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Sida Evaluation

Cathy Rozel
Farnworth

Gender Aware Approaches in Agricultural Programmes

A Study of Sida-supported Agricultural
Programmes



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The views and interpretations expressed in this report are those of the authors' and do not necessarily reflect those of the Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency, Sida.

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Foreword

Women are farmers. In many developing countries they do a larger share of the farm work than do men. This fact is well known, but how well is it reflected in the way development assistance in agriculture is carried out? In response to persistent gender inequalities in farming, despite decades of development assistance, Team Agriculture, Forestry and Food Security at Sida Headquarters initiated this thematic evaluation in cooperation with the Secretariat for Evaluation and Team Gender Equality. The purpose is to increase understanding of how Sida's development assistance in agriculture should be designed and implemented to ensure that women farmers are reached, that their needs as producers are met, and that it has a positive impact on their livelihoods. The programmes studied are the Agriculture Support Programme (ASP) in Zambia, the Sida Amhara Rural Development Programme (SARDP III) in Ethiopia, the Agriculture Development Programme (ProAgri II) in Mozambique, the Agricultural Development Fund (FondeAgro) in Nicaragua, and the National Agriculture and Livestock Extension Programme (NALEP II) in Kenya. The programmes were selected as they represent five of the major Sida supported programmes in agriculture. All programmes have been ongoing for a number of years, are well established and in general considered successful. Apart from the obvious differences in country context, they differ from each other in other important aspects including focus, approach, implementation mechanism, content and funding modality. The report does not aim to make full comparisons between the programmes, but is looking for programme specific approaches to successfully involve women farmers in the programmes. It draws upon Country Reports to provide illustrative experience rather than comprehensive accounts of the work of each programme.

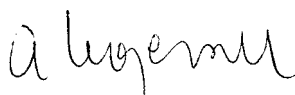
There are a number of mutually supportive documents to this report. An International Literature Review (UTV Working Paper 2010:3) examines other development agencies experiences in involving women in agricultural programmes. Five Country Reports (UTV Working Paper 2010:4–8) provide a wealth of detail and anal-

ysis of each programme. They contain the original fieldwork data upon which this report is built. Copies can be obtained from the Sida website at www.Sida.se/publications for downloading. The current report complements the recently published study *Gender Equality in Swedish Development Cooperation (Sida Evaluation 2010:1)*.

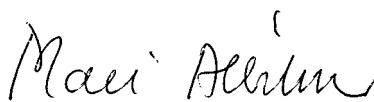
The Evaluation was conducted by an independent consultant consortium – AFC Consultants International GmbH and AVEDIS Social Development Consultants, Germany. On behalf of the steering group for the evaluation we would like to express our appreciation to the AFC/AVEDIS team and in particular to the team leader and deputy team leader Dr Cathy Rozel Farnworth and Dr Ambra Gallina respectively. We would also like to express our appreciation to everyone who have contributed to the evaluation, including programme staff in countries and in Stockholm and men and women farmers who generously took time to provide their own perspectives on their situation on programme implementation and outcomes.



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This report relies upon the work of many people. Ambra Gallina, Deputy Team Leader to the study, conducted fieldwork in Mozambique and Nicaragua and prepared two Country Reports based on her findings. The current study uses much of this material. Furthermore, Ambra was always ready to consider and discuss the findings and conclusions of all the research, and to provide substantial comments upon the various forms of this report. She was also tremendous fun. Grazie mille, Ambra!

The Country Research Officers were critical to the entire study. They spoke the national and local languages, had deep experience of gender in agriculture issues, and, as experts in facilitation, were able to help ensure wide-ranging discussions. They also co-wrote the Country Reports upon which this report is based. A huge thank you to Monica Munachonga and Vincent Akamandisa in Zambia, Tamene Hailegeorgis Gutema in Ethiopia, Marceline Obuya in Kenya, Lola Olan in Nicaragua and Catarina Chidiamassamba in Mozambique.

In each country, staff at the headquarters of ministries of agriculture were always ready to answer challenging questions. Province, district and field level extension staff were extremely open and willing to share their triumphs and their difficulties with us. The staff of the implementing agencies concerned, ORGUT Consulting AB and Ramboll Natura AB, were very helpful in providing the research team with the necessary background papers and information. Sida headquarters staff, including former programme directors and members of the Gender Policy Team, among other kind people, always had time to meet and share lessons and thoughts. To you all, thank you so very much.

I acknowledge with deep thanks the open approach adopted by staff of the Embassy of Sweden, or its representatives, in each country and in particular their willingness to discuss the basic research questions, and later the findings. We also benefited greatly from our discussions with representatives from other organizations. The aim

of our discussions was to learn how other agencies are tackling the same issues, and thus have comparative data as well as food for thought.

Anita Ingevall and Lars Johansson from Sida, who commissioned the study, provided the research team with superb, critical and challenging guidance and ensured a staged learning process which helped the research team to develop a good understanding of how Sida works. Thank you so much. I also thank staff at the AFC-AVE-DIS Consortium, Dagmar Wittine, Alexander Erich and Alexa Mrozik, for their considerable assistance over the past few months.

Finally, a gigantic thank you and a huge tribute to all the farmers we met who took time out from their lives to talk, to share, to reflect and to help us understand.

The names of people met and worked with are provided in Annex 3.

Thank you.

*Cathy Rozel Farnworth,
May 6th 2010*

Acronyms

Programme Acronyms

ASP	Agricultural Support Programme (Zambia)
FondeAgro	Fondo de Desarrollo Agropecuario – Agricultural Development Fund (Nicaragua)
NALEP II	National Agriculture and Livestock Extension Programme (Kenya)
ProAgri II	Programa Nacional de Desenvolvimento Agrário – National Agriculture Development Programme (Mozambique)
SARDP III	Sida-Amhara Rural Development Programme (Ethiopia)

Other Acronyms

BBS	Broad-Based Survey
CAP	Community Action Plan
CIG	Common Interest Group
DANIDA	Ministry of Foreign Affairs in Denmark
EEOA	Economic Expansion of Outlying Areas
FADC	Focal Area Development Committee
FFS	Farmer Field School
GFP	Gender Focal Point
GIDD	Gender in Development Division (Zambia)
GoK	Government of Kenya
GTZ	Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit GmbH
IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development
MACO	Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives (Zambia)
MAGFOR	Ministry of Agriculture (Nicaragua)
MinAg	Ministry of Agriculture (Mozambique)
MoU	Memorandum of Understanding
NSWCP	National Soil and Water Conservation Programme (Kenya)

NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
Norad	Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation
PAPOLD	Participatory Analysis of Poverty and Livelihood Dynamics
PARPA	Plano de Acção para a Redução da Pobreza Absoluta – Action Plan for the Reduction of Absolute Poverty (Mozambique)
PSC	Project Steering Committee
SWAp	Sector-Wide Approach
ToR	Terms of Reference
WB	World Bank
WID	Women in Development
WAB	Women's Affairs Bureau (Ethiopia)
Definitions	
kebele	Lowest administration level in the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia
patio	Homestead garden
woreda	Fourth administration level in the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia (followed by kebele and preceded by zone, region, nation)

Executive Summary

Concern about the ability of the world's ecosystems to continue supporting human life on earth is resulting in a renewed attentiveness to agriculture and its multi-functional character. In 2008 alone three major publications reported on the need to focus policy attention on food and farming. These were the *Gender in Agriculture Sourcebook*¹, *The World Development Report: Agriculture for Development*² and the *International Assessment of Agricultural Science and Technology for Development* (one global and five sub-global reports³).

One finding of all three reports, supported by decades of research, is that gender in agriculture matters, from both an efficiency and equality point of view. The efficiency point of view notes that gender inequalities in access to, and control over, productive resources results in poorer agricultural and human development outcomes. A World Bank study conducted in Burkina Faso, Kenya, Zambia and Tanzania showed that providing women farmers with the same quantity and quality of inputs that men typically receive – such as fertiliser, land and labour, and improving their access to agricultural education – could increase national agricultural output and incomes by an estimated 10–20% in each country (World Bank, 2005). The equality point of view notes that gender equality is a basic human right, one that has value in and of itself.

The starting point from both the efficiency and equality points of view is that women are the majority of farmers in many countries. However, ministries of agriculture, and development agencies, continue to develop and implement gender-insensitive programmes that fail to tackle the structural constraints to women's full participation in agricultural development, and continue to marginalize women farmers from discussion processes in food and farming. The male farmer remains the conceptual norm, however outmoded this may be in terms of the relative numbers of women and men in farming, and in terms of what men and women actually do upon the farm.

1 Permanent URL for this page: <http://go.worldbank.org/YQ4LDN9AB0>

2 Permanent URL for this page: <http://go.worldbank.org/ZJIAOSUFU0>

3 Permanent URL for this page: www.agassessment.org

Studies show that resources and incomes controlled by women are more likely to be used to improve family food consumption and welfare, reduce child malnutrition, and increase the overall well-being of the family (Brown et al., 2006). However, the argument should be made that in some situations men need to be strengthened in their roles as providers of household food security and well-being in order to reduce the burden of responsibility upon women, and to strengthen overall household livelihood strategies. Although policy makers may by default consider men to be farmers, reality has sprung way ahead. In many countries, men are walking away from farming, particularly when it seems ‘unprofitable’. The *‘feminization of farming’*⁴ is resulting in new opportunities as well as exploitative relations for women, such as low-waged work in horticultural supply chains (Barrientos, 2001).

A gendered approach to supporting farming livelihoods maps and analyses women and men’s livelihood strategies. It tackles gendered constraints in a given situation, and seeks to develop opportunities to ensure that both women and men maximize their work potential and benefit equally. Not only adults are considered: children are involved in a process that views farmers as managers, and future managers, of their farm, rather than beneficiaries of development aid. Measures to ensure farm resilience are critical; for this attention to environmental issues and handling the likely outcomes of climate change is required.

OVERALL FINDINGS OF THE THEMATIC EVALUATION

According to the ToR (Annex 1) the overall objective of this thematic evaluation is to *‘increase understanding of how development assistance in agriculture should be designed, implemented and funded to ensure that female farmers are reached, that their needs as producers are met, and that they are able to benefit from the support to achieve a positive impact on their livelihoods’*. The overall objective of ‘increasing understanding’ has only been partially met because the quality and consistency of programme experience and data on reaching and meeting the needs of women farmers is patchy.

4 A range of scholarly articles on the phenomenon of the ‘feminization of agriculture’ have been produced. A good overview is provided by Lastarria-Cornhiel, 2008

Indeed, in answer to one of the questions guiding this study: to *what extent has Sida's gender policy been translated effectively into development programming in the agricultural sector in the five selected countries?* the answer is that it has not. Whilst all programmes initiated activities directed to involving women, in no programme was gender mainstreamed across all components. In no programme did gender equity form a leading goal, and no programme prepared a coherent gender mainstreaming strategy aimed at implementing gender equity as a means of achieving better agricultural outcomes.

The achievement of *gender equity* means that both women and men have fair and equal chances to be actors in, and benefit from, the programme. Equity does not mean that people are treated equally, rather, it suggests that special location-specific mechanisms need to be devised to help overcome historic gender disadvantage. A strategy for gender equity describes the process that is required to achieve this goal.

The lack of a gender mainstreaming strategy is an important deficit for two reasons. First and foremost, tackling gender discrimination in agricultural practice demands the creation and implementation of measures that tackle head on the situation-specific institutional arrangements that systemically discriminate against women. Such arrangements, such as unequal access to land, machinery and sources of information, act to weaken the performance of women farmers and demonstrably damage the national performance of those countries where female participation in agriculture is high.

Secondly, given that gender mainstreaming was not a priority for any programme, it was not possible to properly examine the impact of involving women upon agricultural production and productivity in any of the programmes studied. This means that a second overarching question could not be convincingly tackled: to what extent has the work of programmes on involving female farmers impacted upon overall agricultural outcomes? Answering this question demands the creation of situation-specific evidence-based data that could help programme design teams work to trace, and then strengthen, proven trajectories between female participation and better outcomes, thus meeting gender efficiency agendas. Only the Agricultural Support Programme (ASP) in Zambia provides some evidence that fully involving women does indeed result in increased production, productivity and overall farm resilience, and the methodology employed, the Household approach, explains why.

MAIN THEMATIC FINDINGS

Despite the lack of gender mainstreaming strategies, the programmes studied did achieve significant benefits for women farmers. Partially at least, all the programmes ensured that their needs as producers are met and they are able to benefit from the support to achieve a positive impact on their livelihoods. Some findings are outlined below. For a fuller account and recommendations please turn to Chapter 7.

Extension

- Extension takes place in complex environments structured a priori by gender relations. This affects the ability of extension staff to deliver their messages effectively. Conceptualizing extension as a technical, value-free activity is seriously mistaken.
- When extension services work with the whole household, rather than with individuals in that household, the whole farm is strengthened as a productive enterprise. This is because the systemic interdependence of women and men's work is explicitly recognized and strengthened.
- Given that many community-level dialogue processes are male-dominated, women often request women-only spaces to strengthen their voice and learn effectively. Well-managed groups help women build supportive information exchange networks and to become locally recognized as 'people of knowledge'.
- Empowerment gains are more likely when extension providers and farmers co-create their learning platforms. Recognizing and alleviating constraints to learning, such as illiteracy and lack of time, help women to develop their abilities.
- There is a long way to go before there are sufficient numbers of female extension workers to meet demand. Innovative strategies are therefore needed.
- Gender sensitization of extension staff has to be dramatically improved if they are to be equipped not only to understand, but challenge and work around gender inequalities.
- At the higher levels, ministry of agriculture staff require sex-disaggregated data and the arguments for gender mainstreaming. Departments need dedicated budgets, training and to be accountable for gender outcomes.

Access to, and Control Over, Assets

Land tenure reform was not closely examined in this report due to other Sida work on this topic. Two of the programmes studied do focus on ensuring that women obtain legal land title. Apart from these ‘flagship’ achievements, little work is being done to ensure that women in general, and the most poor in particular, improve their access to, and control over, assets of various kinds.

Interventions are needed that focus on building an asset base for female-headed households, and also for poor women and men in general. Such people need improved access to service providers such as micro-credit and insurance providers. These providers need to be tailored to the needs of the most poor.

Further research is required into other culturally appropriate methods of strengthening female access to, and control over, productive and household resources to enable them to live securely in the case of separation or death of the male partner.

Resources need to be developed that meet women’s practical gender needs, such as women-friendly agricultural tools, water sources located close to homes, and improved cookstoves. This will help to ensure that women are not ‘overloaded’ with reproductive tasks and thus unable to take up extension activities designed to enhance their productive work. Meeting women’s practical needs should be accompanied by processes that encourage men to share reproductive tasks.

Food Security

Despite the critical importance of food security to farmer livelihoods, only one programme worked to ensure food security using internationally agreed standards for calorific intake. The same programme also succeeded in ensuring that men as much as women are responsible for food security, thus spreading the burden of responsibility. These achievements should be emulated by all programmes.

With respect to improving household nutritional practice, good work is being conducted with respect to the needs of people living with HIV/Aids by several of the programmes. However, no programme addresses gendered biases in food distribution, which favour men when protein foods are being distributed.

Markets

The ability of the programmes to involve women in marketing chains is generally weak, though most programmes have well-developed marketing components. This can be attributed to a lack of understanding on how to recognize and alleviate the gender-specific constraints facing women attempting to access markets.

MAIN RECOMMENDATIONS

The main recommendations for programmes and for Sida are outlined below. More detailed recommendations can be found in Chapter 7:

Recommendations for the programmes

- At the national level, it is necessary to consolidate the gender experience of each programme, and then to act.
- Sex-disaggregated data on the target groups is critical.
- Each programme needs to develop an iterative knowledge management strategy to handle data and institutionalize learning.
- As part of the knowledge management strategy, understanding needs to be developed of whether there are reciprocal links between an intervention at one level and an outcome at another.
- Special attention needs to be paid to ensuring food security and equitable market development.

Recommendations for Sida: government dialogue processes

- Sida needs to consider a range of different aid modalities when supporting agricultural development. If project-based programmes are supported, this should be with an eye to upscaling and outscaling from the very beginning. Knowledge management systems need to include government. Entry points for donor dialogue in programme based approaches must be carefully identified and followed up.

Recommendations for Sida headquarters

- The Gender Policy Team, and staff more widely, need a clearer operational mandate from Sida's management.
- The ability of the Sida Gender Policy Team at headquarters to respond to the needs of technical programmes should be enhanced. Its institutional understanding of gender in agriculture issues should be strengthened.

1. Selected Concepts, Study Questions, Methodology and Report Structure

1.1. SELECTED CONCEPTS

The concept of agency, defined as the ability to define one's goals and act upon them, is critical to the ability of women and men to take rational decisions in farming, as well as to wider empowerment agendas. Effective agency is closely linked to resources (or assets), for without resources it is often impossible to realize a goal. However, women worldwide have much less access to, or decision-making power over, critical productive resources such as land, machinery, or money, than do men. This is so even if the household as a whole possesses such resources. Unequal access to resources can mean less effective farming outcomes because the use value of these resources is not maximized.

