultural marketing initiatives have on men and women beneficiaries, their families, and communities is important.

### One of the main obstacles to monitoring gender-related outcomes in impact evaluation

studies is often the lack of an adequate sample size, particularly in cross-sectional studies. In a review of studies that assessed the drivers of entrepreneurship, McKenzie and Woodruff (2012) found that several gender-related outcomes did not necessarily show statistical significance, and this was largely due to sample size. In technical terms, the gender-differentiated impact can be determined by inverse power

Table 5.1 Monitoring and Evaluation Indicators for Gender and Agricultural Markets

Indicator	Sources of Verification and Tools
Satisfaction of women and men entrepreneurs with their access to agricultural inputs, training, credit, and markets, measured annually	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Focus groups</li> <li>• Stakeholder interviews</li> </ul>
Number of men and women involved in participatory technology development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Participatory monitoring</li> <li>• Project records</li> <li>• Research organization records</li> </ul>
Active participation of women and men in community-based rural producers’ organizations, including holding leadership roles	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Bank account signatories</li> <li>• Organization minutes</li> <li>• Stakeholder interviews</li> </ul>
Participation by women and men in small business incubators	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Incubator records</li> <li>• Project records</li> </ul>
Number of women and men small farmers trained in entrepreneurial skills and provided with market information to allow them to enter into, and manage, beneficial contract farming arrangements or businesses	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Project records</li> <li>• Training records</li> </ul>
Number of newly registered businesses started per year, disaggregated by gender of owners	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Trade registration records</li> </ul>
Gender of farmers holding supply contracts for contract farming	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Exporter or supermarket records</li> <li>• Sample surveys</li> </ul>
Percentage of women and men among farmers involved in organic, fair trade, or certified marketing schemes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Fair Trade organization records and norms</li> <li>• Sample surveys</li> <li>• Stakeholder interviews</li> </ul>
Percentage of business owners rating their business as “successful,” disaggregated by gender	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Sample surveys</li> </ul>
Change in women’s perceptions of levels of sexual harassment or violence, or need to exchange sex for products (such as fish), experienced before and after program activities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Focus groups</li> <li>• Stakeholder interviews</li> </ul>
Differences in wage and employment conditions, if any, between women and other disadvantaged groups, and men for positions of comparable content and responsibility	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Case studies</li> <li>• Labor audits</li> <li>• Project management information system or administrative records</li> </ul>
Changes in gender of market traders per year	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Market stallholders’ association records</li> </ul>
Changes in access to food markets, before and after infrastructure development by gender	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Household surveys, before and after</li> <li>• Project management information system</li> </ul>
Percentage of women and men extension workers and project staff	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Government agricultural extension and business support services records</li> <li>• Project records</li> </ul>
Satisfaction of women entrepreneurs and workers with access to child care, measured before and after project activities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Focus groups</li> <li>• Stakeholder interviews</li> </ul>
Age of school leaving, disaggregated by gender	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• School records</li> </ul>
Percentage of business women and men in community using computers and Internet, and the frequency of use	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Computer center/Internet café records</li> <li>• Stakeholder interviews</li> </ul>
Percentage of businesses owning motorized or electrical equipment, disaggregated by gender of owners	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Sample survey</li> </ul>
Changes over x-year period of project activities in household nutrition, health, education, vulnerability to violence, and happiness, disaggregated by gender	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Household surveys, before and after</li> <li>• Project management information system</li> <li>• School records</li> </ul>

Source: Authors, with inputs from Pamela White, author of Module 16.



calculations, which would inform a researcher of the smallest possible gender difference they could have distinguished from zero. However, with an appropriate sample size, even these zero results can inform the analysis. For example, if a policy is aimed at a documented gender gap, then a zero result could mean that the intervention failed to address the policy. On the other hand, if the intervention is not aimed at a gender gap, then the result tells us that men and women are affected equally (Halla and Goldstein, 2012). Another sampling issue arises from the fact that female entrepreneurs might represent a rare population in a country. This represents a key issue for firm and individual level surveys which focuses on entrepreneurship. In this case, statisticians might consider oversampling methods to increase the number of observations for female businesses. Where household surveys are conducted, researchers have a greater chance of having an adequate number of observations for male and female businesses, if all the household members are invited to participate. However, the household samples may not be representative of the population of firms, so results cannot be generalized for all the types of firms involved in the economy. In summary, sample size is important to make statements about gender-differentiated impacts with confidence; however, researchers should be careful about generalizing results for representative populations.

