



CHAPTER 1

# Introduction

Agnes Quisumbing, Ruth Meinzen-Dick, and Jemimah Njuki

Fifteen years ago, in July 2004, the heads of state and government of member states of the African Union signed a Solemn Declaration to reaffirm their commitment to gender equality in Africa (African Union 2004). Ten years later, the Malabo Declaration on Accelerated Agricultural Growth and Transformation for Shared Prosperity and Improved Livelihoods set forth new goals for a more targeted approach to achieve the agricultural vision for the continent, which is shared prosperity and improved livelihoods (African Union 2014b). In a series of seven commitments, that declaration reconfirmed that agriculture is a critical sector for African economic growth and poverty reduction and should remain high on the development agenda of the continent. The Malabo Declaration affirmed the African Union's resolve to ensure, through "deliberate and targeted public support," that all segments of the African population, "women, the youth, and other disadvantaged sectors," must "participate and directly benefit from the growth and transformation opportunities to improve their lives and livelihoods." The commitment to halving poverty by 2025 through inclusive agricultural growth and transformation states that governments will support and facilitate preferential entry and participation for women and youth in gainful and attractive agribusiness opportunities (African Union 2014b). However, this is the only commitment to mention women explicitly, and as stated, it focuses on women as a single category, not in relation to men, their families, and communities.

While firmly committed to gender equality, the Solemn Declaration is grounded in a concern for women's reproductive health in light of the HIV/AIDS epidemic, women's human rights, and women's freedom from gender-based violence, discrimination, and sexual exploitation. The Declaration nevertheless advocates for strengthening women's land, property, and inheritance rights, as well as literacy campaigns and education for all. The African Union's Agenda 2063 lays out an aspiration for "an Africa where development is people-driven, unleashing the potential of its women and youth" (African Union 2014a, 2). The details lay out specific aspirations: "The African woman will be fully empowered in all spheres, with equal social, political and economic rights, including the rights to own and inherit property, sign a contract, register and manage a

business. Rural women will have access to productive assets, including land, credit, inputs and financial services" (African Union 2014a, 9).

For the Malabo commitments and the African Union's commitments and aspirations for gender equality to be aligned with each other, a gender lens must be applied to assess progress and identify gaps toward achieving both gender equality and the Malabo Declaration goals, so that women are recognized as productive members of society and partners in agricultural transformation and poverty reduction. This requires explicit attention to the productive as well as reproductive roles of women and men, and how gender norms and institutional structures affect access to resources, livelihood strategies, and well-being outcomes. In addition, monitoring progress toward these commitments also requires that sex-disaggregated data on those outcomes exist: what is measured matters. In 2018, for example, African countries produced the first-ever Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP) Biennial Review (BR) report along with the Africa Agriculture Transformation Scorecard. The CAADP BR reports the progress countries are making on the seven Malabo Declaration commitments. While the BR was a big success, many countries did not do well on reporting on gender-related indicators due to lack of data—and it is unclear whether progress has been made or not. Out of 43 indicators included in the reporting guidelines, only three women- and/or gender-related indicators are included: the proportion of men and women engaged in agriculture with access to financial services, the proportion of women empowered in agriculture, and the growth rate of minimum dietary diversity for women (AUC 2017). The indicator used for women's empowerment, although supposed to be based on the five domains of empowerment in the Women's Empowerment in Agriculture Index (WEAI) (Alkire et al. 2013), in practice used only one indicator, the percentage of rural women with access to productive assets in agriculture.<sup>1</sup> Even indicators for child nutrition, which are gathered from individual boys and girls, were reported without any sex disaggregation, preventing countries from discerning whether there are gender differences in nutritional outcomes and identifying strategies that better target the different sexes.

---

1 The CAADP BR (2017) classifies women with access to productive assets in agriculture as empowered, but this is only one indicator in the full WEAI.