As a consequence of unequal gender relations, the assets that women do control tend to have weak income generation potential, for example, small livestock and kitchen equipment, firewood and savings. Typically, assets managed by women depend on the ability to access and maintain social capital, such as merry go rounds. Poor women can be excluded from such savings clubs as marginally wealthier women fear they may default, thus harming the whole concept of mutual guarantee. Typically, assets controlled by men are high value and contribute more directly to farm productivity, such as land, education and farming technologies. The access of women to high value productive resources is generated through male kin in many cases and can be withdrawn in the event of marital breakdown or death of the husband. In such cases, some women may end up living on the very margins of society. To avoid this, they may accept being inherited as wives by kin to their husband in some countries.

In order to maximize the utility of extension resources in strongly sex-segregated societies, and in so doing improve women's agency, it is necessary to disaggregate the household as an analytical unit. The work of Amartya Sen (Nobel Prize for Economics) is a valuable tool to understanding why and how households need to be 'taken apart' to understand what is happening at sub-household level.

The ‘functionings and capabilities’ framework (Sen, 1998) challenges the view that possession of commodities alone translates into well-being for all household members, as traditionally posited by economists. Sen argues that the possession of goods does not translate automatically into well-being since possession is different from the ability to benefit from the characteristics of these goods. That is, it is not the possession of the commodity or the utility it provides that proxies for well-being, *but rather what the person actually succeeds in doing with that commodity and its characteristics*. For example, a ‘household’ may ‘own’ a plough, but the right to use it may be exclusively vested in the male head.

To help explain how this happens, Sen shows in his essay ‘Co-operative Conflicts’ (Sen, 1990) that household gender relations profoundly affect the intra-household distribution of commodities and the ability of each gender to use particular commodities. Women and men collaborate to bring wealth into the family, but that the division of wealth is a source of conflict. In many cases, wealth is not divided according to the share brought in by each household member. Rather, division is determined by relative power. In most cases, men hold more power than women and thus wield more control over *assets and expenditure*.

Following Sen’s analysis, there are two basic ways of increasing women’s access to, and control over, assets. One is to place assets under the direct control of women. The second is to find ways of moderating ‘cooperative conflicts’ in order to strengthen women’s agency in household decision-making. The first strategy is not discussed here since Sida is planning a study into land reform – a key approach to placing assets under female control⁵. The second approach was widely adopted by the programmes under study.

5 The Ethiopia Country Report briefly examines SARDP’s work on land titling. The Nicaragua Country Report examines FondeAgro’s work. Both studies provide some gender-sensitive recommendations. Further, though not gender-sensitive, information on the work of SARDP on land titling, can be found in the SARDP documentation compiled by Tengnäs et al. 2009.

1.2. KEY QUESTIONS

The overarching questions of the study are:

- To what extent has the work of programmes on involving female farmers impacted upon overall agricultural outcomes?
- To what extent has Sida's gender policy been translated effectively into development programming in the agricultural sector in the five selected countries?
- What are the most important lessons? What is working well and what is working not so well (effectiveness, efficiency, impact, and sustainability)?
- What changes at the outcome level, whether 'positive' or 'negative', at the farmer level can be ascribed to Sida-funded interventions upon, for example: household food security; women's access to, and control over, land, labour and other assets; women's decision-making power and overall standing in the household and at community level; and women's involvement in marketing?

1.3. METHODOLOGY

The study was based on an extensive literature review of programme documentation and interviews with Sida headquarter staff and staff at implementing agencies in Stockholm. Initial findings were presented to Sida before fieldwork commenced. The first phase of research, together with discussions with Embassy of Sweden staff in each country, prepared the way for extensive fieldwork in each of the five programme studied.

In each country, key informant interviews were held with a wide range of Ministry of Agriculture staff at headquarters, and with extension staff in the field. Small group discussions were held with farmers in sex-disaggregated groups at several locations with each country. These locations were selected on the advice of national programme staff and aimed to provide the research team with contrasting experience and insights – the exact nature of which depended on the challenges perceived to face each programme. A semi-structured questionnaire was devised. It was completed by a number of gender focal points and consultants in Ethiopia and Mozambique. Finally, in every country the research team consulted other development agencies to learn from their experience and to obtain insights into alternative approaches to the same issues.

Triangulation was ensured by comparing and contrasting data from the key respondents and the farmers. The programme documents and first phase research – discussed above – provided further opportunities for verification. A presentation was made to the Embassy of Sweden in each country at the end of the fieldwork phase which enabled frank discussion of the findings. For each country, a Country Report was prepared and circulated to as many informants as possible for verification. Many comments were made as a consequence. An important factor in ensuring robust findings was the work of the Country Research Officers, who were tasked with working closely with the international consultant. The experts spoke the local language(s), had deep experience of gender in agriculture issues, and, as experts in facilitation, were able to help ensure wide-ranging discussions. They co-wrote the Country Reports.

1.4. STRUCTURE OF THE REPORT

Chapter 2 provides a brief overview of the five programmes studied. Chapter 3 discusses gender mainstreaming in ministries of agriculture, the extension services, and in the programmes under study. Chapter 4 discusses the gender sensitivity of the extension methodologies deployed. Oftentimes, market development can be at odds with ensuring household food security. The efforts of programmes to develop food security are examined in Chapter 5, and linking women to markets is discussed in Chapter 6.

In all the thematic chapters (Chapters 3 to 6) illustrative examples are selected in preference to providing an exhaustive account of the efforts of every programme. The aim is to stimulate learning and discussion as opposed to a full account. Detailed accounts are provided in each Country Report.

2. Programme Overview

The programmes studied are described briefly in this chapter. Annex 2 provides some more details.

2.1. THE AGRICULTURAL SUPPORT PROGRAMME (ASP), ZAMBIA

ASP (2003–2008) grew out of a number of Sida-funded projects that handled different aspects of the agriculture sector in Zambia. Of particular importance to its development was the Economic Expansion of Outlying Areas (EEOA) programme. This programme was managed outside the Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives (MACO) or MAFF (Ministry of Agriculture, Food and Fisheries) as it was then known. EEOA was introduced after 1991, when the economy was liberalized, and it sought to engender entrepreneurial thinking at the village level. This approach, plus the facilitation methodologies that developed over the course of the EEOA programme, coalesced in the ‘Farming as a Business’ approach of the ASP.

The overarching goal of ASP was to stimulate attitudinal change amongst smallholders to the way farming is conducted. ASP was implemented by MACO staff at local level (district and camp) but was managed by a Programme Management Unit located outside MACO. The implementing agency was comprised of a consortium of consultancy companies with Ramboll Natura AB as the lead consultant. ASP had a steering committee, chaired by MACO, with members representing agricultural sector stakeholders. Operational funding for the programme was by means of grants provided by Sida and the Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation (Norad) – a small grant in phase 2. ASP channelled funds, and added supervisory and backstopping staff together with resources to contribute towards effective and efficient implementation of the programme.

2.2. THE AGRICULTURE DEVELOPMENT FUND (FONDEAGRO), NICARAGUA

The Fondo de Desarrollo Agropecuario (FondeAgro) (2001–2010; originally 2011) emerged from earlier work by Sida in Nicaragua. In 1998, Sida and MAGFOR discussed the possible implementation of an agricultural development programme in northern Nicaragua. Hurricane Mitch in the same year changed the parameters and it was decided to establish an agricultural rehabilitation programme known as FRAMA, which was executed until 2000. This programme provided valuable lessons, such as its implementation through co-executing agencies, which were incorporated into the design of FondeAgro. FondeAgro is a regional programme housed in the Ministry of Agriculture. It is implemented by ORGUT Consulting AB, a Swedish consultancy company. Funding is by means of a grant. FondeAgro has been free to devise its own approaches to gender mainstreaming regardless of wider government policies. Since private service providers have been contracted to perform extension activities FondeAgro has been able to set its own ToR for extension methodology. The Programme Steering Committee (PSC) is responsible for overall programme implementation and decision-making. Four members are from the Ministry of Agriculture (MAGFOR), meaning that ownership rests with the Ministry, and there is one representative from Sida, the Executive Director, who can speak but does not have a vote.

Although not a Sector-Wide Approach (SWAp) or sub-SWAp, FondeAgro has become an important component in PRORURAL (Nicaragua's SWAp for the rural productive sector). FondeAgro began in 2000 and PRORURAL in 2005.

2.3. THE NATIONAL AGRICULTURE AND LIVESTOCK PROGRAMME (NALEP II), KENYA

NALEP II (2007–2011) is a national programme run by the Government of Kenya (GoK) that emerged in 2000 from the previous National Soil and Water Conservation Programme (NSWCP). This had been supported by Sida since 1974. In 2000 the GoK formulated a National Agricultural Extension Policy (NAEP); NALEP is the

implementation framework. NALEP I (2000–2006) was positively evaluated in 2006 as an innovative approach to demand-responsive and holistic extension. The Impact Study of NALEP I recommended that NALEP be extended to the whole country, notably the Arid and Semi-Arid Lands. Areas for improvement were identified. These included better outreach to the poor, improving the quality of extension, focusing upon farming as a business (with advice on value-added activities), improved mainstreaming of cross cutting issues such as gender and HIV/Aids, and development of the monitoring system to include impact.

NALEP II commenced in January 2007. It is implemented by the Ministries of Agriculture and Livestock Development as a reform programme within the framework of the National Agricultural Sector Extension Policy Implementation Framework (NASEP-IF). NALEP II contributes to the vision 2030 of the GoK through the Agricultural Sector Development Strategy. A Programme Co-ordinating Unit under the leadership of a programme co-ordinator manages day-to-day activities, but implementation is decentralized to districts and divisions. An international audit company, PriceWaterhouse Coopers, complements the national audit authorities in auditing financial management performance.

Sida is the main donor to NALEP II and offers support to the whole programme through covering its operational expenses. Other donors including GoK, DANIDA, WB, IFAD and GTZ fund specific projects.

2.4. NATIONAL AGRICULTURE DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME (PROAGRI II), MOZAMBIQUE

The emergence of the Programa Nacional de Desenvolvimento Agrário (ProAgri I) in 1998 was a response to the lack of harmonization of donor interventions in Mozambique's agricultural sector. ProAgri I focused on carrying out ambitious institutional changes in the Ministry of Agriculture (MinAg). However, despite positive results in terms of increased management capacity within MinAg, institutional change did not result in demand-driven and pro-poor policies, better targeting and more efficient use of resources as had been expected.

The Memorandum of Understanding (2007) for ProAgri I's successor programme, ProAgri II (2009-2010), defines its operational principles thus: (i) a focus on poverty reduction; (ii) decentralization, good governance, transparency and accountability; (iii) market-oriented policy; (iv) empowerment and participation, and a commitment to expand the role and increase the effectiveness of civil society organizations and the private sector in the agricultural sector; (v) sensitivity to issues of equality, the impact of HIV/Aids and other causes of disadvantage; and (vi) social and environmental sustainability.

ProAgri II is a multi-donor sector programme support (with untied and attributed funds) to MinAg. Funding supports all MinAg's activities. Funds are disbursed by sector budget support to a common flow of funds mechanism through the National Directorate of Treasury. The donors are Austria, Canada, the European Commission, Denmark, Finland, the International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD), Ireland, and Sweden. Italy signed the ProAgri Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) in 2009.

2.5. Sida-AMHARA RURAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME (SARDP III), ETHIOPIA

SARDP began in 1995. A proposal for a one-year inception phase for Swedish support to the Amhara Region was developed and agreed upon. Since then, support has been provided by Sida under three different programme phases: SARDP I (April 1997 to December 2001), SARDP II (January 2002 to June 2004), SARDP III (2004–2008 plus staged phase-out to June 2010). The overall budget amounted to SEK 300 million, plus additional monies during phase-out. The aim of SARDP III is contribute to poverty reduction of the Amhara Region by improving the food security conditions of the population in 30 woredas of East Gojjam and South Wollo.

3. Gender Mainstreaming in the Ministry of Agriculture, in Extension Services and in the Selected Programmes

The Country Reports which underpin this study demonstrate clearly that all countries under review have gradually built up a relatively strong awareness of the importance of gender to the achievement of national development goals, including the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). The national context has been influenced by global initiatives such as the UN Women's Decade (1975–1985) and the adoption by the United Nations of the *Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women* (CEDAW, 1979), the first international instrument to define discrimination against women. In 1985 the UN World Conference, held in Nairobi, Kenya, articulated forward-looking strategies which reaffirmed the promotion of equality of opportunity between men and women. At the Beijing Platform for Action in 1995 gender mainstreaming was agreed upon as a strategy for achieving gender equality, and the Cairo International Conference on Population and Development (1995) stressed safe motherhood, and the sexual and reproductive rights of women.

At the national level, governments have responded by developing policies and creating ministries to support gender goals. Zambia is typical. It created a Women in Development (WID) Policy (1983–1999). This was followed by a National Gender Policy in 2000, which is still in force. A variety of structural measures and strategies to implement these policies have been implemented. Ministries of agriculture have been expected to fall in line by ensuring appropriate thematic responses. For example, in Kenya the Ministry of Agriculture and the Ministry of Livestock Development worked with the World Bank, and later with the Embassy of Holland, during the 1990s to produce studies on women in agriculture. These showed huge gender inequalities: women had few benefits or say in farming activities yet they did a huge percentage of the work. These studies enabled an institutional understanding to develop on why gender mainstreaming is necessary, and a cross-ministry consensus to be achieved. This led to the establishment of a gender unit in each ministry: the Gender Equity Mobilization Unit. At district level today, a gender officer works with the Ministry of Agriculture on gender and home economics.

3.1. GENDER MAINSTREAMING IN THE MINISTRIES OF AGRICULTURE

Despite these large-scale commitments, efforts to mainstream gender nationally suffer from a lack of domestication of international instruments and a lack of legal backing. In no country is there an Act of Parliament to make gender mainstreaming mandatory. As a consequence, there is frequently low political will and commitment, which is graphically represented by the lack of budgets for gender mainstreaming. Efforts to mainstream gender in the ministries of agriculture studied suffer from many of the same constraints as efforts to mainstream gender in other line ministries. Specific weaknesses include:

National Gender Machinery. The national gender machinery is weak. It is often understaffed, has weak linkages to gender focal points in line ministries and to civil society organizations focusing on gender. They fail to assist line ministries to develop gender strategies. Visibility is often low.

Zambia is a case in point. There is a national gender structure which is comprised of the Gender in Development Division (GIDD) at Cabinet Office, Parliament, sectoral ministries, specialized government agencies, Provincial Development Coordinating Committees and District Development Coordinating Committees, and a Gender Consultative Forum. The Ministry of Gender and Women Empowerment was introduced in 2006, but it has neither support structures nor staff; it relies on GIDD for secretarial support. However, GIDD (which has the mandate of coordinating gender mainstreaming in national development) does not give support on capacity building, nor does it drive gender mainstreaming. Although MACO is supposed to report to GIDD twice a year, GIDD does not have a Monitoring and Evaluation Officer who ensures accountability on gender mainstreaming. As a result, MACO has not reported to them for four years. The Gender Macro Committee has no budget and so does not conduct any gender activities. It is housed in the Policy and Planning Unit and has zero visibility.

National Capacity on Gender. Decision-makers and implementers exhibit low levels of gender knowledge/skills. Staff turnover can be very high, resulting in the leakage of any expertise created through training initiatives.

National Lack of Data. Ministries rarely have the requisite data to make a case for gender mainstreaming. Though some ministries collect sex-disaggregated data this is poorly analysed, if at all, and is not used for planning. The extension workers, who are the front line staff with respect to data collation, often lack the basic ingredients – computers, paper, training – to be effective.

Budgeting. The advent of gender mainstreaming as opposed to WID approaches has frequently meant that dedicated budgets have been removed. In Zambia the Ministry of Finance cut all gender budgeting in 2007 with the statement that gender has to be mainstreamed. Money in MACO is so short that departmental directors target gender initiatives first when cutting down budget requests. The Deputy Director of MACO, Dr Richard Kamona, remarked, ‘The gender budget for activities has been cut. Once you have budgeted for meetings with farmers, there is no money for gender. We have a budget line for cross cutting issues/gender and HIV/Aids. But there is no money for training on gender analysis and training. We are saying it is incorporated but there is nothing.’

Gender Focal Points. The appointment of gender specialists to promote gender mainstreaming has not been successful in the country studied. They are organizationally isolated and cannot participate in, or influence, key decision-making processes. Gender Focal Points (GFPs) are usually selected from technical, rather than managerial, staff and thus find it difficult to influence planning. Very few GFPs act as full-time gender specialists; rather responsibility for gender is added to their job description. This means that gender is perceived as a burden, particularly since most GFPs are given no choice about their designation. Responsibility for achieving gender targets is hardly ever included in job descriptions, so staff appraisal is not carried out and incentives are not given. Finally, in most cases no budget line is provided for addressing cross cutting issues, meaning that significant work on gender cannot be performed.