### 6.1 Conducting gender-disaggregated value chain analysis

Value chain analysis involves market analysis, chain mapping and stakeholder analysis, identification

of constraints and opportunities for the value chain, and strategic and action plan development. If a value chain is analyzed with gender-disaggregated understanding as an objective, the market study can be utilized to identify current niches in which women are strong, as well as potential ones in which they could compete. In developing value chains, particularly in the poorest and most marginalized areas, all of the links of a value chain may need to be constructed. Partnerships will need to be forged and considerable capacity development undertaken. Other chains may be vestigial, and the opportunities they present will need to be recognized and captured. A gender-sensitive chain and stakeholder analysis should understand the relative position of women already in the chain—including nodes at which they are the primary actors and those where they are actors along with men.

Many standard research tools for mapping value chains can be made gender sensitive; for instance, a gender-sensitive questionnaire can be added to a socioeconomic survey. In other cases new tools may be needed to capture the roles and needs of women across the value chain or in particular segments.

Calculating the value added and profit accruing to each segment of the value chain, as well as calculating employment and labor segmentation by gender, will provide the data necessary to devise interventions that increase the absolute profits reaped by women at each node in the chain.

By doing a value chain gender analysis, gender division of labor is understood in production, processing and marketing and the most appropriate intervention designed

(i.e. technological, human, financial, capacity-building oriented...) as well as interest and power relationships which can explain inequalities and inefficiencies in the chain.

Once the gender dimensions of a value chain are well understood, a thorough market analysis has been performed, and a strategy and action plan have been developed, investment and support can be directed toward developing markets in ways that contribute to gender equity and reduce poverty.

#### Peru: Mapping distributional gains in the thornless artichoke chain

The value chain for thornless artichokes in Peru reveals consistent gender segmentation by occupation, type of activity and level of participation in the chain. Men and women cluster in different occupations, undertake distinct activities in the fields and processing plants and work different hours. The intensity of women's labor increases in processing. Approximately 80% of the labor used in processing activities such as peeling, cutting and deleafing is done by women, whereas men are more involved in activities related in operating and maintaining machinery. Gender gaps are evident throughout the chain. Women working on small and medium-size farms receive about 88% of men's wages. In processing plants, women workers without defined job tenure make 86% of men's wages and those who hold contracts for a specified period make 93% of men's wages. (USAID 2007)

#### Example of Gender-sensitive M&E Framework: The Tanzania Virtual Business Incubator

Implemented by the World Bank in partnership with the Italian Association Women for Development (AIDOS) and the Tanzania Gatsby

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Trust (TGT), the Tanzania Virtual Business Incubator (TVBI) pilot program's objective is to increase the entrepreneurship capacity and incomes of women micro-entrepreneurs through the delivery

of an integrated package of business development services (BDS), including Business Management Training, Technical Skills Training, Product Design and Development (PD&D), Facilitation of Access to

Finance, Coaching/Mentoring, Business Counseling, Marketing Assistance and Promotion, Business Networking.



## The way forward

Research shows that women can make tremendous contributions to business, yet they are typically under-represented in the agricultural sector.

Ensuring women's access to and control over agricultural assets and productive resources is

fundamental for achieving food security and sustainable livelihoods, increasing resilience to climate change, and strengthening women's voice in the family and household. Furthermore, evidence indicates that economic growth has been more sustainable in terms of longer-term structural transformation in countries with smaller gender gaps in education and employment.

Closing the gap in access to land and other agricultural assets requires, among other things, reforming laws to guarantee equal rights, educating government officials and community leaders and holding them accountable for upholding the law and empowering women to ensure that they are aware of their rights and able to claim them.

Improving women's access to agricultural technologies can be facilitated through participatory gender-inclusive research and technology development programmes, the provision of gender sensitive extension services and the scaling up of FFS.