How can commitments to gender<sup>2</sup> equality and to agricultural growth and transformation be consistent? First, we identify which among the Malabo commitments require using a gender lens for them to be satisfied. We then present a conceptual framework for this report, which examines the intersections between gender and (1) context and institutions; (2) natural resource management, vulnerability, and resilience to climate shocks; (3) assets; and (4) livelihoods, to assess how these can interact to achieve development goals such as poverty reduction, zero hunger, gender equality, and women's empowerment. We show how the Malabo commitments to zero hunger, poverty reduction, intraregional trade, and resilience fit into this framework. We then summarize the chapters and case studies in this report.

## *The Malabo Declaration Commitments*

The Malabo Declaration sets forth seven commitments to achieve shared prosperity and improved livelihoods through inclusive agricultural growth (Box 1.1). Although all the commitments lay a foundation for policy and program implementation, they do not pay explicit attention to gender. However, among the seven commitments, realizing those to end hunger, reduce poverty, boost intra-African trade, and increase resilience to climate and other risks will not be possible to achieve without taking gender into account. Moreover, adhering to commitments on accountability will not be possible without data systems that provide information on gender gaps in processes and outcomes.

## *Conceptual Framework: Engendering Pathways from the Malabo Commitments to Outcomes*

To identify pathways from commitments to outcomes toward the goals of agricultural transformation, poverty reduction, and gender equality and to set the stage for the detailed chapters and case studies in this report, we adapt the conceptual framework of the Gender, Agriculture, and Assets Project (GAAP; see Meinzen-Dick et al. 2011). The GAAP conceptual framework, inspired by the Sustainable Livelihoods Framework (Bebbington 1999; DFID 2001), takes the gendered nature of use, ownership, and control of assets as a starting point

and links assets, livelihoods, and well-being outcomes (Figure 1.1). Using assets (and resources, broadly defined to include natural, physical, financial, social, and human capital) as a starting point recognizes that for Africa's agricultural transformation to happen, men and women must have the necessary assets and resources to make a living from and transform the sector. This framework shows the links between assets and well-being while emphasizing that gender relations influence the constraints and opportunities that occur in each pathway. In the framework, each component is gendered, including the overall context of ecological, social, economic, and political factors. Within that broad context, each component is shaded to remind us that we need to consider the assets, resources, and opportunities that men and women have or use separately and those that they have and use jointly. Women and men often have separate assets, activities, and consumption and savings or investment strategies, but households can also have joint assets, activities, and consumption strategies, among others. Agricultural transformation can affect whole families jointly but can also have differential impacts on men and women.

The context includes a broad range of ecological, social, economic, and political factors. Even if individuals are living in the same household, men and women typically experience this context differently based on their roles and responsibilities and other social, economic, and cultural factors. In some cases, the gendered nature of the context is explicit. For example, cultural norms may define roles and responsibilities for men and women in agriculture and even in their families, and in some cases men and women are treated differently by laws or legal provisions. For example, if men are automatically designated as head of the household, and agricultural extension or other resources are directed to the head of the household, it may disadvantage women, with serious implications for agriculture productivity and food and nutrition security. In some societies, women may traditionally be deemed responsible for cultivating food crops for their families' consumption, while men may be responsible for cultivating other crops, including cash crops, important to household welfare. In other societies, the gender division of labor by crop may be flexible, and all over the continent, the gender division of labor may be changing (Doss and Morris 2001).

---

2 The guidelines for the 2020 Biennial Review call for reporting sex-disaggregated data on access to credit, secure land rights, child nutritional status, and women with minimum dietary diversity, as well as the five domains of empowerment: the proportion of women that make decisions about agricultural production, productive resources, control over income, community leadership, and time. How many countries are able to report on these remains to be seen.

### BOX 1.1—COMMITMENTS IN THE MALABO DECLARATION

Here is a summary of the seven commitments in the Malabo Declaration:

1. Recommitment to the principles and values of the Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP) process, which include the pursuit of agriculture-led growth as a main strategy to achieve targets on food and nutrition security and shared prosperity; the exploitation of regional complementarities and cooperation to boost growth; the application of principles of evidence-based planning, policy efficiency, dialogue, review, and accountability, shared by all New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) programs; the use of partnerships and alliances including farmers, agribusiness, and civil society; and supporting implementation at the country level and regional coordination and harmonization.
2. Enhancing investment finance, both public and private, in agriculture, including allocating at least 10 percent of public expenditure to agriculture; creating and enhancing policy and institutional conditions and support systems to facilitate private investment in agriculture; and fast-tracking the operationalization of the African Investment Bank to mobilize and disburse investment finance for priority agriculture investment projects.
3. Ending hunger in Africa by 2025, to include (1) accelerating agricultural growth to double agricultural productivity by creating policy and institutional conditions and support systems to facilitate sustainable production and access to quality and affordable inputs, supply of knowledge, information, and skills to users, efficient and effective water management systems, and reliable and affordable mechanization and energy sources; (2) halving current levels of postharvest losses; (3) integrating measures for increased agricultural productivity through social protection initiatives focusing on vulnerable groups; and (4) improving nutritional status, specifically the elimination of child under-nutrition in Africa with a view to bringing down stunting to 10 percent and underweight to 5 percent by 2025.
4. Halving poverty by 2025 through inclusive agricultural growth and transformation, by ensuring that the agricultural growth and transformation process is inclusive and contributes at least 50 percent to the overall poverty reduction target; creating and enhancing the necessary appropriate policy, institutional, and budgetary support and conditions to sustain annual agricultural GDP growth of at least 6 percent; establishing and/or strengthening inclusive public-private partnerships for at least five priority agricultural commodity value chains with strong linkage to smallholder agriculture; creating job opportunities for at least 30 percent of the youth in agricultural value chains; and supporting and facilitating preferential entry and participation for women and youth in gainful and attractive agribusiness opportunities.
5. Boosting intra-African trade in commodities and services by tripling (by 2025) intra-African trade in agricultural commodities and services; creating and enhancing policies and institutions to simplify and formalize current trade practices; fast-tracking the establishment of a Continental Free Trade Area and transitioning to a continental Common External Tariff scheme; increasing and facilitating investment in markets and trade infrastructure; promoting and strengthening platforms for multi-actor integration; and strengthening and streamlining the coordination mechanisms to promote an African common position on international agricultural trade and partnership agreements.
6. Enhancing resilience of livelihoods and production systems to climate variability and other related risks, by ensuring that by 2025 at least 30 percent of agricultural households are resilient to climate- and weather-related risks; enhancing investments for resilience-building initiatives; and mainstreaming resilience and risk management in policies, strategies, and investment plans.
7. Mutual accountability to actions and results, through a systematic review process, using the CAADP Results Framework, including conducting a biennial Agricultural Review Process that involves tracking, monitoring, and reporting on progress; fostering alignment, harmonization, and coordination among multisectoral and multi-institutional platforms for peer review, mutual learning, and mutual accountability; and strengthening national and regional capacities for knowledge and data generation and management that support evidence-based planning, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation.

Source: African Union (2014b).