In Mozambique, the MinAg Gender Coordinator lacks institutional support. She lacks office space within MinAg, and has to contend with poor gender-sensitiveness among directors. Since the gender unit does not have formal legal status it lacks sufficient authority to make autonomous decisions. The unit is often excluded from major decision-making processes. In Zambia, the situation is similar. Mr Kunda is the highest level GFP in MACO, with four levels

between him and the Cabinet. Other GFPs are placed much lower in the hierarchy.

‘As senior sociologist to MACO my key accountability is social policy analysis. I am also part of a unit that aims to coordinate cross cutting issues including Gender, HIV/Aids and the Environment. MACO does not provide anyone with the specific role of Gender Focal Point. I have my own job description and my own responsibilities. Sometimes I can attend to gender issues, for example next week I will be going to join a EC delegation to view a programme in one of the provinces. I will be asking whether gender issues are being taken into consideration.’

‘I am the only gender focal point whose work is appraised since my ToR include gender. Other GFPs are not appraised. For example, the ToR of Gender Focal Points at the provincial level (i.e. provincial agricultural officers) do not include gender. They are just told to be Gender Focal Points and usually receive no training. It is the same with departmental Gender Focal Points.’

3.2. GENDER MAINSTREAMING IN THE EXTENSION SERVICES

There are two distinct fronts upon which gender mainstreaming needs to be advanced: the absolute numbers of female extension staff, and the gender sensitivity of the extension services as a whole. These are discussed in turn here.

3.2.1. Increasing the Numbers of Women Extension Staff

All programmes studied recognize that female extension workers are critical to effective interaction with women farmers. In many places, husbands can be suspicious of non-family men interacting with their wives. Indeed, in some areas such interaction is almost taboo. Furthermore, women farmers can feel more at ease with women professionals, partly because in strongly gender-segregated societies they may feel they have more in common, or feel that power relations are almost equal.

However, it is very difficult to attract and retain female extension staff. Women professionals generally resist being sent to remote locations. Sexual harassment or physical attacks can be a real concern in some places. Women in their role as primary caregivers are concerned about the well-being of their children in rural areas with poor health facilities and schools. In Ethiopia, which has almost no

female extension workers, CARE has offered numerous inducements to female extension workers such as higher salaries, good housing, vehicles, etc., but finds that women prefer to take a lower salary and work in the capital. Whilst the government of Mozambique recognizes the need for women extension workers, it cannot recruit sufficient workers of either sex. People prefer to work for NGOs, who offer higher salaries and better conditions. As in other countries, women are unwilling to be posted to remote areas and to accept poor quality accommodation. In Zambia, the Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives (MACO) has an affirmative policy for extension staff and seeks to ensure that 30% of its staff in the field and at headquarters are women. It attempts to post women near towns to ensure that their housing is within a compound and close to a school or clinic. However, the number of such positions is very limited.

The experience of FondeAgro in Nicaragua was particularly encouraging with respect to female extension staff. It commissioned three private extension providers, including to the patio component. In the ToR, FondeAgro did not stipulate a minimum percentage of female extension workers. However, the policy of one provider is to ensure that 50% of its extension workers are female. The second recruits more women than men. The third, FUNDEMAT, lacked previous experience on gender and thus established a consortium with the Violeta Barrio de Chamorro Foundation which has more experience. Although FondeAgro trained all extension workers contracted to the programme it did not provide specific support on gender, leading one extension provider to complain that it lacked orientation when complex gender issues arose.

It has been possible to recruit relatively high numbers of women extension workers to FondeAgro because the providers targeted young unmarried women who recently finished their studies. They may be more free to work in the rural areas than women with children. It is not known whether they will stay with the extension services; if not, their frontline expertise will be lost. However, during their work with the programme, the technical teams generally demonstrated great dedication. This is attributed to the fact that they lived in the local community and developed friendships with women farmers. For many extension workers, life in the community represented a unique experience for learning and professional growth.

3.2.2. Gender Training in the Extension Services

Women and men extension staff require training on gender issues in food and farming. However, training on gender issues for the extension services is generally disappointing. For example, ProAgri extension workers reported that training on gender is generic and lacks in-depth exploration of gender issues in agriculture. Relevant case studies, and robust data, are lacking. There is weak circulation of good practice and lessons learnt. Training sessions provide an overview of gender concepts and theories without explaining how to link theory with practice. The general inability to mainstream and deepen consciousness of gender issues across many programmes is compounded by both high staff turnover and the sporadic nature of gender training. For these reasons field staff obtain the impression that gender is not a priority. In Ethiopia, conversely, gender training appears to be offered quite frequently to extension staff, but this training is not reinforced by any institutional measures, such as building in accountability for gender outcomes into staff ToR. One Ethiopian gender focal point remarked that training on gender issues is like ‘pounding water’.

3.3. SPECIFIC PROGRAMME EXPERIENCE ON MAINSTREAMING GENDER IN EXTENSION

This section examines the ways in which each programme worked to mainstream gender conceptually and in staffing. Examples of promising approaches to involving women are provided in the next chapter.

3.3.1. The Experience of ASP, Zambia

ASP produced a gender-sensitive Facilitation Handbook, and guidelines for gender mainstreaming. These documents suggested how to incorporate a gender perspective into each stage of the facilitation process. The Facilitation Handbook notes that areas of gender disparity to be addressed at household, group and community level include: participation, workloads, income, training, access to and control over resources, access to knowledge, and decision-making.

Extension staff report frequent training on gender. Even so, some exhibited a lack of understanding of the conceptual differences between ‘sex’ and ‘gender’. Indeed, the word ‘gender’ has become a byword for ‘women’ to most extension workers and farmers. *Let’s*

have gender' means that women should speak. Despite the presence of training manuals on gender, ASP trainers themselves frequently lacked expertise on this topic. Indeed, the leadership of ASP consistently denies that ASP is 'about gender'; the reasons for its vigorous disclaimers are puzzling. Certainly, this attitude resulted in the loss of many opportunities to strengthen programme outcomes for women, most notably female-headed households. Discussions with ex-facilitators showed that gender as a concept was not properly mainstreamed with staff. One interviewee commented: *'The attention paid to gender and HIV/Aids in ASP kept on shifting depending on who was there. During the five years we were working in the ASP programme this position was handled by three people. Someone from Land Management and Conservation was doing it at first, then it was given to a man who had no idea, then to me. The attitude was: You should be able to know what gender is and to do it. I asked for training but they said I did not need training. They said if you come here as a consultant you should know all about it. It was very haphazard'*.

At the same time, ASP, through the methodology of the Household approach (see Chapter 4.1.1.), achieved strong results in women's empowerment, resulting in significant changes with respect to household decision-making processes and gendered access to, and control over, resources. The question is: could the Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives (MACO) have achieved the same results? The answer has to be no. MACO has not demonstrated strong capacity for developing innovative practice in the field. Given the current difficulties facing MACO in mainstreaming gender across MACO at headquarters, the prospects for properly mainstreaming gender in the extension services are not promising.

3.3.2. The Experience of FondeAgro, Nicaragua

FondeAgro's Programme Formulation Document disaggregated the household, recognizing that women and men often pursue distinct livelihood strategies and that women may be less at liberty to maximize their strategies than men. The overall objective of FondeAgro was to improve coffee and dairy production in two departments and to work on economic diversification. It was expected that women would undertake many of the diversification activities on offer. FondeAgro staff anticipated that women smallholder livestock and coffee producers would form 20% of their beneficiaries.

The baseline study demonstrated that an important proportion of household income came from patio production: the sale of produce

from gardens and animals tended mostly by women close to the homestead. FondeAgro decided to support the patio as an interim safety net, and to strengthen women's livelihood strategies, before the technical assistance and credit programmes for milk and coffee production were likely to be generating sufficient levels of household income. A second measure to strengthen women was to distribute joint titles in the land titling programme; this was supported by a significant (70%) subsidy to cover the costs of land titling.

In practice FondeAgro implemented a WID approach. It conducted joint titling, but otherwise all its work with women turned upon its support of the patio. Although the programme document stressed that women had to be targeted as livestock and coffee producers, this did not happen. Further investigation is needed into the reasons for this. However, they include the fact that FondeAgro had expected to work with a large number of female heads of household, but in fact there were very few in some programme areas. Households were widely dispersed, making it hard to conduct group-based awareness raising activities. Women selected for demonstration farms failed to show good results, probably because they found it more difficult than men to command the labour and other assets required for success. Above all, coffee and dairy production are seen as 'male' and FondeAgro failed to challenge this perception. In coffee growing areas, women are considered 'family labour' rather than farmers. Yet in reality women play an important role in coffee production by participating in plant care, and the harvesting, washing and drying of coffee beans.

FondeAgro missed the opportunity to include women in technical assistance to coffee and dairy farms. Targeting women for extension activities would have helped improve critical components of the on-farm production chain. Opportunities to socially value and build upon women's knowledge were missed. The promotion of intra-familial learning strategies, rather than offering training only to men, could have strengthened the overall ability of household members to support and reinforce each other's learning. Training strategies directed at only one household member increase risk and reduce household resilience, since if the knowledge holder leaves or dies the livelihood strategies of the entire family are seriously weakened.

The *patio*/farm dichotomy was instrumental to the ability of FondeAgro to develop a bundle of agricultural activities for poor wom-

en. Yet this dichotomy limited a more coherent and integrated gender approach to farming. The *patio* could have been used as a bridge to the farm to facilitate the promotion and integration of women in farm planning and management. Some women have, as a consequence of their experience in the *patio* component, expanded the area of the patio and started coffee or maize production, but this is entirely at their own initiative and without programme support.

3.3.3. The Experience of NALEP II, Kenya

NALEP is highly conscious of the need for gender mainstreaming across all programme components. It has commissioned excellent gender studies to enable it to achieve this aim.

This said, the evidence compiled for this report shows that its ability to realize its gender objectives is quite patchy, with outcomes highly dependent on two factors (i) the gender expertise of the particular district level extension team; and (ii) a particular team's ability to negotiate local socio-cultural dynamics. In some locations NALEP has scored strong successes in involving and empowering women, in others it is patently struggling.

NALEP's difficulties cannot be entirely ascribed to internal programme weaknesses. The larger issue facing NALEP, and all other programmes, is: to what extent can the extension services work to address the structural factors underpinning discrimination against women? These are, first and foremost, inequitable access to productive resources, compounded by customary practices that in some areas seriously weaken women. In one research site, women who had married into the community through a patrilocal marriage system explained their disempowerment thus: *'Here there is an expression. Your wife is next of skin, not next of kin. We have no kin here. Men say, 'Why should I recognize my wife in my will? She is next of skin, not next of kin'.* These women could not independently access financial institutions, or use any asset, including animals, for collateral. Upon death of the husband they had no entitlement to any resources, resulting in widespread acceptance of wife inheritance practices.

NALEP does not have any means of addressing such structural issues at present. NALEP field level staff are highly conscious of this, and note that they cannot assist the most poor more generally. They plead for the ability to provide seed funding to this client group, which includes female-headed households, single households, and child-headed households, in order to enable them to build their assets.

3.3.4. The Experience of ProAgri II, Mozambique

In Mozambique, the ‘training and visit’ approach to extension was modified in the 1990s with the adoption of a ‘Unified Extension Services’ system, encompassing crop production, livestock and natural resources. However, despite the Unified Extension Service system, ProAgri’s approach to extension has remained ‘top-down’. Effort is directed at persuading farmers to adopt specific varieties and production practices aimed at increasing productivity. The primary goal is to increase food production, which is in turn the main indicator used to monitor impact of extension services. Farmers tend to be treated by extension workers as a homogenous group without considering internal differences with respect to access to, and control over, assets. They are usually provided with standardized training packages and technological options that do not necessarily take into account the specific extension needs of poor people, and women more generally. Even though consultation mechanisms have been devised to try and involve farmers in the definition of a productive plan to be approved at the provincial level, in practice many of the needs and concerns expressed by farmers get ‘lost’. They are deleted due to budget restrictions or, at the implementation stage, the resources allocated are insufficient (PriceWaterhouse Coopers, 2006).

The central issue is that theory and practice do not combine. To encourage participation, for example, farmer groups are formed and used as a platform for training activities. Agricultural technologies are disseminated through on-farm crop demonstrations. Extension workers, however, are unaccustomed to facilitating farmer-centred learning processes. Farmers report that the information delivered is too theoretical and that they do not know how to implement it.

In general, the extension workers interviewed have a weak understanding of gender issues. In some cases, gender is simply understood as a synonym of women. In other cases, the recognition of ‘gender’ as a relational concept is not backed up by a clear understanding of what this means in practice. Very often, working on gender issues is seen as ensuring that women and men both join group formation and training activities, without any deeper work on understanding and meeting their gender needs. Although some extension workers work hard to get women to join groups, they find it difficult to ensure that facilitation enables women to properly interact with extension agents and with men in the community.

The narrow sectoral approach which characterizes the ProAgri II planning process excludes many stakeholders. Government policy is characterized by a heavily centralized, production-focused approach which historically has been supply rather than demand-driven.

Despite the overall disappointing experience with ProAgri II, exciting opportunities to address gender are emerging. The Extension Master Plan is gender-sensitive and recognizes the need to develop demand-driven pro-poor service provision. As part of the reform process the government has just begun upscaling Farmer Field Schools which were piloted under a FAO project funded by the Italian government. As thoroughly detailed in the Mozambique Country Report to this study, the outcomes for female farmers are extremely promising. This will be supported by IFAD-earmarked funds to the Directorate of Extension Services. The government is also developing a new strategic framework for agriculture which offers further opportunities for donor-government dialogue on gender mainstreaming.

3.3.5. The Experience of SARDP III, Ethiopia

SARDP, through the commissioning of several gender studies and close work with national and international gender experts, built a strong database on the gender needs of women farmers and labourers in the Amhara Region. Gender staff and consultants prepared gender components according to their ToR. Each component contained detailed recommendations and a worked budget for each recommendation. These components were included in SARDP's work plans and some were included in logframes with a corresponding budget.

However, in practice dedicated funds were almost never set aside to realize these components in the agriculture and natural resources pillar. Although women undeniably benefited from SARDP's work to improve infrastructure (which in itself was not a gender mainstreaming measure), on sexual health and education, and on land titling (SARDP, 2009; Byron & Woldemariam, 2010), its performance with respect to the agriculture and natural resources pillar was disappointing. Some women benefited from vegetable growing packages in conjunction with small loans, but market access was critical to the success or otherwise of these ventures. None of the work with women appears to have acknowledged and worked with their gen-

der-specific constraints. Overall, the work of SARDP in the agriculture and natural resources pillar resulted in little change in the quotidian lives of women farmers. For example:

- Gender staff recommended the development of women-only groups, such as credit and savings groups, weeding groups, compost-making groups, small ruminant groups, backyard fruit tree-growing groups, etc. but these groups rarely received funding. Some women entered these groups on their own initiative, but due to lack of funding their overall potential was not realized.
- Despite the recommendation to *'identify, test and multiply appropriate hand tools'*, SARDP did not allocate any funds to the research agency to perform this work since it did not show any interest.
- The logframe contained a commitment to train village women to become paravets since it is often women who tend small ruminants and poultry. The gender team developed a closely worked budget developed in collaboration with veterinary staff, but the budget was not included in the work plan. Hence, the activity was not realized.
- On the plus side, some woredas funded women/men study tours to visit the 'model community' Awra Amba, an unusual and apparently successful community-led experiment in gender equality.

Why did SARDP fail to realize the recommendations of its gender experts? Centrally, this has to do with how discussion processes were conducted between Sida, SARDP management structures and ORGUT Consulting AB (advisers). The agreement between Sida and the Government of Ethiopia was that Sida funds be transferred to bureaux, authorities and woredas for spending on agreed programmes. In this process, it has not been possible to track the amount of money spent on gender mainstreaming by the national counterparts. This is a general and serious issue with funding gender mainstreaming: in contrast to Women in Development projects that rely on earmarked funds, funds for 'mainstreaming' are easily lost. A serious and sustained commitment has to be made to obtain and work with sex-disaggregated data, devise measures for gender equity, and then track progress through gender-sensitive monitoring and evaluation processes.

With regard to the actual monies made available for gender mainstreaming by Sida, the donor approved a budget for SARDP in 2005 that allocated just 0.2% of monies for this purpose. These monies were provided to the Women's Affairs Bureaux (WAB) to enable them to offer gender training, fund staff visits, etc. Historically, however, the Women's Affairs Bureaux have always had difficulties spending their allocation due to a lack of capacity. The evidence above shows that many other activities could have been funded outside the WAB. It is worth noting that the previous budget put forward by SARDP in 2004, which was declined, envisaged spending 1% on gender. Why are these figures so low, and why did they become lower still? Why is Sida's management itself not on high alert regarding the conceptualization of, and spending on, gender activities?