Empowerment of women is a pre-requisite for achieving inclusive growth. The rigidities of some gender-blind policies, institutions, programs, and

projects are perpetuated by the underrepresentation of women as policy makers or their limited participation in policy and institutional change processes.<sup>53</sup> Targeted, women-specific programmes and policies with gender mainstreaming in business development initiatives are needed. When women have greater voice and participation in public administration, public resources are more likely to be allocated towards investments in human development priorities including child health, nutrition and access to employment.

Combined soft and hard investments are crucial for women's economic empowerment. Soft investments include strengthening women's access to and control over productive resources, developing women's capacity to enter markets by improving education and training, and ensuring that more extension workers are women or capable of conducting gender analyses. Hard investments include ensuring that physical infrastructure (processing and storage facilities, roads, energy, ICT, marketplaces) meets women's needs.

Legislation should explicitly prohibit gender discrimination or contain statements of gender equality in relation to self-employment. When discriminatory cultural attitudes are prevalent, affirmative action laws providing fiscal and other incentives for women entrepreneurs need to be adopted. Programs providing necessary services should be developed; and institutional arrangements leading to a more gender-equal access to these

services are needed.

Processes for doing business must be eased. The most important step is to simplify registration and licensing procedures in light of international best practices. Evidence shows that the benefits of this action are sizable for women. For maximum gender impact, reform initiatives should address licensing requirements in those sectors of the economy that predominantly involve women.

Statistics disaggregated by gender should be collected and gender-specific indicators developed to measure the impacts of trade arrangements on men and women.<sup>54</sup>

There is a need to encourage a progressive integration of rural women's businesses into the formal economy by identifying lucrative markets using gender-sensitive value chain analysis and to upgrade clusters/sectors to support the transition of women-led enterprises from informal to formal status. Building the capacity of entrepreneurs' associations to assess market opportunities and prices, with particular focus on potential export or domestic niche markets especially suitable for women will enhance economic growth in society.

Without access to adequate and affordable financing to complement their education and vocational training, budding women entrepreneurs will not be fully equipped to thrive in the agribusiness marketplace. As much as in any other sector, financing and credit are required to form viable farming businesses at all stages of

<sup>53</sup> The World Bank, FAO, IFAD, "Gender in agriculture sourcebook", 2008.

<sup>54</sup> World Bank, FAO, IFAD, "Gender and Agricultural markets". Extracted from Gender in Agriculture. Sourcebook, 2009.

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enterprise development. Access to microfinance should be made available for starting and growing enterprises, while bridging products are needed to address the 'missing middle' – businesses that reach a level of growth beyond the capacity of microfinance. Value chain finance can ultimately help entrepreneurs in growing sustainable businesses.<sup>55</sup>

The evolving ICT landscape is offering women entrepreneur's new opportunities to strengthen their businesses and become more effective. Through mobile phones, electronic platforms and networks, radio, TV, blogs and the Internet, women entrepreneurs are reaching out to customers and building their businesses in ways they could

not do before. Effective use of ICTs is now helping to overcome several challenges that women entrepreneurs in developed and developing countries face.

55 Agriculture for Impact, "Small and Growing: Entrepreneurship in African Agriculture", A Montpellier Panel Report, 2014.



## Glossary

### Access and control

Productive, reproductive and community roles require the use of resources. In general, women and men have different levels of both access (the opportunity to make use of something) to the resources needed for their work, and control (the ability to define its use and impose that definition on others) over those resources.

### Agribusiness and Agro-industry

Agribusiness is a broad concept that covers input suppliers, agro-processors, traders, exporters and retailers. 'Agro-industry' also is a broad concept that refers to the establishment of enterprises and supply chains for developing, transforming and distributing specific inputs and products in the agricultural sector. Both terms refer to commercialization and value addition in the agricultural sector with a focus on pre- and post-production enterprises and building linkages among enterprises.

### Agro-enterprise

A unit of economic organization or activity, especially a private business that operates along the agro-industry value chain.

### Contract farming

An agreement between farmers and processing and/or marketing firms for the production and supply of agricultural products under forward agreements, frequently at predetermined prices.