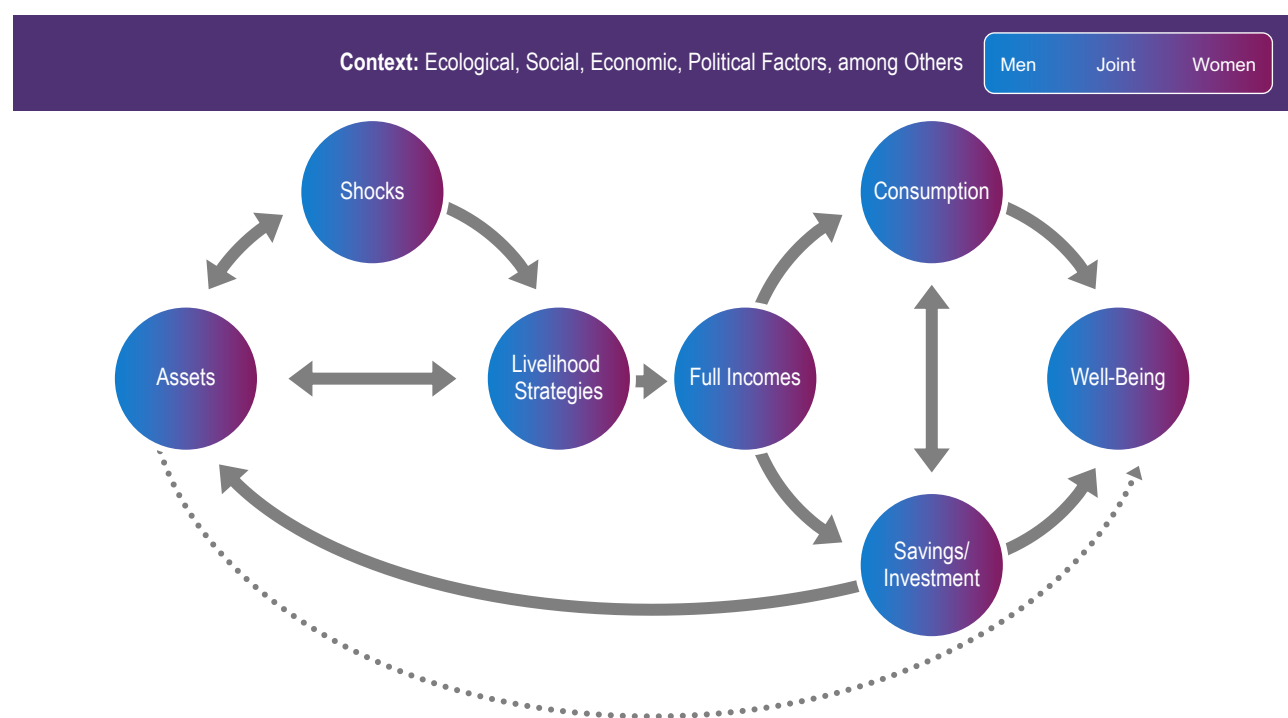
The links between culture, context, and gender roles cannot be taken for granted, as discussed in Chapter 2, on social norms. Culture and context also set the stage for concepts of leadership. Chapter 3 on leadership analyzes current data on women's leadership, both political and in the agriculture sector, where women continue to lag behind men. The underrepresentation of women in many spheres can be attributed to a combination of factors, including differences in human capital, sociocultural, and institutional factors. A policy environment and legal institutions that do not discriminate against people based on sex, race, or ethnicity are important parts of the context to deliver on the Malabo commitments.

In addition to cultural and legal institutions already mentioned, the “institutions of exchange” are especially important, as they condition the ways through which livelihood strategies are translated into incomes. Markets are the most obvious institutions of exchange, but social reciprocity norms (such as mutual help groups for labor or norms of sharing food) also play a critical role. These institutions include not only markets for agricultural production but also labor markets, in which women's participation tends to be more limited than men's. The commitment to support women's and youth's preferential entry into agribusiness markets, as well as the availability of intra-African trade opportunities to women, are ways by which the Malabo commitments may create opportunities to participate in, and benefit from, the institutions of exchange. Trade liberalization, however, does not necessarily benefit women and men equally, unless underlying structural inequalities in access to resources as well as sociocultural norms, legal barriers, and socioeconomic disadvantages are addressed, as suggested by the findings in Chapter 8.

## Assets

Access to and control over assets are key determinants of individual agency. The shading in this and all other components of the diagram reflects that within a household there are assets that are held by women, some that are held by men, and others that are owned and/or utilized jointly. The distribution of assets in a particular household will influence how the household and its members use their assets to further their livelihoods and improve well-being. In this report, we focus on two types of assets: land and financial capital. The Malabo Declaration does not directly address gender differences in the ownership, control, and use of assets, but the Solemn Declaration aims to “actively promote the implementation of legislation to guarantee women's land, property and inheritance rights,

**FIGURE 1.1—SCHEMATIC REPRESENTATION OF A GENDERED LIVELIHOOD CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK**



Source: Adapted from Meinzen-Dick et al. (2011).

particularly to housing” (African Union 2004, 3). Gender issues regarding the use, ownership, and control over these assets and resources are explored in Chapter 4 on land and Chapter 5 on financial inclusion.

## Livelihood Strategies

The livelihood strategies represent decisions that individuals and households make about how to invest their assets in productive and reproductive activities to generate expected returns. The Malabo commitment most relevant in shaping livelihood opportunities is the commitment to halve hunger through inclusive agricultural growth and transformation. As noted above, this is the only commitment that explicitly mentions women and youth as target groups.