Gender consultants to SARDP believe that SARDP did not take a pro-active stance on ensuring that its own recommendations for gender were taken up and funded. Rather than attempting to lead the discussion, SARDP capitulated to the lack of interest in promoting gender targets from the national counterparts. ORGUT Consulting AB, advisers to the programme, was never in a position to determine the use of resources and was only awarded a minimum of gender staff.

SARDP's disappointing performance in the natural resources and agricultural pillar cannot only be ascribed to a lack of political will. The lack of an overall knowledge management strategy, compounded by the lack of a gender mainstreaming strategy, resulted in a situation whereby the information produced through the gender studies could not be assimilated, let alone built upon. Sida's management compounded this situation by its lack of attentiveness to ensuring gender mainstreaming in the budgets and work plans submitted for its attention.

4. Gender Sensitivity of Methodology in Programme Extension: Promising Approaches

It is well recognized in all programmes that women farmers are critical to farming livelihoods. For example, the Master Extension Plan in Mozambique notes that 95% of women are engaged in agriculture compared to 66% of men. At the field level, extension workers are well aware that women farmers usually have day-to-day responsibility for working the land, and frequently for plant varietal selection, crop and livestock choice (particularly small livestock such as goats and poultry), and sometimes for marketing. Extension workers are conscious that gendered patterns of resource allocation and decision-making can militate against the effective involvement of women in their work.

The methodology of extension should therefore, recognize and address the different roles and responsibilities of women and men in farming. However, in practice most extension packages are ‘gender neutral’, and are based on the assumption that women and men can ‘opt into’ certain elements freely. This is rarely the case. In all programmes studied, extension workers reported particular difficulty in reaching women in male-headed households.

- *‘The husband talks to us about maize. The woman wants our help with the kitchen garden, but is blocked by the man.’*
- *‘Women are the main farmers but often they cannot come to the training forums. There is a gap between who receives the information and who implements it.’*

Whilst the ability of individual women to negotiate with individual men obviously varies, women in many male-headed households in the programme areas visited frequently experience poor agency (see Chapter 1.1.). They can find it difficult to take significant decisions over the use of key productive assets, even if they are the de facto users of these assets, and they often find it difficult to direct farm investments.

Female-headed households, conversely, are an easily identifiable group and may have more personal autonomy in decision-making. In one village in Zambia, women said, *‘Female-headed households do not*

suffer from labour problems. We work harder than men. We are different in how we work compared to male-headed households. When we are alone we think better' and 'When there is a couple their potential goes down. After they have children things get better. The children can help the women.' However, since women generally access key resources such as land, labour and machinery through male kin, female heads of households may lack the resources they need to realize their objectives. The same women, who had been part of the ASP, recognized that their ability to achieve their objectives was limited for this reason – and male respondents strongly supported this analysis, explaining, *'Male-headed households have progressed faster than female-headed households as they have higher control over productive resources. Some female-headed households have had to skip achievement of their plans due to lack of resources.'* The experience of FondeAgro was that when men actively supported and worked with women on the patio, these households did better than Patios managed by female-headed households.

A further complication is that not all men are equal. Junior men may face serious difficulties accessing land due to patriarchal structures that favour older men. NALEP staff based in Bondo, Nyanza Province, reported, *'We need to encourage men to stay in farming. Old men have land here. Youth should be actively involved in agriculture, but they do not have access to land. The father does not permit them to clear. Young men cannot plant before the old man plants. The whole family will not plant if he does not plant. We need to address this through the land tenure system to ensure that land is allocated to youth'*. Women in polygamous marriages also face gendered structures will accord different privileges to each woman. In Bondo, for example, second wives can only plant crops after the first wife has planted.

A central finding is that extension needs to be performed systemically at the farm level if women are to benefit. In particular, the interrelatedness of each farming activity with another, and the way that gender structures this interrelatedness, requires more comprehensive analysis. For instance, it does not help to promote a wide range of improved seeds to women if they lack decision-making power regarding what to plant, or sufficient land upon which to grow those seeds. That is to say, a whole farm analysis at household level is required. This enables the mapping of (i) gender roles and responsibilities, including those of boys and girls, and wives in polygamous marriages; (ii) gendered access to, and control over, productive

assets; and (iii) other livelihood strategies employed by the household. As a consequence of such a study, interventions to exploit strengths and tackle weaknesses can be developed. Only the ASP has developed an approach that considers the whole family to be farm managers, and to consider the farm as a whole.

A farming systems analysis provides a second layer of inquiry and it is here that the programmes studied are much stronger. A farming system is a population of individual farms that have broadly similar resource bases, enterprise patterns, household livelihood strategies, and opportunities and constraints. This provides a useful framework within which appropriate agricultural development strategies and interventions can be determined (Dixon & Gulliver, 2001). SARDP, for instance, worked on creating an overall enabling environment through developing road infrastructure, improving agriculture and natural resources management, and encouraging decentralization and economic diversification. Within this, its land titling component has scored notable successes since single women can hold a land title in their own right, and couples share title. NALEP is actively working to link farmer groups, known as Common Interest Groups (CIGs), to markets. Conversely, ProAgri II employs a top-down strategy which ignores local agro-ecological and business environments, and local demand, let alone a consideration of gendered preferences. Improved seeds are frequently distributed willy-nilly into unsuitable environments.

Self-evidently, extension information alone is not enough; the underlying causes of inequality have to be tackled. Socio-cultural structures can impede the work of extension workers. Highly gendered environments constrict their ability to establish effective informational networks. Without tackling unequal access to resources, women cannot properly benefit. This chapter examines how the programmes under study rise to these challenges.

The sections below extract valuable methodologies from each programme, and discuss their strengths and weaknesses. No attempt has been made to compare programmes. *Au contraire*, the aim is to pull out different methodologies to maximize learning.

4.1. THE HOUSEHOLD APPROACH (ASP, ZAMBIA)

The Household approach aims to reinforce extension messages initially communicated at the community level. It describes a process whereby individual meetings between ASP-coded households and camp facilitators take place over a period of three years. All adult household members (husband, wife and older children) participate in setting the household vision and preparing an action plan, work together during implementation, and share the benefits together. Children are important because they are sometimes the only literate people in the household and thus are important to proper accounting. The power of the Household approach lies in its ability to bundle the often disparate and competing livelihood strategies of household members together to form a shared goal, or ‘vision’ in ASP terminology. Its motor force comes from its treatment of farmers as farm managers rather than as beneficiaries.

The attitudinal changes that have been wrought with respect to the cultural norms governing ‘male’ and ‘female’ roles and responsibilities are astonishing, particularly given that the time period has been so short. Research shows that these changes are appreciated by both women and men. The main reason is simply that the gains to intra-household cooperation are seen so quickly. Maximizing everyone’s involvement in the household economy makes economic sense.

Critically, empowering women has not been seen to disempower men. Rather, both men and women have felt empowered because intra-household relationships are less tense and more productive. Men not only appear to have better relationships with their wives; they appear to have forged closer relationships with their children and can speak to them more freely.

As a consequence of mainstreaming women, both women and men farmers firmly believe that agricultural output has increased and food security at the household level has greatly improved. Prior to ASP, men were generally responsible for governing the access of each family member to household and farm resources. They were able to command female labour, decide upon the use of the fields, and decide upon the spending of income. Very little discussion with other household members, including children, was conducted. Women could not take any decisions in the absence of their male

partners. This would not be an issue of itself if men were seen to be managing the farm well, but in fact in many cases men are perceived as poor farm managers, even by men themselves.

In male-headed households, the Household approach has started to create a shift in decision-making over assets since, according to the approach, assets are understood to belong to the whole household rather than any one individual. Many female-headed households have benefited from the ASP programme. In the absence of men, they have been free to join training meetings organized by extension workers, and to decide themselves how to use their land and to form their vision. Some female-headed households have graduated to high levels in the programme. Interestingly, anecdotal evidence suggests that women in polygamous households have been able to exploit the spaces created for discussion and questioning of norms to their own benefit. Two wives reported that they had previously been in a violent marriage with no say over resource use or expenditure. The husband commanded them to work on 'his' land. Following the introduction of the Household approach these relationships were renegotiated. The women now hold land in their own right and no longer have to work for the husband. They have their own sources of income and control its use.

Furthermore, the emphasis of ASP on working with the entire farming household has increased the resilience and coping strategies of many households. This is because all family members understand their farm system and have been actively involved in shaping it. Farming activities now continue in the absence or death of the male head. Investment decisions are often made collectively and, provided food security had been assured, are directed at achieving a wider family vision.

As a consequence of involving children in the Household approach, there are likely to be significant intergenerational benefits. This may in the long term encourage children to stay in farming and thus reduce urban drift, rural underemployment, etc. Moreover, one of the most tangible gains that both men and women respondents repeatedly mentioned is that joint planning over expenditure has enabled more children to go to school – a significant intergenerational benefit.

Despite gains for women farmers, though, there remain several outstanding issues. In the majority of cases women's increased access to resources still relies on their ability to maintain their relationship

to the male head of household and to wider kinship networks. There is no evidence to date that the ASP approach has had any impact upon these wider cultural practices, or that it has protected women in the case of separation or death of the male partner. Rather, already prevailing practices appear to determine the fate of the women in these circumstances.

Furthermore, since ASP focused on creating a knowledge economy, it significantly failed to address structural gender inequalities in relation to access to, and control over, key productive resources. Important opportunities to level the playing field for women, including women in female-headed households who face sharp inequalities in accessing particular resources due to their lack of male kin, were missed. Both women and men respondents confirmed that the ability of female headed households to graduate through the five phases of ASP programme was critically limited by their lack of resources and by still prevailing gender roles and responsibilities in some areas.

4.2. THE PATIO APPROACH (FONDEAGRO, NICARAGUA)

FondeAgro recruited private service providers to implement the Patio Approach, prioritizing those already operating in the programme area that could demonstrate good knowledge of the needs and socio-economic characteristics of women farmers. The ToR stated that individual and group-based activities had to be conducted through 'learning-by-doing' methodologies in the belief that this is more effective. High rates of female illiteracy among target women made the use of simple, visual methodologies necessary. Programme flexibility allowed providers to instigate complementary strategies. For example, one provider, the FUEMAT-FVBC consortium, established a strategic alliance with a national literacy programme, *'Yes, I can'*, because female illiteracy was recognized as the main obstacle to their learning processes and to developing women leaders.

As part of the methodological approach it was envisaged that extension staff would select the menu of crops to be grown in the patio in the first year. In the second year women themselves would participate in selection and in so doing take responsibility for defining their training needs. The providers offered training in seed selection and multiplication to enable self-reliance.

The ToR also emphasized the importance of promoting farmer-to-farmer training. Patio Committees were formed in the second phase of the programme to facilitate this. This eased the delivery of technical expertise since the Patio Committees facilitated the development of social capital among the women. Almost all women respondents explained that there is an exchange of information between them and that they help each other if they need support in the learning process. As a consequence of this approach to extension, women have become recognized as experts at the household and community level. Some men reported that their wives had taught them how to produce and apply organic fertilizer on their farm. Many women report a significant increase in self-esteem and see themselves as ‘people of knowledge’.

To a more limited extent the exchange of experience among Patio Committees has enabled some women to expand their relational networks beyond their immediate community. For example non-participating villagers have requested advice on organic technology. This is leading to farmer-to-farmer replication of such technology, particularly in the coffee-growing areas.

Disappointingly though, FondeAgro failed to capitalize upon the development of the learning networks it had encouraged. The Patio Committees could have been the starting point of community-based extension services. Although a separate Rural Promoters Network was developed, this did not seek to realize any gender goals. At the time of study, only 13% of the rural promoters were female. The potential of the Patio Committees, and their long-term sustainability, has foundered due to the lack of a clear vision regarding how the Patio Committees could develop, over their ‘real’ purpose, and the overall exit strategy of the programme.

4.3. THE ACTION-RESEARCH APPROACH (NALEP II, KENYA)

NALEP’s work is fascinating because it does not have a ‘static’ approach to baseline data, referring to it only at certain points in the programme cycle. Rather, NALEP employs an ‘action-research’ approach to the creation of its baseline studies which facilitates entry, design, and implementation. District level staff work with farmers in a specified location called a Focal Area to arrive at a

shared understanding of their constraints and opportunities through a baseline survey. The methods used for this are called the Broad-Based Survey (BBS) and the Participatory Analysis of Poverty and Livelihood Dynamics (PAPOLD). Both methods rely on field-based data collection, though the former is complemented by a scrutiny of secondary sources.

Using the data generated through the Broad-Based Survey and the Participatory Analysis of Poverty and Livelihood Dynamics, NALEP staff facilitate the development of a Community Action Plan (CAP) with community members. Realization of the CAP is placed in the hands of an elected Focal Area Development Committee (FADC). NALEP staff assist the Focal Area Development Committee in their work by providing them with training, and facilitating initial contacts with other actors in the area, such as micro-finance providers, NGOs, and private sector enterprises. Staff also provide conventional extension expertise, such as advice on better crop management, fertiliser use and improved seed. All of this is on offer, but farmers are meant to identify and demand the services they need from NALEP, rather than NALEP providing them as part of a supply-driven assistance package.

The ability of the Broad-Based Survey and the Participatory Analysis of Poverty and Livelihood Dynamics to provide gender-sensitive data depends greatly upon the skills of the district extension staff. Whereas in some locations all steps in the process are gender-sensitive, in one of the districts visited by the study team the Broad Based Survey was not truly gender-sensitive at any stage of the process, from basic data collection to analysis. Sex-disaggregated data was scarcely collected and women and men respondents were not interviewed separately during data collection. Gender analysis of the data was cursory. In such cases, the ability of NALEP district level staff to develop strategic interventions to cater for the needs of women farmers in a specific Focal Area is doubtful. A great opportunity is being missed given that the methodologies are there and that field staff are familiar with their application. The solution is simple, provided funds and human resources are made available: refresher courses to NALEP staff on (i) ensuring gender-sensitive application and analysis of the methods; (ii) improving the toolbox; and above all (iii) ensuring effective translation of the analyses through a participatory learning process into the Community Action Plans. Train-

ing needs may apply to district level gender staff as well. In the district mentioned a gender expert worked with NALEP but this did not seem to improve the quality of the work.

4.4. WOMEN'S FORUMS AND GENDER ANALYSIS GROUPS (SARDP III, ETHIOPIA)

Efforts to strengthen women's agency often focus on developing women's ability to formulate and express their needs, and develop leadership and assertiveness skills, at the community level. SARDP is no exception. Indeed, some of the gender-sensitive components of SARDP's work utilized community-level discussion groups in order to raise awareness on gender issues and communicate its messages. Two group methodologies adopted for the agricultural and natural resources pillar are presented here in the words of the gender focal points interviewed for the study⁶.

'Women's Forums are about empowering farming women to ask for their rights and they only have women members. They say 'Here we are. We want to benefit. We want to claim our right to benefit from the programme'. The Women's Forums are self-selecting groups. Sometimes their voice has become so strong that the women's associations organized at kebele level by the Women's Affairs Bureau have felt threatened. We have emphasized that the Women's Forum have no political interests. This is a bottom up approach to empower women. It is about using women's voice to demand extension services, rather than expecting extension services to do so. Extension services always have an excuse not to work with women.'

'Gender analysis training was organized in 148 kebeles, covering 88% of target woredas in two intervention zones. A total of 9547 men and 9763 women were involved and as a consequence 178 Gender Conversation Groups were developed and followed up. 890 community facilitators, five from each kebele, were trained to work with Women Affairs Office experts at woreda level. We worked with households on classic gender analysis: who does what in production, reproduction and in the community, and we also discussed decision-making patterns and ownership of resources. We used PRA methods (sticks, stones) and asked farmers to analyse themselves. When they had come up with results we asked them: 'What will you do now?'

6 Source: Key Respondent Interview with Wubit Shiferaw. Nigist Shiferaw's Handover Report to SARDP.

‘There have been great changes. The Gender Conversation Groups changed their name to ‘Love Groups’. You know, usually women prepare breakfast and then she goes to the market. When she gets back she finds all her tasks waiting for her. But we found that the Gender Conversation Groups really changed behaviour. Boys and men did a lot of the women’s tasks. When she got home her family would wait for her in front of the door. Even old men would say, ‘Your mother is coming. Be ready for her.’

‘We also found that female-headed households benefited because taboos on ploughing, harvesting and threshing were alleviated. They experienced an increase in income through doing work themselves rather than paying for labourers, sharecropping or renting their land to wealthier households. In some cases women have started to control more household resources and men have decreased expenditure on personal consumption like alcohol. The fact that the community identified the problems themselves and identify the solutions was critical. Facilitators had a support role. Participation in the analysis and follow up activities of itself improved women’s self-esteem and ability to speak up at meetings.’

The Women’s Forums and the Gender Conversation Groups have evidently scored resounding successes. The Women’s Forums have enabled women to identify and speak their needs collectively to the extension services. The Gender Analysis Groups have served to defamiliarize gender norms in the target communities and lift them out of the realm of the natural. As a consequence, this has led to a willingness by men to reshuffle gender roles, and also to value the work that women do.