**Disaggregated Data (Sex):** For a gender analysis, all data should be separated by sex in order to allow differential impacts on men and women to be measured. Sex disaggregated data is quantitative statistical information on differences

and inequalities between women and men. Sex disaggregated data might reveal, for example, quantitative differences between women and men in morbidity and mortality; differences between girls and boys in school attendance, retention and achievement; differences between men and women in access to and repayment of credit; or differences between men and women in voter registration, participation in elections and election to office.

### Discrimination (direct and indirect)

occurs in various forms in everyday life. As defined by the ILO (2003a). Any distinction, exclusion or preference made on the basis of race, colour, sex, religion, political opinion, national extraction or social origin which has the effect of nullifying or impairing equality of opportunity and treatment in employment or occupation is discriminatory. Alongside racial discrimination, gender discrimination can be seen as one major form of discrimination. Discrimination can be distinguished into two forms: direct and indirect. The first form arises if, without being less qualified, certain groups of society are explicitly excluded or disadvantaged by the legal framework due to characteristics such as gender. Indirect discrimination occurs if intrinsically neutral rules or laws negatively affect certain groups, e.g. female workers. Discrimination of part-time workers against full time employees is still present in nearly every country. As a major proportion of part-time workers are female, this disadvantages women as well.

**Discrimination (Gender):** The Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), approved by

the United Nations in 1979, states that "Discrimination against women shall mean distinction, exclusion, or restriction made on the basis of sex which has the purpose of impairing or nullifying the recognition, enjoyment or exercise by women, irrespective of their marital status, on a basis of equality of men and women, of human rights and fundamental freedoms in the political, economic, social, cultural, civil or any other field". It refers to any distinction, exclusion or restriction made on the basis of socially constructed gender roles and norms, which prevents a person from enjoying full human rights.

**Domestic Work:** Work done primarily to maintain households. Domestic includes the provision of food and other necessities, cleaning, caring for children and the sick and elderly, etc. Domestic work is mostly performed by women and is therefore poorly valued in social and economic terms.

### Empowerment

A series of processes and changes whereby women and men's agency is expanded, i.e. the processes by which the capacity to make strategic life choices and exert influence is acquired by those who have so far been denied it. Empowerment implies an expansion in women's ability to make strategic life choices in a context where this ability was previously denied to them. In most cases the empowerment of women requires transformation of the division of labour and of society.

### Entrepreneurs

Are defined as persons aged 15 years and older who work in their own business, farm or professional practice to make a profit, and spend time on the operation of a business,

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or are in the process of setting up a business. These entrepreneurs consider the running of their enterprises to be their main activity.

A distinction is made between solo entrepreneurs and employers. Solo entrepreneurs are persons who operate their own economic enterprise, or engage independently in a profession or trade. They do not hire employees nor are family workers or volunteers active in their enterprise. Solo entrepreneurs are also known as own account workers.<sup>6</sup> Employers are persons who operate their own economic enterprise, or engage independently in a profession or trade. They employ one or more persons and/or family workers.

### Gender

The term gender refers to culturally based expectations of the roles and behaviours of men and women. The term distinguishes the socially constructed from the biologically determined aspects of being male and female. Unlike the biology of sex, gender roles and behaviours and the relations between women and men (gender relations) can change over time, even if aspects of these roles originated in the biological differences between sexes.

**Gender Awareness:** Is an understanding that there are socially determined differences between women & men based on learned behaviour, which affect their ability to access and control resources. This awareness needs to be applied through gender analysis into projects, programs and policies.

**Gender Division of Labour:** The “gender [or “sexual”] division of labour” refers to the allocation of different jobs or types of work to men and women, usually by tradition and custom. In feminist economics, the institutional rules, norms and practices which govern the allocation

of tasks between men and women, girls and boys, also constitute the gender division of labour, which is seen as variable over time and space and constantly under negotiation. Unequal gender division of labour refers to a gender division of labour where there is an unequal gender division of reward. Discrimination against women in this sense means that women are likely to get most of the burden of labour, and most of the unpaid labour, whereas men collect most of the income and rewards resulting from the labour. In many countries, the most obvious pattern in the gender division of labour is that women are mostly confined to unpaid domestic work and unpaid food production, while men dominate in cash crop production and wage employment.