The livelihood strategies available in a particular area will depend on many of the contextual factors, such as agroecology and market access, which may be heavily influenced by gender roles. Whether men and women will be able to pursue the available strategies will further depend on what assets those livelihood strategies require, and on how “household assets” are allocated across different household members to enable them to engage in specific livelihood strategies. In some cases, men and women pursue different livelihood strategies; however, they may also be involved in joint activities such as “family farms” or family businesses. The diagram also shows a reverse arrow from livelihood strategies to assets, to capture how some assets like social or natural capital can be built or depleted in the process of carrying out livelihood strategies.

In this report, we look at the following issues related to gender and livelihoods: (1) agricultural productivity—Case Study 3; (2) adoption and diffusion of biofortified crop varieties—Case Study 4; (3) value chains—Chapter 6; (4) employment, with a focus on youth—Chapter 7; and (5) trade—Chapter 8.

## Shocks and Resilience

Actual returns to different activities may also be affected by shocks (negative or positive). Weather, disease, violent conflicts, theft, and even sudden policy changes represent potential shocks. Shocks such as weather shocks or widespread food price increases can also affect a wide area at a given time or could be specific to the household (death or illness of an income earner) or an individual (divorce or abandonment). Because negative shocks can have long-term consequences for livelihoods, increasing attention has been paid to resilience, defined as “the ability of people, households, communities, countries and systems to mitigate, adapt to and recover from shocks and stresses in a manner that reduces chronic vulnerability and facilitates inclusive growth” (USAID 2012, 5).

Resilience or vulnerability to shocks can be gendered because (1) men and women experience shocks differently depending on their different roles and responsibilities; (2) men and women have a differential ability to withstand shocks, owing to differential access to means to cope with shocks, such as irrigation, insurance, or social protection; and (3) men’s and women’s assets, as well as their savings and investments, are often used differently to respond to shocks.

In addition to shocks affecting communities and households, there are also shocks that specifically affect women and lead to the loss of their assets and threaten their livelihood strategies. For example, divorce or the death of a husband can lead to women losing their assets especially in cases where marriage is governed under customary laws that do not protect women’s rights to property (Peterman 2010).

Both the importance of resilience to shocks and the need to protect the most vulnerable are recognized by the Malabo commitments to enhance resilience of livelihoods and production systems and to end hunger, which advocates for social protection initiatives focusing on vulnerable groups. However, the Malabo Declaration does not explicitly address women’s vulnerability to marital dissolution—one of the major types of shocks and sources of vulnerability for women. The Solemn Declaration mentions women’s land, property, and inheritance rights, but it does not mention women’s rights to property in case of marital dissolution. However, the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and People’s Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa notes that “in case of separation, divorce, or annulment of marriage, women and men shall have the right to an equitable sharing of the joint property deriving from the marriage (African Union 2003, 9). The reform of the Family Code in Ethiopia, which guaranteed equal rights to spouses upon marital dissolution (including both widowhood and divorce), has been associated with improvements in women’s well-being and schooling outcomes for girls in rural Ethiopia (Kumar and Quisumbing 2012). In this report we pay attention to resilience in agricultural production in Chapter 9, as well as to gendered aspects of social protection programs in Chapter 10.

## Full Income

The livelihood strategies and shocks result in a household’s full income, which is defined as the total net value of products and services produced by the household members or transferred to members, some of which are consumed directly and others sold for cash or traded for other goods or services. The concept of full income also includes leisure time of household members. Because it is more



likely for women's time to be devoted to nonmarket or reproductive activities—including growing food consumed at home, caring for children, and caring for the ill—measures of income that do not consider the value of time will tend to underestimate women's contribution.