In order to build upon these discussion methodologies, there are a number of knowledge gaps which need to be addressed: (i) evidence of their efficacy always anecdotal; (ii) the long-term sustainability of these interventions in securing behavioural change is unknown; and (iii) the quality and nature of women’s participation in these groups is not known.

5. Developing Household Food Security

Food security and market development can be contradictory impulses in a farming household and in farming communities more generally. If women are relatively more involved in subsistence production and men are more involved with cash crops, or if women lose their access to land as it is converted from subsistence to commercial crops, household food security may decline despite a rise in overall household income. Furthermore, if market liberalization occurs when a large section of the population lacks access to enough food to guarantee a minimally sufficient diet, only producers of high-value cash crops may gain. Landless and near-landless people who must purchase food may suffer from its reduced availability and higher prices.

Food security can be considered at different levels: the community level and the household level⁷. Examining food security at the community involves asking about the *availability* of food to the community as a whole. Is the community able to feed itself? Are there times when even wealthy people do not have enough to eat? Examining food security at the household level requires a consideration of the differential access to food between households. Food-secure households always have enough food to meet their needs. Food-insecure households may face seasonal or daily shortages.

There are gender dimensions to food security. Women and children (particularly girls) may eat less nutritious food, and less overall, than men even in wealthier households. This has implications for the sex ratio (number of men to women) and for stunting (physical underdevelopment) by gender. Whilst sub-Saharan Africa and Latin America do not present the highly gendered health outcomes related to the gendered food distribution practices of some Asian countries, all the countries studied practice some form of gendered food distribution. In terms of project outcomes, this means that simply ensuring that the household has 'enough' food will not necessarily address

7 For the purpose of determining food security, the household is defined as a consumption unit (people who eat together), not the production unit (which includes people who work for the household, for example migrants).

gender biases in its distribution, or ensure that women and girls receive equally nutritious food.

5.1. HOUSEHOLD FOOD SECURITY: THE EXPERIENCE OF ASP

Only one of the programmes studied, ASP, made an explicit commitment to ensuring household food security. Critically, farmers were strongly discouraged from selling produce on the market unless they had set aside enough food (maize) for home consumption for the entire year.

To achieve this, ASP used United Nations Food and Agricultural Organization guidelines for explaining how much food each household should set aside for their own use before sale. One ex-facilitator explained: *'Households were trained to plan jointly on how much food was needed per person, and to set aside food for funerals and hospitality. Most of the farmers adhered to the guidelines; women came out strongly on the issue of household food security'*. Household food security was promoted through training farmers on the planning cycle (resources for production or inputs), actual production of crops/livestock, how much to set aside for household consumption, and how to calculate excess for sale. Farmers were also taught how to assess the likely food needs of visitors and for funerals and to set aside some food for this purpose – provided their own food needs for the year had been met. The practice of reserving food grains for household consumption has been sustained beyond the life of ASP. Farmers explained that they do not sell the 'reserved' grains until after the next harvest.

Household food security was also promoted through training farmers to diversify from growing only maize to developing mixed crop/livestock production systems. They were encouraged to produce large livestock (cattle) and small livestock (goats, pigs, chickens) which can be sold to realize cash if need be for the purchase of maize and other family needs.

Both female-headed households and male-headed households attributed the achievement of household food security entirely to the training acquired through ASP. However, some constraints remain to the achievement of full food security over the long term. Some of these lie beyond the power of ASP to influence and include: (i) natural disasters, climate change and the government's weak communi-

cation systems on adaptation/mitigation measures; (ii) overall poor provision of extension services by MACO; (iii) the disproportionate burden of care for HIV/Aids patients on women and girls, which results in women's absence from economic activities, and frequently the absence of girls from school; and (iv) the continuing perception of a man as head of the family household, which permits some husbands to use household resources for their personal gain.

5.2. ADDRESSING GENDERED NUTRITIONAL BIASES AT HOUSEHOLD LEVEL

Among the programmes studied, only FondeAgro developed a nutritional awareness component intended for all beneficiaries. The component aimed to promote the benefits to family health of the produce from the patio, but it struggled to create attitudinal change, particularly cultural biases against vegetable consumption. FondeAgro made some efforts to tackle biases in gendered food distribution in the household, but the impact of these efforts has not been measured. ASP did not challenge gendered food distribution within the household, but as part of its HIV/Aids component it promoted nutritious simple-to-prepare food. ASP-coded households also received training in coping strategies such as labour saving technologies to minimize the negative impact of HIV and Aids on food security. NALEP also conducts work on food and nutrition, with similar objectives to that of ASP.

6. Women as Market Actors

Women in agriculture increasingly supply national and international markets with traditional and high-value niche produce. However, in comparison to men, women farmers and entrepreneurs face gender-specific disadvantages. These include lower mobility, less access to training, less access to farm and market information, and less access to productive resources. Furthermore, location in the value chain matters. Women farmers frequently lose income and control as a product moves from the farm to the market, and they find it harder than men to carve out new roles in value chains. Indeed, men often take over production and marketing - even of traditional 'women's crops' - when it becomes financially lucrative to do so⁸. Women-owned agricultural businesses generally face more constraints and receive fewer services and support than those owned by men⁹. These disadvantages reduce women's effectiveness as actors in value chains, as well as reducing overall agricultural and market effectiveness.

To make value chains work for smaller, weaker actors, especially women working as farmers or in micro- and small enterprises, they must be enabled to capture a larger slice of the revenues. For this, a distributional gains analysis needs to be conducted which examines how gains are distributed across a chain in order to devise strategies that push a greater percentage of the gains to the most poor and women. Typical pro-poor, women-centred strategies that result in equity gains include encouraging women to take on new roles in value chains, for example by processing the primary product, or by taking on more functions in a value chain, such as aggregating and marketing. To ensure efficiency gains, it is important to pay atten-

8 A classic example is the case study developed by Carney (1988). In the Gambia the Jahally-Pacharr project explicitly set out to reverse the failures of previous schemes by awarding women irrigated land, yet compound heads gained de facto control of these plots and also over the irrigated crop. This happened because project planners had failed to understand the social structure of production, especially intra- and inter-household patterns of resource allocation and acquisition. They had not analysed the farming system involved, and changing patterns of resource access, sufficiently. Another case study can be found in Gurung (2006).

9 See compilation of studies in Farnworth (2008).

tion to the quality of the institutional arrangements between actors in a chain. It is often necessary to strengthen relationships between actors to open channels for the transfer of technology, information, and gains. Because men and women frequently pursue distinct activities in a particular value chain, building understanding between them of their respective needs and responsibilities as chain actors can help to ensure that product quality is maintained as it passes along the chain¹⁰.

All work on value chain development should be conducted with an eye to the rapid penetration of supermarkets across the developing world.¹¹ The impacts of the supermarket revolution are already profound. The weight of evidence shows that asset-poor farmers are unlikely to supply supermarkets and that small entrepreneurs are largely excluded from the procurement system. In some Latin American countries following liberalization, supermarkets took less than ten years to attain a major share of the market, e.g. 75% in Brazil and 60% in Argentina. It is highly unlikely that small farmers will be able to meet supermarket procurement requirements unless they are provided with special assistance. The window of opportunity is very small, probably less than a decade in most countries, to develop differentiated macro-economic policy instruments to enable the smallholding sector to survive. Berdegue and Thomas (2008) warn against too much trust in the capacity development approach favoured by many donors: 'We propose that without a substantial investment in market regulation and reform, a capacity-development strategy is akin to arranging the chairs in the sinking Titanic'.

The work of the programmes under study with respect to involving women has generally been weak. FondeAgro, in the first phase of its Patio Component, did not target market development for women. In the second phase, the New Patio Economy, it targeted very poor women remote from markets. Nevertheless, such women sell their produce informally to neighbours or to people passing through. They participate in local fairs organized with the support of local municipalities. Extension workers in the dairy farming component recognized the potential for developing a women-led cheese-making niche, but this opportunity was never explored. Neither were oppor-

¹⁰ Further valuable suggestions and research data can be found in Barrientos (2001)

¹¹ This paragraph is developed from a paper by Berdegue and Thomas (2008).

tunities for exploiting niches in the utilization of coffee by-products, despite the example of successful women's coffee cooperatives in the immediate area. For example, brosa, coffee waste following processing, belongs to women. Through learning how to select and process brosa women could have produced coffee good enough to be sold in local markets. As with cheese, this market was never explored by the agribusiness component.

The most promising work was carried out by NALEP and ASP. Their experience is discussed here in more detail.

6.1. MARKET DEVELOPMENT FOR WOMEN: THE EXPERIENCE OF ASP

Since ASP was fundamentally about 'farming as a business' it should have been able to improve women's performance as market actors. However, although a few women have become successful outgrowers, in the main women have benefited less than men with respect to marketing. Interviews with women in the course of this study revealed that their success in marketing, or otherwise, could be attributed as much to local market conditions as it could to ASP's efforts on their behalf. Indeed, in general, the study showed that rural farmers are price-takers and do not get maximum returns to their investments. Although ASP claims to have facilitated major improvements in the agribusiness environment, this was generally not considered to be so by the farmers themselves, though admittedly the sample was small. Relatively predictable outcomes are the fact that ASP-coded farmers that were far from good roads and markets found it harder to sell their produce than those close to markets.

With respect to gender issues, it is clear that most players (both sellers and buyers) on the market are men and boys since women tend to have low numeracy and literacy skills. It is said that this stops them from bargaining properly. The distance to markets, poor road infrastructure and traditional/cultural norms and values also prevent women from travelling in search of better markets for their crops and livestock outside their communities. Nevertheless, women are becoming more involved with marketing, but this is a consequence of improved intra-household decision-making as a result of the Household approach rather than an outcome of the work of ASP on improving markets access. One man said, *'I have worked with ASP*

for three years and in those years my wife went two years running to sell ground-nuts that we grew as a household’, and another man responded, ‘As for me my wife went to sell cotton for 2 years’.

A fascinating finding is that the division between ‘male’ and ‘female’ crops is, according to respondents, starting to disappear. Critically, there are indications that men are not asserting sole ownership over ‘female’ crops that have become lucrative, as has happened in many places across sub-Saharan Africa. Women are able to market these in important quantities in their own right in many cases, or if men market them, everyone in the household is seen to benefit. If this is really a widespread phenomenon, and has arisen as a direct consequence of the household approach, it has the potential to revolutionize attempts to involve women in cash cropping and to resist their marginalization. One man said with respect to the practice of men controlling the income from women’s crops, *‘Before ASP, those things were happening because of jealous, ignorant, selfish men. They felt that because they are heads of household they should control and benefit from the sale of women’s crops. Men wanted to benefit more than women, but joint planning helps to remove that as there is no imposing of one’s ideas’.*

However, ASP could have done so much more to strengthen the position of women in local commodity chains. Even a cursory analysis demonstrates a great number of entry points that were never identified by ASP nor taken up. Women respondents pleaded for women-only marketing boards. Mobility and literacy constraints could have been tackled quite easily through planned programme interventions. Women engaging in farmgate sales, which are the only option available to remote households, could be aided through information communication technologies (e.g. mobile phones with up-to-date market price information). Productive relationships between middlemen and women could be developed which aim to develop their respective capacities in understanding the needs of the end consumer, and to increase levels of trust.

6.2. MARKET DEVELOPMENT FOR WOMEN: THE EXPERIENCE OF NALEP

NALEP is unique among the programmes studied because it has developed a farmer-centred structured approach to marketing farmer produce. Following the Broad-Based Survey and Participatory Analysis of Poverty and Livelihood Dynamics (see Chapter 4) a Community Action Plan is developed. From here, a Focal Area Development Group is elected and Common Interest Groups (CIGs) are set up. CIGs are based on a single commodity, such as rabbits or tomatoes. Through this structure, NALEP aims to empower farmers in a Focal Area to take up commercial agribusiness opportunities by enabling them to interface with buyers collectively rather than individually, thus strengthening their negotiating position. Consolidating farmers into groups has other advantages (i) farmers can access credit using co-guarantee mechanisms; (ii) they can purchase inputs collectively and bulk products for sale; and (iii) it is cost-effective for NALEP to deliver training.

The role of NALEP is two-fold. First, it develops the capacity of the CIGs to meet commercial challenges by training members of a particular CIG in basic accountancy skills (analysis of gross margin), the development of a business plan, and in the development and processing of a quality commodity and providing it in acceptable quality to the market (grading, packaging, etc.). Second, NALEP attempts to link the CIGs with potential customers. In this, NALEP staff, particularly the Agribusiness Development Officer, are expected to be very active. NALEP staff commented upon their varied experience:

‘In some cases there is no difficulty linking CIGs to the market. Garissa, for example, is a food deficiency area and thus exhibits strong demand for food. Staff have found it relatively easy to link poultry CIGs and CIGs to local hotels. Other products such as water melons are marketed as far as Nairobi. The farmers currently under NALEP’s guidance generally have plots on irrigation schemes in a very dry area, so demand for fruit is very high.’

‘We train the members, but then they all want to work individually. It is difficult to develop producer cooperatives for historical reasons. People took their produce to cooperatives but were not paid, or were not paid for a long time. People don’t like that. They lose money. Cooperatives have a bad reputation. But work is being done on revamping them.’

Some of the commodities within NALEP's extension package are suited to, or preferred by, women, for example poultry and vegetable production. Women are expected to 'opt into' the elements of the package that suit them. However, NALEP does not engage in widespread women-centred outreach or specifically address gender-specific constraints to women entering the market. Nonetheless, NALEP has scored major successes by enabling women to enter hitherto almost unoccupied marketing spaces. For instance, in Garisssa, women members of the Kulmis Group, who are enrolled on an irrigation scheme, are highly active farmers and marketers. Prior to engagement in the irrigation scheme, the people were pastoralists. They have experienced a massive increase in agency as a consequence of participation in settled farming, a very new activity.

'Before NALEP started supporting us, women had to stay in the household, and men were supposed to bring everything. How can the husband supply everything? They cannot satisfy every need. It is too much of a burden on the father. Today, the husband is happy when the mother brings in farm produce, whereas before we had to ask him permission for cash, to go to meetings, and to have a bank account. Now we earn money according to the acreage we farm. Today, we women help ourselves. We pay school fees. We can even build small houses'.

The effect of NALEP on the membership of this particular irrigation scheme initiative has been extraordinary in strengthening women's agency. All farming skills had to be learnt from scratch. The impact of involvement has been considerable and deeply motivating. Given that water is freely available, agronomic success is simple to achieve. NALEP has explained how to plant and care for trees, and how to establish tree nurseries on site to save money and time travelling to buy seedlings. The women in the Kulmis Group have learnt to demand, as opposed to merely receive, advice. At the same time, it is clear that part of the reason for women claiming this space is that men have simply not wanted to be involved, feeling that settled farming is alien to their pastoralist traditions. Men questioned separately verified the results of the Kulmis Group. They stated that they were happy with women's increased economic and decision-making capacity, because this left them with fewer familial responsibilities leaving them free to pursue their own interests. At the same time they said they continued to contribute to household expenses.

7. Findings and Recommendations

7.1. OVERALL FINDINGS

According to the ToR (Annex 1) the overall objective of the thematic evaluation is to *‘increase understanding of how development assistance in agriculture should be designed, implemented and funded to ensure that female farmers are reached, that their needs as producers are met, and that they are able to benefit from the support to achieve a positive impact on their livelihoods’*. The overall objective of ‘increasing understanding’ has only been partially met because the quality and consistency of programme experience and data on reaching and meeting the needs of women farmers is patchy.

Indeed, in answer to one of the overarching questions guiding this study: *To what extent has Sida’s gender policy been translated effectively into development programming in the agricultural sector in the five selected countries?* the answer is that it has not. Whilst all programmes initiated activities directed to involving women, in no programme was gender mainstreamed across all components. In no programme did gender equity form a leading goal, and no programme prepared a coherent gender mainstreaming strategy aimed at implementing gender equity as a means of achieving better agricultural outcomes.

The achievement of *gender equity* means that both women and men have fair and equal chances to be actors in, and benefit from, the programme. Equity does not mean that people are treated equally, rather, it suggests that special location-specific mechanisms need to be devised to help overcome historic gender disadvantage. A strategy for gender equity describes the process that is required to achieve this goal.

The lack of a gender mainstreaming strategy is an important deficit for two reasons. First and foremost, tackling gender discrimination in agricultural practice demands the creation and implementation of measures that tackle head on the situation-specific institutional arrangements that systemically discriminate against women. Such arrangements, such as unequal access to land, machinery and sources of information, act to weaken the performance of women farmers and demonstrably damage the national performance of those countries where female participation in agriculture is high.