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### Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM)

Developed by the UN system in 1995, GEM is a tool to use in developing and applying gender equality indicators in your programmes. It is annually updated. It provides a trends tracking mechanism for comparison between countries as well as for one country over time.

GEM uses a three-step calculation process:

### Gender equality

Gender equality between women and men refers to the equal rights, responsibilities and opportunities of women and men and girls and boys. Equality does not mean that women and men will become the same but that women’s and men’s rights, responsibilities and opportunities will not depend on whether they are born male or female. Gender equality implies that the interests, needs and priorities of both women and men are taken into consideration recognising the diversity of different groups of women and men. Gender equality is not a women’s issue but should concern and fully engage men as well as women. Equality between women and men is seen both as a human rights issue and as a precondition for, and indicator of, sustainable people-centred development.

### Gender in Development (GID)

The GID or Gender in Development perspective emerged in the late 1980’s as an alternative to the prevailing Women in Development or WID approach. Unlike WID, which focused on women only, and called for their integration into development as producers and workers, GID focuses on the interdependence of men and women in society and on the unequal relations of power between them. The GID approach aims for a development process that transforms



gender relations in order to enable women to participate on an equal basis with men in determining their common future. The GID approach emphasises the importance of women's collective organisation for self empowerment.

### Gender equity

Gender equity means fairness of treatment for women and men, according to their respective needs. This may include equal treatment or treatment that is different but which is considered equivalent in terms of rights, benefits, obligations and opportunities. In the development context, a gender equity goal often requires built-in measures to compensate for the historical and social disadvantages of women. Equity is a means. Equality is the result.

### Gender mainstreaming

Gender mainstreaming is the process by which reducing the gaps in development opportunities between women and men and working towards equality between them become an integral part of an organisation's strategy, policies and operations, and the focus of continued efforts to achieve excellence.

**Gender Policies:** Gender policies are divided into three categories depending on the extent to which they recognize and address gender issues.

**Gender-aware policies:** Gender-aware policies recognise that women as well as men are actors in development and that they are often constrained in a different way to men. Their needs, interests and priorities may differ and at times conflict. Gender aware-policies can be sub-divided into two policy types: Gender-neutral policies approaches use the knowledge of gender differences in a given context to target and meet

the practical needs of both women and men. Gender-neutral policies do not disturb existing gender relations. Gender-specific policies use the knowledge of gender differences in a given situation to respond to the practical gender needs of either women or men. These policies do not address the existing division of resources and responsibilities.

### Gender Pay Gap

The percentage difference between the median hour by earnings of men and women, excluding overtime payments. The causes of the gender pay gap are complex - key factors include: human capital differences: i.e. differences in educational levels and work experience; part-time working; travel patterns and occupational segregation. Other factors include: job grading practices, appraisal systems, and pay discrimination.

### Gender Planning

Refers to the process of planning developmental programs and projects that are gender sensitive and which take into account the impact of differing gender roles and gender needs of women and men in the target community or sector. It involves the selection of appropriate approaches to address not only women and men's practical needs, but also identifies entry points for challenging unequal relations (i.e., strategic needs) and for enhancing the gender-responsiveness of policy dialogue.

### Gender relations

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

socially determined, culturally based, and historically specific.

### Gender roles

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

### Gender-Sensitive Budgets

Or 'women's budgets,' refers to a variety of processes and tools, which attempt to assess the impact of government budgets, mainly at national level, on different groups of men and women, through recognising the ways in which gender relations underpin society and the economy. Gender or women's budget initiatives are not separate budgets for women. They include analysis of gender targeted allocations (e.g. special programs targeting women); they disaggregate by gender the impact of mainstream expenditures across all sectors and services; and they review equal opportunities policies and allocations within government services.

### Literacy Gender Parity Index (GPI)

The GPI is the ratio of the female to male adult literacy rates which measures progress towards gender equity in literacy and the level of learning opportunities available for women in relation to those available to men. It serves also as a significant indicator of the empowerment of women in society.

**Norms and Institutions** are the "rules of the game" or the organizational and social systems that govern activities and mediate relations

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between individuals and their social and economic environment. Norms and institutions influence how resources are distributed and used. Norms include gender defined roles, taboos, prohibitions and expectations such as whether or not it is appropriate for women to be in public spaces, hold certain types of jobs, or manage money. Institutions include legal and policy structures, economic systems, market structures, marriage, inheritance and education systems.