Household members differ in their contributions to household income, and they also differ in their control over how that income is used. A large body of evidence shows that in many parts of the world men and women spend money differently: women are more likely to spend the income they control on food, healthcare, and education of their children (Haddad, Hoddinott, and Alderman 1997; Yoong, Rabinovich, and Diepeveen 2012). Yet many efforts to increase market orientation of smallholder agricultural production have led to women's loss of control over income from crops that they traditionally produced, especially as such crops' cultivation becomes more profitable. This is one aspect of the commitment to increase women's opportunity to enter agribusiness that needs to be monitored closely, as the chapters on control of income (Chapter 11) and value chains (Chapter 6) will show. We focus on control of income rather than control of spending because the former is broader, including how income is allocated between consumption and savings/investment (below), rather than decision making about how expenditures are allocated.

## Savings and Investment

Full income is either consumed or invested. Savings are the balance of income that is not consumed. How savings are invested will affect asset accumulation (or loss) for the future. If kept in a bank account, savings would increase financial capital; if used to purchase equipment or build a house, savings builds physical capital; if used to buy land, plant a tree, or install irrigation (water control), savings increase natural capital; and if used for school fees, savings help to build human capital.

The Malabo commitment to enhance investment finance should not neglect the mobilization of savings from individual men and women. Efforts to promote financial inclusion should attempt to reach smallholder farmers, and because access to financial services tends to be more difficult for women, gender-sensitive ways to increase women's access to financial services must be explored.

Although much economic theory dichotomizes between consumption and savings, in fact the dividing line is not so clear. Certain types of consumption can also increase intangible assets of human and social capital. Consumption of healthy food, clean water, adequate shelter, and a clean environment improves nutrition and health outcomes for adults and children, thereby improving human capital. A large body of evidence shows that investments in early childhood nutrition—and their opposite, malnutrition in early childhood—have implications for outcomes later in life, and even across generations (Alderman, Hoddinott, and Kinsey 2006; Hoddinott et al. 2013). The link between women's control of resources and better human capital outcomes is well established (Yoong, Rabinovich, and Diepeveen 2012), but the role of men in achieving good nutrition of families is less explored. To that end, Case Study 5 analyzes how men can be brought on board as partners in achieving better nutrition in Malawi's Nutrition Policy.

## Empowerment and Well-Being

Our framework shows how gender and assets influence well-being of households and individuals. Many outcomes related to well-being that are of interest to policy makers and development donors are linked to the results of consumption (education, food security, nutrition, health), though with clear links to investment and asset accumulation because achieving these well-being outcomes requires the ability to maintain and build up assets over time. Other aspects of well-being, such as self-esteem, one's status within the household and society, agency, and empowerment, are less easy to measure but are also important, and are increasingly being considered as development goals in themselves.

One such goal is expanding individuals' incomes and consumption choices, but also empowering them—expanding their ability to make strategic life choices, particularly in contexts where this ability had been denied to them (Kabeer 1999).<sup>3</sup> Being empowered has also been shown to positively affect the health and nutrition of children and their mothers (Smith et al. 2003; Sraboni et al. 2014; Malapit et al. 2015; Malapit and Quisumbing 2015), so these goals are inter-related. Empowerment also contributes to improved agricultural productivity, which can improve income and other outcomes in the future (Diirro et al. 2018;

3 There is a growing literature on the measurement of empowerment (see Kabeer 1999; Alsop et al. 2005), including recent efforts to measure women's empowerment in agriculture (Alkire et al. 2013; Malapit et al. 2019).

Wouterse 2017, 2019). We are beginning to measure women's empowerment in a systematic way that allows comparisons across time, as discussed in Case Study 6.

This gendered conceptual framework helps to identify key empowerment outcomes and analyze how the commitments made in the Malabo Declaration help to achieve them; however, to track and monitor progress in attaining these empowerment outcomes, data for monitoring and evaluation need to be gendered, as discussed in Chapter 12.

## Outline of the Report

This report draws heavily upon the growing body of data, analyses, and documented policy and practice on gender differences in African agriculture. It includes both chapters and case studies from researchers and practitioners. The following is an overview of the issues and themes taken up in the remaining sections of this report.