Secondly, given that gender mainstreaming was not a priority for any programme, it was not possible to properly examine the impact of involving women upon agricultural production and productivity in any of the programmes studied. This means that a second overarching question could not be convincingly tackled: *To what extent has the work of programmes on involving female farmers impacted upon overall agricultural outcomes?* Answering this question demands the creation of situation-specific evidence-based data that could help programme design teams work to trace, and then strengthen, proven trajectories between female participation and better outcomes, thus meeting gender efficiency agendas. Only the Agricultural Support Programme (ASP) in Zambia provides some evidence that fully involving women does indeed result in increased production, productivity and overall farm resilience, and the methodology employed, the Household approach, explains why.

The evidence compiled for this report shows that ministries of agriculture have great difficulty, in general, in mainstreaming gender. At the field level, ProAgri II, which received budget sector support, has the weakest ‘on the ground’ results for gender mainstreaming, whereas the programmes that were project-like in form, such as ASP and FondeAgro, had strong results.

7.2. THEMATIC FINDINGS

Despite the lack of gender mainstreaming strategies, the programmes studied did achieve significant benefits for women farmers. Partially at least, all the programmes ensured that *‘their needs as producers are met and they are able to benefit from the support to achieve a positive impact on their livelihoods’*.

Extension Methodologies

Extension takes place in complex environments structured a priori by gender relations. This affects the ability of extension staff to deliver their messages effectively. Conceptualizing extension as a technical, value-free activity is seriously mistaken.

Extension needs to overtly recognize agricultural practice as the only economic activity that is fundamentally reliant on local ecological specificity. Extension services need to reject standardized training packages and technological options and devise ways to work with, and build upon, the existing knowledge of women and men.

When extension services work with the whole household, rather than with individuals in that household, the whole farm is strengthened as a productive enterprise. This is because the systemic interdependence of women and men's work is explicitly recognized and strengthened. Farmers are viewed as managers and change agents, rather than as beneficiaries. Building household rather than individual capacity also builds household and intergenerational resilience, enabling families to survive when someone dies or leaves.

A strong message from women is that when the extension services work with the household this results in their personal empowerment. Women trained at the group level can find it difficult to convince their husbands of the validity of extension methods, and when only men are trained they often fail to pass on messages properly to their wives. Couple training is strongly recommended.

Given that many community level dialogue processes are male-dominated, women often request women-only spaces to strengthen their voice and learn effectively. When mixed groups are envisaged, facilitators need to be trained on how to create space for women to speak, learn and be respected.

Well-managed groups help women build supportive information exchange networks and to become locally recognized as 'people of knowledge'. In all programmes, it was evident that women wanted and needed respect and social standing. Much more analytic work needs to be devoted to understanding how these effects occur, could be measured, and how they could be supported.

Becoming knowledgeable is essential to the development of a better understanding, and management, of farm processes. The form of learning is important. Generally speaking, the programmes studied still practice a 'transfer of technology' approach to learning that is 'input heavy' (fertilisers, information, tools), does not work with indigenous technical knowledge, and does not employ participatory scientist-farmer learning strategies.

Empowerment gains are more likely when extension providers and farmers co-create their learning platforms, as in the FondeAgro (Nicaragua) 'learning-by- doing' approach, and in the Farmer Field School Approach trialled in Mozambique. Recognizing and alleviating constraints to learning, such as illiteracy and lack of time, help women to develop their abilities.

There is a long way to go before there are sufficient numbers of female extension workers to meet demand. Innovative strategies are therefore needed. The approach of FondeAgro, using private service providers with limited spells in the field (as opposed to a job for life) is the most promising of the approaches discussed here.

Gender sensitization of extension staff has to be dramatically improved if they are to be equipped not only to understand, but challenge and work around gender inequalities. Improvement in training curricula is necessary. Real life case studies are essential. Many workers need training in facilitation skills to encourage discussion-based learning, rather than information delivery.

At the higher levels, ministry of agriculture staff need the sex-disaggregated data and the arguments for gender mainstreaming. Support is required at the highest level. Departments require dedicated budgets, training and to be accountable for gender outcomes. Knowledge management systems have to be developed to maintain a high level of understanding of gender understanding since all ministries suffer from rapid staff turnover.

Access to, and Control over, Assets

Several of the programmes have scored significant successes in deepening women's direct and indirect access to productive resources. However, the research shows that improving the access of women to assets such as land is not sufficient. Wider gender relations continue to determine the effectiveness, or otherwise, of how women deploy those assets. For example, they may not be able to plough the land, or get male relatives to work the land with them. A number of measures are needed to tackle structural gendered inequalities to productive resources.

Interventions are needed that focus on building an asset base for female-headed households, and also for poor women and men in general. Such people need improved access to service providers such as micro-credit and insurance providers. These providers need to be tailored to the needs of the most poor.

Further research is required into other culturally appropriate methods of strengthening female access to, and control over, productive and household resources to enable them to live securely in the case of separation or death of the male partner. This will require close work with the communities concerned as well as with legal bodies.

Resources need to be developed that meet women's practical gender needs, such as women-friendly agricultural tools, water sources located close to homes, and improved cookstoves. This will help to ensure that women are not 'overloaded' with reproductive tasks and thus unable to take up extension activities designed to enhance their productive work. Meeting women's practical needs should be accompanied by processes that encourage men to share reproductive tasks. Improved labour saving technology, such as the use of donkeys and bicycles to carry water and other loads, can make such tasks more attractive to men. Such technologies need to be investigated and promoted.

More globally, land fragmentation threatens the viability of farming livelihoods. Recent moves by national governments to lease huge swathes of arable land on 50 and 99 year leases to overseas companies is literally removing land from the control of smallholders that may have held it for generations. It is necessary to move rapidly on finding ways to respect and gender-sensitize customary land tenure systems whilst ensuring they have legal force.

Food Security

Over a billion people worldwide are undernourished (FAO, 2009) despite the fact that sufficient food is produced worldwide to feed everyone. Poverty, not food availability, is the major driver of food insecurity. Food security is centrally concerned with questions of access and distribution rather than quantity and availability, and so programmes focusing on improving agricultural productivity are not sufficient to relieve hunger and poverty (Brown et al., 2008).

Food security and market development can be contradictory impulses in a farming household and in farming communities more generally. If market development occurs when a large section of the population lacks access to enough food to guarantee a minimally sufficient diet, only producers of high-value cash crops may gain. Landless and near-landless people who must purchase food may suffer from its reduced availability and higher prices. If women are relatively more involved in subsistence production and men are more involved with cash crops, or if women lose customary entitlement to land as it is converted from traditional to modern cash crops, household food security may decline despite a rise in household income (Farnworth, 2008).

This said, the work of most programmes is very disappointing in that only ASP has mainstreamed food security using internationally agreed standards. Moreover, ASP has succeeded in ensuring that men as much as women are responsible for food security, thus spreading the burden of responsibility. These achievements should be emulated by all programmes.

With respect to nutrition, good work is being conducted with respect to the needs of people living with HIV/Aids by ASP and the National Agriculture and Livestock Extension Programme (NALEP, Kenya). FondeAgro has conducted some work on familial nutrition with women beneficiaries. However, much more needs to be done on identifying and challenged gendered food distribution practices (for example, giving men rather than women protein foods). This is scarcely recognized as an issue at present.

Markets

Women in agriculture increasingly supply national and international markets with traditional and high-value niche produce. However, in comparison to men, women farmers face gender-specific disadvantages. These include lower mobility, less access to training, less access to farm and market information, and less access to productive resources. Furthermore, location in the value chain matters. Women tend to lose income and control as a product moves from the farm to the market. Men often take over production and marketing – even of traditional ‘women’s crops’ – when it becomes financially lucrative to do so. Women-owned agricultural businesses generally face more constraints and receive fewer services and support than those owned by men (Farnworth, 2008; Bardasi et al., 2007).

The ability of the programmes to involve women in marketing chains is generally weak. This can be attributed to a lack of understanding on how to recognize and alleviate the gender-specific constraints facing women attempting to access markets. More generally, the programmes often operate in unfavourable business environments. More generally still, it can be argued that the extension services lack the expertise required for business development services.

Only NALEP has attempted to develop a structured approach to marketing that involves both women and men. In some locations, women have benefited greatly even though NALEP cannot demonstrate that it offers a gender-sensitive approach. Rather, the evidence shows that women have seized opportunities. FondeAgro, by con-

trast, developed market development programmes for coffee and dairy products in Nicaragua, but these programmes were directed to men. ASP claims some successes in involving women in marketing, but these successes are isolated and do not affect most women. The most repeated request in Zambia was for women only marketing boards, but none were organized. SARDP generally failed to explore how to develop small, local markets that would have taken into account women's mobility constraints, and tended to view women as subsidiary entrepreneurs to men.

7.3. RECOMMENDATIONS

Recommendations for Programmes and for Sida more generally are provided here.

Recommendations for the Programmes

At the national level, it is necessary to consolidate the gender experience of each programme, and then to act. There is a tendency for programmes to commission endless gender studies with concomitant recommendations – and then not act upon them. These findings should be widely shared, both within various programmes in a country, and regionally.

Sex-disaggregated data on the target groups is critical. Without a better understanding of their socio-economic characteristics no programme can develop gender mainstreaming strategies, let alone measure impact and outcomes.

Each programme needs to develop an iterative knowledge management strategy to handle data and institutionalize learning. Currently, expertise tends to be concentrated in the person of gender consultants or focal points. Their departure results in the leakage of expertise from the programme.

As part of the knowledge management strategy, understanding needs to be developed of whether there are reciprocal links between an intervention at one level and an outcome at another. For example an intervention designed to improve women's kitchen gardens may result in an increase in household decision-making power (or it may not). Why/why not? The analysis will reveal entry points for interventions to strengthen women's practical and strategic gender needs.

Special attention needs to be paid to ensuring food security and equitable market development. The potential of any programme to ensure, or damage, community and household level food security should be

assessed. Once assured, programmes aiming to enhance market opportunities need to conduct gender-sensitive and pro-poor value chain analyses.

Recommendations for Sida – government dialogue processes

Sida needs to consider a range of different aid modalities when supporting agricultural development. Supporting the plans of the sector ministry will result in gender failing to receive the necessary attention, and will hamper innovation. If project-based programmes are supported, this should be with an eye to upscaling and outscaling from the very beginning. Knowledge managements systems need to include government. Entry points for donor dialogue in programme based approaches must be carefully identified and followed up.

Recommendations for Sida headquarters

Is attention to gender ‘optional’, or ‘not’, to Sida? The Gender Policy Team, and staff more widely, need a clearer operational mandate from Sida’s management.

The ability of the Sida Gender Policy Team at headquarters to respond to the needs of technical programmes should be enhanced. To do this, its institutional understanding of gender in agriculture issues should be strengthened.

Sida needs to work on making the concept of ‘gender’ user-friendly. At the programme level, and in the field, gender is generally conflated with the term ‘women’. This hinders the development and implementation of gender mainstreaming. One idea is to phase out the use of the term ‘gender’ in favour of simpler if lengthier terminology, such as ‘the roles of women and men in farming’.

Studies in ‘masculinities in farming’ are needed to ensure the ‘gender approach’ can also meet the needs of men. Such studies should also examine how men farmers can be encouraged to support the strategic and practical gender needs of women farmers.

More generally, the interactive nature of gender with other domains of concern needs to be better understood and conveyed. Currently, gender is viewed as a ‘cross cutting’ issue like many others. A more fruitful way of understanding gender is to consider the way it *underpins and influences* all forms of human interaction. For example, gender is not a parallel issue to HIV/Aids, but rather a determining factor in the spread of the pandemic. Women and men often have different rights and responsibilities regarding their surrounding environment and so any

programme aiming to ensure sustainable environmental use must examine gender/environment relations. It is already being demonstrated that women and men are differentially affected by climate change. As water sources dry up women and girls have to walk further to collect water. The spread of new pests may increase pesticide use, often a male task, with possible negative health outcomes if wrongly used.

Annex 1. Terms of Reference

Terms of Reference Thematic Evaluation

**Gender aware approaches in agricultural programmes:
A study of Sida supported agricultural programmes.**

1. BACKGROUND

Agriculture is the major livelihood in most developing countries. In Asia, 43% of the workforce is engaged in agriculture, in Africa it is 60%. It is also in the rural areas that poverty is most entrenched. 75% of the poor live in rural areas and are directly or indirectly engaged in small scale agriculture. Development of small scale agriculture therefore has an enormous potential to contribute directly as well as indirectly to poverty alleviation through increased food security, income and economic growth at household as well as at national level.

In small scale agriculture, family members provide most of the labour required and it is well known that in particular women play a major role in agricultural production; carrying out most of the work, and in ensuring food security. However, they rarely have the formal rights to the land they work, the decision making power over resources or production decisions, nor access to information (in Africa, only 13% of all farmers have access to agricultural information – and most of them are men).

In spite of the major contribution of women to agricultural production, agriculture continues to be perceived as a male dominated sector: men have the land rights and the decision making power and the agricultural institutions (extension, research etc.) continue to be male dominated.

Sweden has over the past 30 years supported agricultural development for small scale farmers within the bilateral development cooperation in many different ways and the projects and programmes have varied in terms of:

- geographical location
- subject matter focus; from soil conservation projects over agricultural extension to increasing market focus etc.
- scale; from small pilot projects to nationwide programmes
- funding modalities; from project funding to sector budget support

During this period gender equality has been a central objective for Swedish development cooperation.

The evaluation will be based on documents, interviews and, where required, complementary field visits.

2. OBJECTIVE

The overall objective of the thematic evaluation is to increase the understanding of how development assistance in agriculture should be designed, implemented and funded to ensure that female farmers are reached, that their needs as producers are met and that they are able to benefit of the support to achieve a positive impact on their livelihoods.

Despite the importance of gender aspects in agricultural development there is little evidence on what works and what does not work in terms of addressing the needs of women in the agricultural sector. The evaluation therefore serves the purpose of gathering such evidence to facilitate learning from experience. The prime audience for the evaluation are development practitioners engaged in agricultural development, donor organizations and partner country governments.

3. SCOPE OF WORK

The evaluation will to a large extent be based on available documentation. The assignment will start with an extensive desk review followed by complementary work in the selected countries where informants include programme staff and participants as well as government and development organizations. The evaluation will be based on a number of programmes which have been or are supported by Sida within the last few years; i.a. NALP Kenya, Pro-Agri Mozambique, ASP Zambia, SARDP Ethiopia and Fondeagro Nicaragua. The extent of the work in the respective countries will vary, depending on available documentation.

In the tender the consultant is expected to propose a more detailed evaluation methodology for addressing the evaluation questions and for contributing to fulfilling the purpose of the evaluation. The evaluation methodology must be in line with basic quality standards for development evaluations as expressed in DAC Evaluation Quality Standards, 2006.

The tender shall include budget for complementary work in the five countries. However, the definite number of countries to be visited will be decided by Sida and the consultant based on the availability of relevant documents and the outcome of the desk study.

The consultant shall throughout the evaluation process keep Sida, Stockholm informed about the progress of the work. In the respective country visited the Embassy of Sweden/Sida Office is to be consulted as well as briefed on the result of the work. Other stakeholders (e.g. programme staff, Ministry of Agriculture, NGOs, farmers) shall be involved through stakeholder meetings, interviews, etc. The evaluation is an opportunity for learning for all involved parties. It is included in the Consultant's tasks to facilitate this learning throughout the evaluation process.

The evaluation will analyse how agricultural development programmes relate to and support women farmers in their roles as producers, marketers, etc. The evaluation includes, but is not limited to addressing the following questions:

- a. Review evaluations and other international studies on gender aware approaches in agriculture and identify lessons learned and identify knowledge gaps. This literature review serves the dual purpose of providing Sida and other interested parties with an overview of relevant issues at the same time as it assists the consultants in framing the evaluation in the context of existing knowledge.
- b. Review existing Swedish policy and guidance documents related to agriculture and gender and make an assessment of their role and usefulness. To which extent is gender considered when *selecting and designing* support to agricultural programmes? Review and assess relevant programme documents, studies and reviews related to the selected agricultural programmes and make an assessment of how gender issues are dealt with (is it mentioned, are female farmers specifically addressed in terms of methods, approaches or results. Are female farmers mentioned in the prob-

lem analysis and, if so, which problems are identified? Identify whether a separate gender analysis was done and related to in selecting and design. Also identify which questions regarding gender equality and women were examined and applied to in selection and design, e.g. how are female farmers defined; in terms of family structure, in terms of labour input, in terms of control over productive resources?²).

- c. Make a comparative assessment of how female farmers have been addressed during *implementation* of the selected programmes:
 - methods and approaches used to reach and involve farmers
 - methods and approaches used to specifically reach and involve female farmers, if any
 - methods and approaches to follow up on female farmer participation and impact
 - share female farmers out of farmers reached (or share of increased income earned by female farmers)
 - share women/men who have benefitted from the programme, and how
 - which approaches/methods have been most successful and why
 - has the funding modality influenced the extent to which women are reached – if so, how?