**Power** represents the ability of women to control and share in resource use. The idea of “power “is at the root of the term empowerment.

**Rural women** represent the female population living in rural areas. Rural areas are described as “geographic area that is defined by the following criteria: small number of population or low density of population; specific socio economic characteristics.”

### Resources

Are the building blocks women can draw on to succeed economically or to exercise power and agency. Resources can be at the individual or community level. They are more than financial or monetary in nature, and include: Human capital (e.g., education, skills, training); Financial capital (e.g., loans, savings); Social capital (e.g., networks, mentors); Physical capital (e.g., land, machinery).

### Sex

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

### SMEs

Small and medium enterprises are companies whose headcount or turnover falls below certain limits. Size thresholds and the legal definition of an SME can vary according to the sector of economic activity and country.

### Well-being

A state of being with others, where human needs are met, where one can act meaningfully to pursue one’s goals, and where one enjoys a satisfactory quality of life.

### Women’s economic empowerment

A woman is economically empowered when she has both the ability to succeed and advance economically and the power to make and act on economic decisions. To succeed and advance economically, women need the skills and resources to compete in markets, as well as fair and equal access to economic institutions. To have the power and agency to benefit from economic activities, women need to have the ability to make and act on decisions and control resources and profits.

### Women’s empowerment

Is about the process by which women that have been denied the ability to make strategic life choices acquire such ability. The ability to exercise choice incorporates three interrelated dimensions: resources (defined broadly to include not only access, but also future claims, to both material and human and social resources); agency (including processes of decision-making as well as less measurable manifestations of agency such as negotiations); and achievements (well-being outcomes).

### Women’s Studies

By focusing on the extent to which traditional questions, theories and

analyses have failed to take gender into account, Women’s Studies (as a field) adopts scholarly and critical perspective toward the experiences of women. The objectives of Women’s Studies include:

- Finding out about women by raising new questions and accepting women’s perceptions and experiences as real and significant;
- Correcting misconceptions about women and identifying ways in which traditional methodologies may distort our knowledge;
- Theorizing about the place of women in society and appropriate strategies for change;
- Examining the diversity of women’s experiences and the ways in which class, race, sexual orientation and other variables intersect with gender. Although studying women is its starting point, by uncovering the ways in which social and cultural assumptions and structures are shaped by gender, Women’s Studies also studies men and the world around us. It is interdisciplinary, integrating insights from many different experiences and perspectives. Drawing from scholarly work within nearly every academic discipline as well as from the work of “grassroots” feminism, Women’s Studies has its own distinctive, evolving theories and methodologies.

*Source: AWID, Feminism and Women’s Studies, IFAD, ILO, UNDP, UNICEF, UNIDO, World Bank*



## Acronyms

ADB	Asian Development Bank
AfDB	African Development Bank
ASP	The Agriculture Support Programme in Zambia
AWARD	African Women in Agricultural Research and Development
AWLAE	African Women Leaders in Agriculture and Environment
B2B	Business to business
CANROP	Caribbean Network of Rural Women Producers
CBI/CBTPA	Caribbean Basin Initiative/Caribbean Basin Trade Partnership
CBO	Community-based organization
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women
CGA	Country gender assessment
CGIAR	Consultative Group on International Agricultural Research
CID-JAP	Catholic Institute for Development Justice And Peace
CSR	Corporate Social Responsibility
CSW	UN Commission on the Status of Women
DAC	Development Assistance Committee
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization
FDI	Foreign Direct investment
EAP	East Asia and the Pacific
ECA	Europe and Central Asia
ECLAC	Economic Commission of Latin America and the Caribbean
FfD3	The Third International Conference on Financing for Development
FI	Financial Institutions
FIG	IFC's Financial Institutions Group
GADN	The Gender and Development Network
GAL	Gender in Agricultural Livelihoods
GAP	Gender Action Partnership
GBI	Gender budget initiative
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GIZ	German International Cooperation Agency
GNI	Gross national income
GSP	Generalized System of Preferences
GVC	Global Value Chains
HACCP	Hazard Analysis & Critical Control Points