## Setting the Context

Chapters 2 and 3 set the stage for the report. Chapter 2 on social norms addresses the issues of definition of norms and the links between norms and women's empowerment and how these play out in the agriculture sector. A key feature of this chapter is the details on how norms define what is acceptable or not acceptable for women and how this defines women's lives. The chapter includes a case study illustrating how social norms vary in patrilineal and matrilineal areas of Malawi (Case Study 1) and another on engaging men and boys to change harmful social norms as well as how to measure norm change (Case Study 2). Chapter 3, on leadership, focuses on how to build transformative female leadership. It starts with definitions and key features of transformational leadership, the current status of women's leadership and politics, and how that is mirrored in the agriculture sector. It describes the barriers that women face and some of the strategies to close the gap in leadership.

## Assets and Capital

The section on assets and capital focuses on two important assets: land and financial capital.

Chapter 4 on land provides a broad view of land policies in 10 African countries with regard to women's land rights. But policies are not sufficient, without implementation, so the chapter reviews aspects of land administration that affect gender differences in land rights in those 10 countries. It then

examines evidence from four of those countries on factors that affect women's land rights in practice, noting that demographic, social, and economic changes such as increased youth population, population density, agricultural commercialization, and land market vibrancy are all associated with lower women's land rights, while land registration can have mixed effects on gender equity in land rights.

Chapter 5 focuses on gender transformative financial inclusion. The chapter starts with a description of the current status of women's financial inclusion and the gender gaps using key indicators of financial inclusion such as the ownership of a bank or mobile account. The chapter looks at the demand and supply barriers to women's financial inclusion and the extent to which technology is being used to address some of these gaps. The chapter recommends a paradigm shift in financial inclusion to change the way financial institutions enable women to transform their lives by becoming "womenable" (rather than by making women "bankable") and addressing some of the critical barriers to women's financial inclusion and economic empowerment. The chapter uses the financial inclusion value chain from market research to product development, delivery, and impact measurement to show how gender considerations can be more adequately integrated.

## Livelihoods

The livelihoods section discusses pathways to improving livelihoods and the gendered nature of these pathways. Case Study 3 focuses on the gender gaps in agricultural productivity and the causes of these gaps, especially the differential access to resources by men and women, and women's lower probability of engaging in high-value crops and livestock. The authors document some of the challenges of measuring the gender gap in agricultural productivity and propose policy actions for closing the gap.

Case Study 4 describes the role of gender in the adoption and utilization of biofortified crops and then takes a value chain approach from input supplies to consumption to illustrate the integration of gendered ways in which these nodes of the value chain are structured. The chapter ends by proposing a gendered biofortification value chain that can be applicable to other technologies as well.

Chapter 6 delves more deeply into how value chains can be made more inclusive. It outlines the benefits of building inclusive market systems, of which gender-equitable agricultural value chains are an important component,



summarizes recent work on women's entrepreneurship in agriculture, and examines how value chain interventions may be categorized as those that seek to reach, benefit, or empower women.

Chapter 7 focuses on employment of young women and men in rural Africa. The chapter starts by detailing the processes of structural and rural transformation across the continent, which are occurring even as the youth population bulges. The authors describe the barriers that young women face, including fewer opportunities in certain careers and social norms that leave women with the majority of the care work. They further analyze how different young men and women fare in the job market, depending on their marital status and the presence of children in their households. The chapter ends with a review of programs targeted to African youth and suggests that a better understanding of the gendered transitions to adulthood is important for more effective youth programming.

The last chapter in this section (Chapter 8) focuses on gender and trade. The chapter reviews the theoretical and empirical evidence on gender and trade, and then presents data on trade and gendered economic activities in Niger. It assesses the ex ante gendered economic impact in Niger of a customs union scheme enacted in 2013 to strengthen and accelerate regional integration among the 15 members of the Economic Community of West African States. The findings suggest that trade may not improve gender equality unless it addresses underlying gender inequalities in access to productive resources, such as agricultural land and other physical capital. Neither will trade improve women's employment prospects if they are concentrated in sectors that are less exposed to trade.

## Shocks and Resilience

This section has two chapters. Chapter 9 focuses on resilience to climate and other shocks. It provides a framework for systematically identifying gender differences from risk exposure to outcomes of productivity and nutrition. It shows how resilience capacities—absorptive, adaptive, and transformative—are affected by gender differences in assets. This, in turn, shapes decision making and responses, resulting in different outcomes at different levels. In addition to examples illustrating how this applies in practice, the chapter provides guiding questions to help decision makers design and implement programs that address gender in resilience strategies.