Identify factors which have contributed to successful outcome in reaching female farmers

- d. What are the *outcomes* for female farmers?
 - to what extent have the different methods and approaches been relevant and effective in supporting female farmers and in improving their livelihoods and welfare?
 - to what extent can the outcome be expected to be lasting and sustainable? What interventional and contextual factors contribute to sustainability?
- e. Identify lessons learnt; positive and negative
- f. Give recommendations for future support within the sector

4. OUTPUTS.

The expected outputs are:

- During inception phase:
 - Draft inception report. The inception report is intended to further refine the evaluation approach, clarify outstanding issues and propose a detailed work-plan. Sida may, at the point of contracting, decide that certain elements in the consultant's proposal shall be further developed in inception report.
 - Presentation of the draft inception report for the evaluation reference group
 - Approved final inception report
- Phase 1: Literature review and Stockholm based evaluation research
 - Draft literature review of international reports, evaluations and other relevant studies.
 - A first phase evaluation report based on existing documentation and interviews with Sida HQ staff. The research will be undertaken in Stockholm. The study will assess the major issues in general, investigate the issues in the different programmes and the extent to which they are dealt with and/or analysed in the available documentation. The study will serve as an input for the final selection of issues and programmes to be studied in more detail.¹²
 - Presentation of the draft literature review and the first phase evaluation report for the evaluation reference group
 - Agreement on desk study and on the remaining work, including number and extent of field visits
- Phase 2: Field work and final evaluation reports
 - Stakeholder meetings and presentation of preliminary findings in programme countries
 - Draft evaluation report. This shall be the first draft of the full evaluation report building on research from both the first and second phase.
 - Presentation of draft evaluation report and findings at Sida, Stockholm

¹² Relevant parts of first phase evaluation report may be revised and go into the final evaluation report. That is, the first phase report is not to be seen as separate evaluation report but rather as the first building block of the final report. However, literature review will be a separate study.

- Final evaluation report (publishable quality)
- Final literature review (publishable quality)
- Presentation of final reports for a wider audience

6. TIMING

It is suggested that the consultancy will be conducted in accordance with the time table specified in section 9 and the total staff input is estimated to seven person months. The consultant should provide an inception report to be discussed and approved by Sida within 2 weeks of the start of the assignment. The desk study shall be presented to Sida within six weeks from the start of the assignment for discussion and approval. A draft of the final report shall be presented to Sida no later than 2010-04-12 and it shall be presented and discussed in a Sida seminar before finalization. The final document shall be finalized before the 2010-05-03.

7. INDICATIVE STUDY TEAM COMPOSITION

A professional consulting team or a consortium with a background in Development Research, experience of agricultural development programmes for small scale farmers and of gender divisions in agriculture, with particular focus on women's roles in agriculture. Documented earlier work on themes relevant for this assignment is valuable. Working knowledge of Spanish and Portuguese for analysis of FondeAgro in Nicaragua and Pro-Agri in Mozambique.

8. REPORTING

Evaluation will result in two reports – the literature review and the main evaluation report. Successfully completed, the literature review will be published separately as a Working Paper and the evaluation report will be published in the series Sida Evaluation. The evaluation report shall follow the format for Sida evaluation reports (see Annex B). It shall be written in English and shall be at a maximum length of 13 000 words (not including executive summary, table of contents, list of abbreviations and appendixes). The final literature review as well as the final evaluation report shall be edited by a professional text editor and the reports shall be delivered to Sida in publishable quality. The final reports shall be delivered electronically in Word format.

The DAC evaluation quality standards (2006) apply in all part relevant for this evaluation (Annex A).

9. TIME FRAME

	Evaluation Schedule	
	Events and outputs	Date
Indicative Dates	Invitation to tender	2009-09-01
	Last date to tender	2009-10-12
	Decision to award contract	2009-10-25
	Contracting	2009-11-04
	Draft inception	2009-11-18
	Presentation of draft inception	2009-11-25
	Final inception report	2009-11-28
	Draft desk-study report	2010-01-12
	Meeting on draft desk-study report	2010-01-19
	First draft of full evaluation report	2010-03-20
	Seminar on first draft report	2010-04-03
	Final draft	2010-04-17
	Consultant receives comments on final draft	2010-04-24
	Final report (publishable quality)	2010-05-08
	Report published	2010-06-07

Annex 2. Programme Summaries

The Agricultural Support Programme (ASP), Zambia¹³	
Goal	Poverty reduction through improving the livelihoods of small-scale farmer households via 1) improved food and nutritional security, and 2) increased income through the sale of mainly agricultural and agricultural related products and services.
Aid Modality	Support to the Government of Zambia under a Specific Agreement
Financing Modality	Project Funding
Time frame	2003-2008
Sida Contribution	The total programme budget for the period 2003 to 2008 was SEK 346,510,334. About SEK 330,263,149 was the total expenditure for the 6 years. Out of this amount the Norwegian Embassy contributed about SEK 49.5 million over the period 2006–2008.
Beneficiaries and target groups	ASP operated in 4 provinces – Eastern, Central, Southern and Northern, 22 districts and 242 camps. The target group was 44,000 small-scale farming households in selected agricultural camps, and the local service providers needed for the development of these households.
Areas of Intervention/ Objectives	Component 1: Entrepreneurship and Business Development Component 2: Land, Crop, Seed and Livestock Development Component 3: Infrastructure Fund Component 4: Improved Service Delivery of Support Entities Component 5: Management, Information & Learning Systems
Implementing Agency	Outsourcing arrangement. Management handled by a consortium of consultancy companies: the Rural Economic Expansion Services Ltd. (REES), Gibcoll Associates Ltd., HJP International Ltd., RuralNet Associates Ltd., with Ramboll Natura AB as the lead consultant. MACO involved in implementation.

Agriculture Development Fund (Fondo de Desarrollo Agropecuario, FondeAgro), Nicaragua¹⁴

Goal	To strengthen the capacity of men and women to identify and take advantage of the opportunities offered them in order to overcome the poverty in which they live and to play an active role in local development.
Aid Modality	Grant
Financing Modality	Grant
Time frame	2001–2010 (originally 2011)
Sida Contribution	SEK 340,000,000
Beneficiaries and target groups	Seven municipalities in the departments of Matagalpa and Jinotega
Objectives	The main target groups have been small and medium-size agriculture producers, including institutional strengthening of MAGFOR at departmental level. Other key beneficiaries have been trade associations (coffee, cocoa, dairy) both at departmental and national level, as well as local producers and service organizations, including vocational education.
Implementing Agency	ORGUT Consulting AB

¹⁴ Sources: Kenya_NALEP II_Decision; NALEP Semi-Annual Report 2006–7 NALEP Report No 19.

The National Agriculture and Livestock Programme (nalep II), Kenya¹⁵	
Goal	The contribution of agriculture and livestock to social and economic development and poverty alleviation is enhanced.
Aid Modality	Project
Financing Modality	Grant to Government (Ministry of Finance disburses funds)
Time frame NALEP II	2007–2011
Sida Contribution	SEK 327 million (grants for investment in capacity building for farmers, pastoralists and fisherfolk and extension staff, motor vehicles and motor cycles, communication equipment and other materials, studies, hiring of consultancy services and for operational and maintenance costs)
Beneficiaries and target groups	Rural poor people, small-scale farmers, and in the process, extension workers
Areas of Intervention/ Objectives	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To institutionalize demand-driven and farmer-led extension services. • To increase the effectiveness of pluralistic provision of extension services. • To increase the participation of the private sector in providing extension services. • To empower farmers to take charge of Project Cycle Management of extension projects. • To develop accountability mechanisms and transparency in delivering extension services. • To facilitate commercialization of some agricultural extension services.
Implementing Agency	Ministry of Agriculture/Ministry of Livestock Development

¹⁴ Sources: Kenya_NALEP II_Decision; NALEP Semi-Annual Report 2006–7 NALEP Report No 19.

The National Agriculture Development Programme (ProAgri II), Mozambique¹⁶

Goal	To contribute to poverty reduction and improved food security.
Aid Modality	Sector programme support (with untied and attributed funds) earmarked to the Ministry of Agriculture
Financing Modality	Common Flow of Funds Mechanism (disbursement of funds to the Ministry of Finance through the National Directorate of Treasury via Austria, Canada, European Commission, Denmark, Finland, International Fund for Agricultural Development, Ireland, and Sweden).
Time frame	2009–2010
Sida Contribution	SEK 94,000,000 Planned disbursement 2009 SEK 47,000,000 Planned disbursement 2010: SEK 47,000,000
Beneficiaries and target groups	Extension Services Baseline 177,000 (2005) to target of 500,700 (2009). ProAgri works with all farmers.
Areas of Intervention/ Objectives	(i) to support smallholders to develop their agriculture and natural resource related activities; (ii) to stimulate increased agricultural and natural resource based production and development of agro-industries for domestic and export markets; and (iii) to guarantee sustainable natural resources management and conservation that takes into account community, public sector and private sector interests.
Implementing Agency	Ministry of Agriculture (MinAg)

¹⁶ Sources: Matrix MoU 10-01-07 eng; Annex 5: DG Decision ProAgri 2009_11; MoU P-E 10-01-07 and Final Evaluation of the First Phase of National Agriculture Development Program (ProgAgri 1999-2005) (2006) by Ministério da Agricultura.

Sida-Amhara Rural Development Programme (SARDP), Ethiopia ¹⁷

Goal	To contribute to poverty reduction of the Amhara Region by improving the food security conditions of the population in 30 woredas of East Gojjam and South Wollo
Aid Modality	Direct Grant Support
Financing Modality	Budget Support
Time frame SARDP III	July 2004 to June 2008
Sida Contribution	SEK 300 million
Timeframe of Phase Out (Part 1 and 2)	July 2008 to March, 2009 April 2009 to June 2010
Contribution for Phase Out	SEK 35 million SEK 45 million
Beneficiaries and target groups	All 14 woredas in East Gojjam and all 16 woredas in South Wollo. During the final phase some woredas have been phased out
Areas of Intervention/ Objectives	(i) Agriculture and natural resources management; (ii) economic diversification; (iii) infrastructure; and (iv) decentralization
Implementing Agency	ORGUT Consulting AB

16 Sources: Sida-Amhara Rural Development Programme, SARDP III, Final Phase Out 1 April 2009 – 30 June 2010 (Memo 12 March 2009); Ethiopia Decision on Contribution 15 months phase-out, and Sida Amhara Rural Development Programme (SARDP) 1997-2008 (June 2009) by Bo Tengnäs, Eva Poluha, Seán Johnson, Sosen Demissie, Yared Fekade Mandefro.

Annex 3. People Met

Sida Headquarters, Stockholm

Name	Position
Anita Ingevall	Senior Adviser Sustainable Agriculture, Department for Economic Opportunities
Lars Johansson	Secretariat for Evaluation, Sida
Nina Strandberg	Gender Equality Team
Margretha Sundgren	Senior Programme Manager, Department for Development Partnerships, Global Programmes Team
Eidi Genfors	Senior Programme Manager, Department for Long Term Development Programmes in Operations; PROGSAM REED (Regional Economic and Environment Development) Region Africa Team Mozambique
Torsten Andersson	Senior Policy Adviser/Agriculture Specialist. Programme Manager at the Department for Long-Term Development Cooperation (PROGSAM), Team Ethiopia
Karolina Hulterstrom	Evaluation Specialist, Secretariat for Evaluation

ORGUT Consulting AB, Stockholm

Name	Position
Jorge Maluenda	Senior Consultant in Natural Resource Management; Home office coordinator in the Pungwe Basin Transboundary Integrated Water Resources Management and Development Programme (Pungwe PP2 – Mozambique): Technical Backstopping for FondeAgro).
Cecilia Brumér	Project Management Coordinator
Maria Tadesse	Consultant/Project Management Coordinator

Ramboll Natura AB, Stockholm

Name	Position
Björn Hansson	Technical Director

Other Contacts

Name	Organization	Position
Dorothy Hamada	SARDP	Gender Consultant
Maria Vink	European Commission DG Development, Brussels	Previously Coordinator for Economic Development for Sida/Swedish Embassy Maputo, Mozambique. Currently Water Policy Adviser
Melinda Fones-Sundell	Stockholm Environment Institute	Former director of Fon-deAgro. Currently SIANI Project Coordinator
Charlotte Ørnenmark	Consultant to Sida Gender Mainstreaming Study	Gender Consultant
Clare Bishop-Sambrook		Gender Consultant

Programme Contacts**Ethiopia**

Name	Organization	Position
Bahir Dar		
Håkan Sjöholm	SARDP	Programme Management Adviser and Team Leader
Ato Desalegne Ayal	SARDP	Finance and Administration Head
Ato Abebawu Getachew	SARDP	Monitoring and Evaluation TA
Ato Ahmed Yimam	SARDP	Programme Officer
Habtam Segahu	Women's Affairs Bureau	Head of Gender Mainstreaming Department
Ato Zegeye Bante	Amhara Credit and Saving Institute (ACSI)	Urban Credit Officer
Wr. Saba Berhie	Amhara Credit and Saving Institute (ACSI)	Gender Department
Eshetu Abtew	Amhara Small and Micro Enterprise Agency (ESMEA)	Credit Officer and Sida Focal Person
Tilahun Ayalew	Amhara Women Entrepreneurs Association	Regional Director
East Gojjam		
Wr. Wubit Shiferaw	East Gojjam SARDP	Gender TA
Dr Yitbarek Semaene	East Gojjam SARDP	Agriculture and Natural Resource Management TA
Addis Ababa		
Ann Louise Olofsson	Embassy of Sweden	First Secretary, Development Cooperation
Marc Steen	SNV	Head, Value Chain Development
Sorssa Natea	Rural Economic Development and Food Security (REDFS) Working Group Secretariat in MoARD	

Name	Organization	Position
Florence Rolle	Rural Economic Development and Food Security (REDFS) Working Group Secretariat in MoARD	
Seblewongel Deneke	CIDA-ECCO	Gender Adviser
Senait Seyoum	CIDA-ECCO	Food Security Adviser
Nigist Shiferaw	Send a Cow	Ex SARDP Gender TA
Philippa Hadan	Irish Aid, Embassy of Ireland	Food Security and Rural Livelihoods Programme Manager
Haimanot Mirtneh	Irish Aid, Embassy of Ireland	Social development adviser/gender
Michael Giggins	Irish Aid, Embassy of Ireland	Junior Professional Intern
Abby Maxman	CARE Ethiopia	Country Director

Kenya

Name	Organization	Position
Annika Jayawardena	Embassy of Sweden	Country Director for Development Cooperation
Japhet Kiara	Embassy of Sweden	Programme Officer
Josephine Mweki	Embassy of Sweden	Programme Officer, Civil Society, Gender and Child Rights
Rosemary Magambo	NALEP	Coordinator Gender & Social Economics
Charity Kabutha	Independent Consultant	Gender and Participatory Development Consultant
Akinyi Nzioka (PhD)	The Centre for Land, Economy & Rights of Women (CLEAR)	Chief Executive and Consultant
Joyce Thaiya (PhD)	GTZ PSDA	Programme Officer
Eberhard Krain (PhD)	GTZ	Deputy Programme Manager
Asa Torlensen (PhD)	World Bank	Senior Gender Specialist

Name	Organization	Position
Jeremy Notley	ORGUT Consulting AB (Kenya) Ltd.	Managing Director
Field Trip A. Thika, Central Province		
Ann Jacqueline Kungu	NALEP	District Livestock Production Officer
Esau Mwadime	NALEP	Divisional Livestock Extension Officer
Julius Muiruri	NALEP	District Monitoring and Evaluation Officer
James Njeru	Rabbit Breeders Association (Umbrella Group Meeting)	
Joseph Murega Mwai	Rabbit Breeders Association	
Lucy Wanjiku	Rabbit Breeders Association	
Angela Mwangi	Rabbit Breeders Association	
Isaac Muriethi	Rabbit Breeders Association	
James Karanja	Rabbit Breeders Association	
Ann Muigai	Rabbit Breeders Association	
Joseph Ngatia	Rabbit Breeders Association	
Sammy Kimani	Rabbit Breeders Association	
John Kamau	Rabbit Breeders Association	
Waithera Njunguna	Rabbit Breeders Association	
Kamanda Njoroge	Rabbit Breeders Association	
Agnes Wangui	Rabbit Breeders Association	
George Mwaura	Rabbit Breeders Association	
Jane Ndungu	Rabbit Breeders Association	
Peter Waiganjo	Rabbit Breeders Association	
Hellen Wambui	Rabbit Breeders Association	
Violet Muciri	Rabbit Breeders Association	
Catherine Muthoni	Rabbit Breeders Association	
Joseph Mbugua	Rabbit Breeders Association	
James Nganga	Rabbit Breeders Association	
James Ngochi	Rabbit Breeders Association	
Peter Githei	Rabbit Breeders Association	
Daniel Warirungi	Rabbit Breeders Association	
Johnson Kariuki	Rabbit Breeders Association	