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IADB	Inter-American Development Bank
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
ICRW	International Center for Research on Women
IDRC	International Development Research Centre
IDS	Institute of Development Studies
IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development
IFC	International Finance Corporation
IFPRI	International Food Policy Research Institute
IICA	Inter-American Institute for Cooperation on Agriculture
IISD	International Institute for Sustainable Development
ILO	International Labour Organization
INSTRAW	International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women
ISO	International Organization for Standardization
IT	Information Technology
ITC	International Trade Center
LAC	Latin America and the Caribbean
M&E	monitoring and evaluation
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
MENA	Middle East and North Africa
MFI	Microfinance institution
MSE	Micro and Small Enterprise
MSME	Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises
NEPAD	The New Partnership for Africa's Development
NGO	Nongovernmental Organization
OECD	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
OECD/DAC	Development Assistance Committee of the OECD
OPHI	Oxford Poverty & Human Development Initiative
OSAGI	Office of the Special Adviser on Gender Issues and Advancement of Women
PACFAW	Pacific Foundation for the Advancement of Women
PAWO-SARO	The Pan Africa Women Organisation of Southern Africa
P4P	Purchase for Progress
PtoP	From Protection to Production programme
R&D	Research and Development
RIGA	Rural Income Generating Activities
RWEE	The Rural Women's Rural Economic Empowerment
SA	South Asia
SDG	Sustainable development goals



SEWA	Self Employed Women's Association
SIGI	Social Institutions and Gender Inequality
SME	small and medium-sized enterprises
SSA	Sub Saharan Africa
UNCTAD	United Nations Conference on Trade and Development
UNDAW	United Nations Division for the Advancement of Women
UNDHR	Universal Declaration on Human Rights
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNEP	United Nations Environment Programme
UNIDO	United Nations Industrial Development Organization
UNIFEM	United Nations Development Fund for Women
UNWTO	The United Nations World Tourism Organization
WEAI	The Women's Empowerment in Agriculture Index
WEDGE	Women's Entrepreneurship Development and Gender Equality
WEDP	Women Entrepreneurship Development Project
WID	Women in Development
WFP	World Food Programme
WHO	World Health Organization
WIEGO	Women in Informal Employment: Globalizing and Organizing
WID	Women in Development
WOUGNET	Women of Uganda Network
WWG	Women Working Group on Financing for Development

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European Commission-Europe Aid  
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[http://ec.europa.eu/europeaid/general\\_en](http://ec.europa.eu/europeaid/general_en)

European Commission- Directo-  
rate-General for Agriculture and  
Rural Development  
[http://ec.europa.eu/dgs/agriculture/in-  
dex\\_en.htm](http://ec.europa.eu/dgs/agriculture/in-<br/>dex_en.htm)

CTA  
<http://www.cta.int/>

Spore  
<http://spore.cta.int/>

### International Organisations

The Centre for the Development of  
Enterprise (CDE)  
<https://www.cde.int/en/about>

Economic Commission for Latin  
America and the Caribbean (ECLAC)  
[http://www.cepal.org/12conferenciamujer/  
default.asp?idioma=IN](http://www.cepal.org/12conferenciamujer/<br/>default.asp?idioma=IN)

FAO  
<http://www.fao.org/home/en/>

FAO- Agricultural Development Eco-  
nomics  
[http://www.fao.org/economic/esa/esa-  
home/en/#.Va9iNvkYHTo](http://www.fao.org/economic/esa/esa-<br/>home/en/#.Va9iNvkYHTo)

IFAD  
<http://www.ifad.org/>

International Finance Corporation  
(IFC)  
[http://www.ifc.org/wps/wcm/connect/  
Topics\\_Ext\\_Content/IFC\\_External\\_Corpo-  
rate\\_Site/Gender+at+IFC](http://www.ifc.org/wps/wcm/connect/<br/>Topics_Ext_Content/IFC_External_Corpo-<br/>rate_Site/Gender+at+IFC)

IFPRI - Gender  
<http://www.ifpri.org/topic/gender>

ILO - Women's Entrepreneurship  
Development  
[http://www.ilo.org/empent/areas/  
womens-entrepreneurship-develo-  
ment-wed/lang--en/index.htm](http://www.ilo.org/empent/areas/<br/>womens-entrepreneurship-develo-<br/>ment-wed/lang--en/index.htm)