Chapter 10 focuses on gender dimensions of social protection. It reviews the earlier literature on how social protection initiatives targeted women to achieve their programmatic outcomes as well as more recent approaches that use social protection as a means to achieve gender equality and women's empowerment. The chapter outlines some of the ways in which social protection can be used to achieve gender equality, including addressing gender in program design, developing payment and transfer mechanisms that work for women, and measuring gender equality and women's empowerment outcomes from social protection programs.

## Income and Control of Income

Chapter 11 discusses why women's control of income is important for their own empowerment, for other development outcomes such as child nutrition and education, and for investments in agriculture. The authors discuss current evidence and gaps in data on women's control of income including from data collected to compute the WEAI and the factors that influence women's control of income. These include characteristics of markets such as types of and distance to markets, the types of crops and livestock enterprises, and intrahousehold dynamics.

## Well-Being and Empowerment

Many programs and policies target women in order to achieve their development objectives. Yet expecting gender norms to change without involving men is unrealistic. Focusing development programs, particularly those on child health and nutrition, on women alone not only reinforces gender stereotypes about women as caregivers but may also increase women's time burdens. It may also be a missed opportunity to involve men. Case Study 5, on the role of men in Malawi's nutrition policy, examines the opportunities and challenges for men to play a supportive and complementary role in nutrition.

Numerous internationally comparable indicators of well-being, such as health and nutritional status, exist at the individual level. In contrast, only relatively recently have internationally validated measures of women's empowerment been developed. Previous attempts to measure empowerment have used questions on household decision making, such as those from the Demographic and Health Surveys, which, although multicountry in scope and internationally validated, have tended to focus on decision making in the reproductive rather than productive sphere. A more recent, internationally validated measure, the WEAI, captures women's empowerment in the productive

sphere (Alkire et al. 2013). Case Study 6 provides an overview of women's (and men's) empowerment in Africa, based on surveys conducted as part of the Feed the Future Initiative (Malapit et al. 2014). It finds that lack of access to and decision-making power over credit, workload, and lack of control over income are the most important contributors to the disempowerment of African women farmers. Identifying the most important contributors to disempowerment can be used to guide the design and implementation of policies and programs to empower women and achieve gender equality.

## Data

Evidence-based findings would be impossible to generate without reliable, sex-disaggregated data. Chapter 12 discusses both the need for and availability of gender data on rural women. Building on the themes of this report, the authors particularly focus on assets, income, and work; social and political empowerment; and food security and nutrition. The interlinkage between women's economic and social roles and the need to understand women both as individuals and as members of households create challenges for collection of adequate data to measure women's contributions. However, recent advances in measurement approaches, along with the adoption of common international standards for collection and reporting of sex-disaggregated data and data on women's empowerment, offer encouraging signs that future policies will be able to build on more accurate diagnosis and monitoring of gender issues.

In line with the role of the Annual Trends and Outlook Report (ATOR) as the official monitoring and evaluation report for CAADP, Chapter 13 monitors progress on CAADP indicators outlined in the CAADP Results Framework 2015–2025. The chapter also reviews progress in the CAADP implementation process across the continent including the formulation of second-generation national agriculture investment plans (NAIPs) and preparation of the second BR report and the Africa Agriculture Transformation Scorecard (AATS) to be presented during the African Union summit of heads of state and government in January 2020.

## The Way Forward

The concluding chapter (14) points out promising avenues for future work in research, policy, and program design and implementation. It briefly revisits the evidence presented in the other chapters on how gender gaps in assets, livelihood strategies, and control over income have negative effects on households, communities, and nations. The conceptual framework of this report shows the connections among these elements, and the implications for interventions. For example, women's assets can contribute to resilience, while insurance and social protection can affect livelihood strategies. Analysis of these relationships can lead to more effective interventions; the concluding chapter reprises the recommendations and key insights from the individual chapters for more effective programs and policy.