Name	Organization	Position
Timothy Ngoro	Rabbit Breeders Association	
Richard	Rabbit Breeders Association	
Daniel Kangethe	Rabbit Breeders Association	
Daniel Kairuki	Rabbit Breeders Association	
Samuel Ndungu	Rabbit Breeders Association	
Wandia Joseph	Rabbit Breeders Association	
Gichira	Rabbit Breeders Association	
Kariuki	Rabbit Breeders Association	
Carol	Rabbit Breeders Association	
Josephine	Rabbit Breeders Association	
S.A Maina	Rocket Energy Savings Group	Installer
Rose Wanjiru	Rocket Energy Savings Group	Jika maker
Esther Muthoni	Rocket Energy Savings Group	Trainer/Installer
John Wanyoike	Rocket Energy Savings Group	Installer/Trainer
Stanley Muigai	Rocket Energy Savings Group	Installer
Joseph Muthama	Rocket Energy Savings Group	Installer/Trainer
Mary Kambua	Rocket Energy Savings Group	Installer
Peter Kangethe	Rocket Energy Savings Group	NALEP Extension Officer
Joseph Kiare	Juja West Focal Area Development Committee (FADC Leaders)	Chairman
Bernard Muturi	Juja West Focal Area Development Committee (FADC Leaders)	Vice Treasurer
Joseph Kamande	Juja West Focal Area Development Committee (FADC Leaders)	Member
Benedict Mukongo	Juja West Focal Area Development Committee (FADC Leaders)	Member
Thomas Maroya	Juja West Focal Area Development Committee (FADC Leaders)	Member
Jane	Juja West Focal Area Development Committee (FADC Leaders)	Member

Name	Organization	Position
Jane Wanjiru	Juja West Focal Area Development Committee (FADC Leaders)	Member
Tabitha Kanyingi	Juja West Focal Area Development Committee (FADC Leaders)	Vice Secretary
Field Trip B. Garissa, Eastern Province		
Bashir Muhumed	NALEP, Garissa	District Agriculture Officer
Salesa Abdi	NALEP, Garissa	District Agriculture Extension Officer
Ominde Makutsa	NALEP, Garissa	District Monitoring and Evaluation Officer
Augustine Nyaga	NALEP, Garissa	District Agribusiness Development Officer
Gladys Murira	NALEP, Garissa	District Home Economist Officer
Dennis Makiri	NALEP, Garissa	District Cooperative Development Officer
Fatuma Adan Farah	Kulmis Farm Group (Meeting with Women)	Chairperson
Sahara Ibrahim uktar	Kulmis Farm Group (Meeting with Women)	Member
Shamsa Ibrahim	Kulmis Farm Group (Meeting with Women)	Member
Mahdabo Garoso	Kulmis Farm Group (Meeting with Women)	Member
Harira Ibrahim	Kulmis Farm Group (Meeting with Women)	Member
Hussein Khalifa AW	Kulmis Farm Group (Meeting with Women)	Member
Ahmed M. Noor	Kulmis Farm Group (Meeting with Women)	Member
Yusuf Matan	Kulmis Farm Group (Meeting with Women)	Member
Serhab Sulim	Kulmis Farm Group (Meeting with Women)	Member
Mahummed Abdi	Iftin FADC (Meeting with Men)	Member

Name	Organization	Position
Mohammed Abdul	Iftin FADC (Meeting with Men)	Member
Abulahi Ibrahim	Iftin FADC (Meeting with Men)	Member
Shido Hassan	Iftin FADC (Meeting with Men)	Member
Abdi Ishmael	Iftin FADC (Meeting with Men)	Member
Field Trip C. Bondo, Nyanza Province		
Nicodemus Mwonga	NALEP	District Agricultural Officer
Risper Okoth	NALEP	Division Home Economics Officer
Dennis Ujura	NALEP	District Home Economics and Monitoring and Evaluation Officer
Monica Osana	NALEP	Divisional Crop Officer- Marande
Jane Koyada	NALEP	Extension Officer
Ben Agira	NALEP	District Livestock and Production Officer
Jared Odume	NALEP	Divisional Agribusiness Officer
Peter Gor	NALEP	District Agribusiness Development Officer
Caroline Omondi	NALEP	Livestock Officer
Elizabeth Atieno	Nyiloka Women's Group	Member
Risper Ochieng	Nyiloka Women's Group	Chairman Development Group
Beatrice Odiyo	Nyiloka Women's Group	Welfare Secretary
Christine Achieng	Nyiloka Women's Group	Member
Mary Ndege	Nyiloka Women's Group	Member
Leonida Awour	Nyiloka Women's Group	Member
Samuel Otieno Aoko	Sianya Farmers Field Group	Chairman
Pastor Solomon Odong	Sianya Farmers Field Group	Organizing Secretary
Moses Okwacho	Sianya Farmers Field Group	Facilitator
Harrison Otieno	Sianya Farmers Field Group	Member
Christine Awino	Sianya Farmers Field Group	Treasurer
Peris Achieng	Sianya Farmers Field Group	Assistant Chairman

Name	Organization	Position
John Odeba	Sianya Farmers Field Group	Member
Samson Siage	Sianya Farmers Field Group	Village Elder

Mozambique

Name	Organization	Position
Maputo-City		
Anna Liljelund-Hedqvist	Embassy of Sweden	Programme Officer Agriculture and Natural Resources
Domingas Sequeira	MINAG-DNSA	Gender Focal Point
Marcela Libombo	MINAG-SETSAN	Coordenadora de SETSAN
Beverly Carmichel	Embassy of Canada	Chair of Donors Working Group ProAgri
António Gaspar	MINAG-DNER	National Director of Extension Services
Custódio Mucavele	IFAD	IFAD Representative in Moçambique
Eugénio Macamo	FAO	Programme Officer
Teresa Nube	MINAG-DNTF	Director of MCRN
Halima Niquice	Consultoria Privada	Gender Focal Point
Alícia Calane	Embaixada da Suécia	Independent consultant on gender.
Brawnn		Focal Point for cross cutting issues
Fernando Sunbane	MINAG	ProAgri coordinator
Rachel Waterhouse	Embassy of Canada	Consultant on social development
Aurélio Mate	MINAG-Departamento de Estatística	Director of the Department of Statistics.
Zilda Massango	MINAG-Unidade de Género	Coordinator of the Gender Unit
Sofala		
Armando Dique Camissa	DPA-SPER	Director of Provincial Services of rural extension.
Barnet Caetano Gimo	DPA-SPER	Responsável pela Organização dos camponeses e mercados

Name	Organization	Position
Nelson António	DPA-SPA	Chefe dos Serviços Provinciais de Agricultura
Etelvina de Sousa	DPA/FAO	Coordinator of FFS programme (Joint Programme)
Gorongosa		
Carlos Alberto	SDAE	Extensionist
Sérgio Eugénio	SDAE	Extensionist
Domingos Arota	Administração do Distrito	Permanent Secretary.
5 mulheres	Comunidade de Nhauranga	Members of a farmers' association in Nauranga
7 homens	Comunidade de Nhauranga	Members of a farmers' association in Nauranga
Camba	SDAE-Extensão Rural	Extensionist
17 mulheres	Comunidade de Thaka	Members of FFS
2 mulheres	Comunidade de Canda	Members of the farmers' association Mãe Mabudhiriro
Damane João Cardoso	SDAE-Extensão Rural	Extensionist
Graça Júlia Raul Correia	Posto Administrativo de Savane	Former gender focal point.
Maputo Province		
António Sabão	DPA-SPA	Director of provincial services of rural extension.
Alexandre Jorge Noé	DPA-SPER	Director of provincial services of rural extension.
Elias Mula	DPA-SPER	Director of M&E department
Maria Chissico	DPA-SPER	Director of the department for producers' associations.
Rome		
Alessandro Marini	IFAD	Country Programme Manager Mozambique.

Name	Organization	Position
Alberta Mascaretti	FAO	Agricultural Officer

Nicaragua

Name	Organization	Position
Ana González	Sede de Asdi. Bolonia. Managua	Oficial de Programas
Lars Erickson	FondeAgro	Director
Francis Ortega Salinas	FondeAgro	Supervisora de la zona ganadera Matagalpa
Elizabeth Ritzo	FondeAgro	Supervisora Jinotega
Oscar Téllez	FondeAgro	Coordinador Crédito
Carlos Mejía	FondeAgro	Coordinador Producción
Eduardo Baumeister	FondeAgro	Coordinador Evaluación de Impacto
Patricia Salazar	FondeAgro	Coordinadora Titulación
Julio Solórzano	FondeAgro	Coordinador Agronegocios
Juan Ramón Obregón.	SERVITECA	Director
Hedgar Maamoros Haat	FUDEMAT	Gerente general
Alejandro Reyes	MAGFOR Matagalpa	Delegado
Emir Lopez Christian Vilchez Cristian Celedon Dora Lina Sandra Palacios Maria Elsa Palacios	Dirección de Extensión de la Coejecutora La Cuculmea	personal
mujeres directivas	Comités de Patio de las comunidades Los Mnachones, Las Pozas, El Barro y Las Cañas	
mujeres directivas	Comités de Patio de La Joba, Kitris y productoras beneficiarias de asistencia técnica	
mujeres directivas	Comités de Patio de y productoras beneficiarias de asistencia técnica	

Name	Organization	Position
mujeres	Comité de Patio de Río Blanco	

Zambia

Name	Organization	Position
People interviewed in Lusaka		
Eva Ohlsson, PhD	Embassy of Sweden	Programme Officer, Agriculture & Food Security
Agnes Kasalo-Ngolwe	Embassy of Sweden	Programme Officer, Agriculture & Food Security
Chris Coulter, PhD	InDevelop, Sweden	Gender Consultant
Martin Sekeleti	The Swedish Cooperative	Programme Officer for Study Circles
Dr. Richard M. Kamona	MACO	Deputy Director
Lameck Kaluba	MACO	Chief Agric Extension
Musonda Kunda	MACO	Senior Sociologist & MACO Gender/HIV&AIDS Focal Point
Barbara Collinson		Former ASP Consultant/Facilitator
Odd Arneson	Norwegian Embassy	
Edna Maluma		Former Facilitator ASP
Olly Otteby		Former MD ASP
Coillard Hamusimbi	Zambia National Farmers Union	Head-Outreach, Member Services & Administration
Charlotte Wonani	University of Zambia	Lecturer/Gender Consultant
People interviewed in Kabwe district		
Lewis Chikopela	MACO-Kabwe	Senior Agricultural Officer
P. S. Chisulo	MACO-Kabwe	Provincial Agric Coordinator
Malilakwenda Malambo	MACO-Kabwe	Agricultural Block Extension Officer

Name	Organization	Position
Hilda H. M. Sinkamba	MACO-Kabwe	Block Extension Officer
Chola Bwalya	MACO-Kabwe	Junior Technical Officer
Joline T.N. Chomba	MACO-Kabwe	Horticultural Officer
Jedidah Mbambara	MACO-Kabwe	Block Extension Officer
Enedý N Musonda	MACO-Kabwe	District Agricultural Information Officer
Mary M.N Mungabo	MACO-Kabwe	Crop Husbandry Officer
Kabela Chama	MACO-Kabwe	Camp Officer
Nosiku Kayama	MACO-Kabwe	Assistant Fisheries Technician
Doreen K. Mushimbwa	MACO-Kabwe	Agricultural Assistant
Edwin Miyoba	MACO-Kabwe	Land Husbandry Officer
Solomon Mudenda	Mukobeko Zone 3	ASP-Coded Farmer
Moses Kansonkomona	Mukobeko Zone 1	ASP-Coded Farmer
Power Kalusa	Mukobeko Zone 2	ASP-Coded Farmer
Davison Chitumbo	Mukobeko Zone 2	ASP-Coded Farmer
Stenaly Bwalya	Mukobeko Zone 2	ASP-Coded Farmer
James Zulu	Mukobeko Zone 2	ASP-Coded Farmer
Luckson Ziwa	Mukobeko Zone 2	ASP-Coded Farmer
Joseph A Nkuwa	Mukobeko Zone 3	ASP-Coded Farmer
Lawerence Zulu	Mukobeko Zone 2	Non-ASP-Coded Farmer
Anderson Mumba	Mukobeko Zone 3	ASP-Coded Farmer
Margaret Phiri	Mukobeko Zone 2	ASP-Coded Farmer
Blandina Miti	Mukobeko Zone 2	ASP-Coded Farmer
Edna Zulu	Mukobeko Zone 2	ASP-Coded Farmer
Eva Chilambo	Mukobeko Zone 2	ASP-Coded Farmer
Alice Mvula	Mukobeko Zone 2	ASP-Coded Farmer
Elinala Phiri	Mukobeko Zone 2	ASP-Coded Farmer
Hilih Mumani	Mukobeko Zone 2	ASP-Coded Farmer
Eva Chisenga	Mukobeko Zone 2	ASP-Coded Farmer
Glinesi Kasuba	Mukobeko Zone 2	ASP-Coded Farmer
Joseph Cheelo	MACO-Petauke	Senior Agricultural Officer

Name	Organization	Position
Joel B. Munkonka	MACO-Petauke	Camp Extension Officer
Charity Chisola	MACO-Petauke	Camp Extension Officer
Andrew Banda	MACO-Petauke	Agricultural Block Extension Officer
Epharaim J. Phiri	MACO-Petauke	Camp Extension Officer
Charles Chewe	MACO-Petauke	Agricultural Block Extension Officer
Tembo Synodia	MACO-Petauke	Agricultural Assistant
Goefil C. Phiri	Chimntanda Village	ASP-Coded Farmer
Joseph Mwanza	Chimntanda Village	ASP-Coded Farmer
Newsmaker Phiri	Chimntanda Village	ASP-Coded Farmer
Unikani Tembo	Chimntanda Village	ASP-Coded Farmer
Aoron Daka	Chimntanda Village	ASP-Coded Farmer
Mbili Banda	Chimntanda Village	ASP-Coded Farmer
Estele Phiri	Chimntanda Village	ASP-Coded Farmer
Sofia C. Phiri	Chimntanda Village	ASP-Coded Farmer
Emelia Phiri	Chimntanda Village	ASP-Coded Farmer
Dailless Phiri	Chimntanda Village	ASP-Coded Farmer
Kingford Chama	Chimntanda Village	ASP-Coded Farmer
Uda Mwanza	Chimntanda Village	ASP-Coded Farmer
Alex Banda	Chimntanda Village	ASP-Coded Farmer
Keson Banda	Chimntanda Village	ASP-Coded Farmer
Lucia Mwale	Chimntanda Village	ASP-Coded Farmer
Maxina Banda	Chimntanda Village	ASP-Coded Farmer
Emely Mwale	Chimntanda Village	ASP-Coded Farmer
Charity Chisolo	Nyamphande Village	ASP-Coded Farmer
Magreet Zulu	Nyamphande Village	ASP-Coded Farmer
Doris Daka	Nyamphande Village	ASP-Coded Farmer
Salome Mumba	Nyamphande Village	ASP-Coded Farmer
Ester Banda	Nyamphande Village	ASP-Coded Farmer
Catherine Banda	Nyamphande Village	ASP Coded Farmer
Arida Chirwa	Nyamphande Village	ASP-Coded Farmer
Francis Phiri	Nyamphande Village	ASP-Coded Farmer
Isaac Chirwa	Nyamphande Village	ASP-Coded Farmer

Name	Organization	Position
Fredrick Daka	Nyamphande Village	ASP-Coded Farmer
Michael Banda	Nyamphande Village	ASP-Coded Farmer
Yohan Sakala	Nyamphande Village	ASP Coded Farmer
Joseph Daka	Nyamphande Village	ASP-Coded Farmer
Jabes Mwanza	Nyamphande Village	ASP-Coded Farmer
Raymond I Lungu	Nyamphande Village	ASP-Coded Farmer
Wallace Banda	Nyamphande Village	ASP-Coded Farmer
Paul Zulu	Nyamphande Village	ASP-Coded Farmer
Boice Mwanza	Nyamphande Village	ASP-Coded Farmer
Arida Chirwa	Namphande Village	ASP-Coded Farmer

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Sida

Gender Aware Approaches in Agricultural Programmes

A Study of Sida-supported Agricultural Programmes

How can Sida's development assistance in agriculture be designed and implemented to ensure that women farmers are reached, that their needs as producers are met, and that it has a positive impact on their livelihoods? To address this question the experiences from five Sida supported programmes are studied. The programmes are the Agriculture Support Programme in Zambia, the Sida Amhara Rural Development Programme in Ethiopia, the Agriculture Development Programme in Mozambique, the Agricultural Development Fund in Nicaragua and, the National Agriculture and Livestock Extension Programme in Kenya.

The study finds examples of promising approaches in, for example, the Household Approach in Zambia and the Patio Approach in Nicaragua, that have been effective in tackling different gender constraints. However, the study also finds that in no programme was gender mainstreamed across all components and no programme prepared a coherent gender strategy to implement gender equity as a means of achieving better agricultural outcomes. Apart from gender mainstreaming the study specifically looks at gender in relation to extension services, control over assets, food security and markets.

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