NEPAD  
<http://www.nepad.org/>

Pacific Islands Forum Secretariat  
<http://www.forumsec.org/>

UN Women  
<http://www.unwomen.org/en>

United Nations Development Fund  
for Women (UNIFEM)  
[http://orgs.tigweb.org/united-nations-de-  
velopment-fund-for-women-unifem](http://orgs.tigweb.org/united-nations-de-<br/>velopment-fund-for-women-unifem)

UN Women Asia and Pacific  
[http://asiapaci\\_c.unwomen.org/en](http://asiapaci_c.unwomen.org/en)

World Food Programme, Purchase  
for Progress  
<https://www.wfp.org/purchase-progress/>

The World Bank  
<http://www.worldbank.org/>

The World Bank-InfoDev  
[http://www.infodev.org/highlights/gen-  
der-agriculture-sourcebook](http://www.infodev.org/highlights/gen-<br/>der-agriculture-sourcebook)

### Government's initiatives

Feed the Future  
<http://www.feedthefuture.gov/>

NGOs, Think Tank, Foundations and  
Networks

Action Aid  
[http://www.actionaid.org/what-we-do/wo-  
mens-rights](http://www.actionaid.org/what-we-do/wo-<br/>mens-rights)

AWID  
<http://www.awid.org/>

AWARD  
<http://www.awardfellowships.org/about-us>

BRIDGE  
[http://www.bridge.ids.ac.uk/global-re-  
sources](http://www.bridge.ids.ac.uk/global-re-<br/>sources)

CARE  
[http://www.care.org/work/womens-em-  
powerment](http://www.care.org/work/womens-em-<br/>powerment)

CANROP  
[http://www.agricarib.org/carib-  
bean-network-rural-women-produ-  
cers-canrop](http://www.agricarib.org/carib-<br/>bean-network-rural-women-produ-<br/>cers-canrop)

Eldis - Gender  
[http://www.eldis.org/go/topics/re-  
source-guides/agriculture-and-food/  
food-security-and-gender/gender-agricul-  
ture-and-food-security#.VazO3vmqHw](http://www.eldis.org/go/topics/re-<br/>source-guides/agriculture-and-food/<br/>food-security-and-gender/gender-agricul-<br/>ture-and-food-security#.VazO3vmqHw)

GADN  
<http://gadnetwork.org/>

IPPF  
<http://www.ippf.org/>

Oxfam - Women's empowerment  
[https://www.oxfam.org/en/tags/wo-  
mens-empowerment](https://www.oxfam.org/en/tags/wo-<br/>mens-empowerment)

PSI  
[http://www.world-psi.org/en/publica-  
tions-research](http://www.world-psi.org/en/publica-<br/>tions-research)

The Bill and Melinda Gates  
Foundation  
[http://www.gatesfoundation.org/  
What-We-Do/Global-Development/  
Agricultural-Development/Creating-Gen-  
der-Responsive-Agricultural-Develop-  
ment-Programs](http://www.gatesfoundation.org/<br/>What-We-Do/Global-Development/<br/>Agricultural-Development/Creating-Gen-<br/>der-Responsive-Agricultural-Develop-<br/>ment-Programs)

WEAI  
[http://feedthefuture.gov/lp/womens-em-  
powerment-agriculture-index](http://feedthefuture.gov/lp/womens-em-<br/>powerment-agriculture-index)

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Women Working Group on Financing  
for Development  
<http://wgonffd.org/>

### Research organizations

African Women in Agricultural Re-  
search and Development (AWARD)  
<http://www.awardfellowships.org/>

Brooks World Poverty Institute  
<http://www.bwpi.manchester.ac.uk/research/>

ICRW  
<http://www.icrw.org/>

IFPRI-Gender  
<http://www.ifpri.org/topic/gender>

ODI  
<http://www.odi.org/>

OPHI  
<http://www.ophi.org.uk/about/>

IDS  
<http://www.ids.ac.uk/>



# BRUSSELS RURAL DEVELOPMENT BRIEFINGS

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