



**Ministry of Agriculture and Natural Resource
(MoANR)**

Gender Equality Strategy for Ethiopia's Agriculture Sector

Final draft

Women Affairs Directorate of the MoANR

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Acronyms and abbreviations

ACCRA	Africa Climate Change Resilience Alliance
ADLI	Agricultural Development Led Industrialization
AGP	Agriculture Growth Program
AKLDP	Agriculture Knowledge Learning Documentation and Policy Project
ANRS	Amhara National Regional State
ATA	Agricultural Transformation Agency
ATVET	Agricultural Technical and Vocational Education Training
BMI	Body Mass Index
BoA	Bureau of Agriculture
BoWCA	Bureau of Women & Children's Affairs
CAADP	Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Program
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women
CIGs	Common interest groups
CRGE	Climate Resilient Green Economy
CSA	Central Statistics Authority
DA	Development Agent
DFATD	Department of Foreign Aid and Trade Development (now renamed as Global Affairs Canada)
DFID	Department of International Development
DRM	Disaster risk management
DRR	Disaster Risk Reduction
DRR	Disaster Risk Reduction
EDHS	Ethiopia Demographic and Health Survey
EIAR	Ethiopia Institute of Agricultural Research
FDRE	Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia
FGM	Female Genital Mutilation
FHHs	Female Headed Household
FSCD	Food Security Coordination Directorate
FTC	Farmers Training Centre
GAC	Global Affairs Canada
GDP	Growth Domestic Products
GES	Gender Equality Strategy
GESAS	National Gender Equality Strategy for Ethiopia's Agriculture Sector
GEWE	Gender Equality and Women Empowerment
GFU	Gender focal unit
GoE	Government of Ethiopia
GSD	Gender and Social Development
GTP	Growth and Transformation Plan
HEP	Health Extension Program
HH	Household
HRD	Humanitarian Requirements Document
ICC/BCC	Information Change Communication/Behavioural Change Communication
IDDRSI	Drought Disaster Resilience and Sustainability Initiative
IFAD	International Fund for Agriculture Development
IFPRI	International Food Policy Research Institute
IGA	Income Generation Activities
IGs	Innovation groups
LIAS	Livelihood Impact Analysis Sheets

MEL	Monitoring, evaluation and learning
MoA	Ministry of Agriculture
MoANR	Ministries of Agriculture and Natural Resources and Ministry of Livestock and Fisheries
MoANR	Ministry of Agriculture and Natural Resource
MoFEC	Ministry of Finance and Economic Cooperation
MoFED	Ministry of Finance and Economic Development
MoH	Ministry of Health
MoLF	Ministry of Livestock and Fisheries
MoWCA	Ministry of Women & Children's Affairs
MoWCYA	Ministry of Women, Children and Youth Affairs
NARS	National Agricultural Research System
NGO	Non-Government Organization
NNP	National Nutrition Program
NRMD	Natural Resource Management Directorate
PASDEP	Plan for Accelerated and Sustainable Development Program
PCDP	Pastoral Community Development Project
PIM	Project Implementation Manual
PRIME	Pastoralist Area Resilience Improvement through Market Expansion
PSNP	Productive Safety Net Program
REAP	Research for Ethiopia's Agriculture Policy
RPLRP	Regional Pastoral Livelihood Resilience Project
SAM	Severe Acute Malnutrition
SDG	Sustainable Development Goals
SLMP	Sustainable Land Management Program
SNNPR	Southern Nations, Nationalities and Peoples Regional State
SPIF	Strategic Policy Investment Framework
TF	Taskforce
ToC	Theory of Change
TOT	Training of Trainers
ToR	Terms of Reference
TVET	Technical and Vocational Education and Training
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNDP	United Nation Development Program
UNFPA	United Nations Fund for Population UN United Nations
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
WAB	Women's Affairs Bureau
WAD	Women Affairs Directorate
WB	World Bank
WFP	World Food Program
WDA	Women Development Army
WDRP	Woreda Disaster Risk Profiles
WHH	Women Headed Household
WMHH	Women in Male Headed Household (wife)
WSFS	World Summit on Food Security

Executive Summary

Agriculture is central to Ethiopia's economy and the livelihood of its people. Around 82 per cent of Ethiopia's people live and work in rural areas. The agriculture sector accounts for 80 per cent of the employment, 46 per cent of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP), and 90 per cent of export earnings. The majority of farmers are small holders and female headed-households account for 20 per cent.

Although women represent half of the population and contribute about 70 per cent of the food production in Ethiopia, they do not share equally in the fruits of development. Gender inequalities are socially determined and maintained by deeply rooted attitudes and cultural traditions that define women as subordinate resulting in an unequal balance of power between men and women. Women suffer multiple disadvantage: as poor people they live under harsh conditions like their male counterparts; as women farmers or pastoralists they undertake burdensome duties outside of the home to sustain their families and they also carry responsibility for all domestic work and caring for children, the elderly and sick family members.

Gender equality is enshrined in the Constitution, national laws and policies. Ethiopia has also endorsed international equality conventions. All Government ministries, agencies, organisations and institutions are mandated to incorporate gender equality in their strategies, policies and programmes. Gender responsive planning and budgeting (GRB) is expected to be mainstreamed throughout Government organisations as a mechanism to improve gender equality. This expectation applies to the Ministry of Agriculture and Natural Resources (MoANR) and its affiliated institutions. Indeed, the current policies of the Ministry make specific references to gender equality. However, the evidence shows that these commitments to gender equality have not been achieved within the agricultural sector. The gender equality strategy aims to address this issue.

Gender equality is a right but there are also pragmatic, economic reasons for initiating a strategy. International evidence shows that women have less access than men to productive resources and opportunities and, as result, women farmers produce less per hectare than men. In Ethiopia women are estimated to be 23 per cent less productive than men. According the UN Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO) providing women farmers equal access to productive resources could increase yields on their farms by 20-30 per cent and raise total agricultural output by between 2.5-4 per cent reducing the number of hungry people in the world by 12-17 per cent or by 100–150 million. Research evidence shows that women are much more likely than men to spend their income on matters that benefit the family; food, health and education for children. Increasing gender equality can therefore make a large contribution to improving nutrition, health and educational outcomes thereby making improvements that benefit the whole society.

The main objective of the gender equality strategy for Ethiopia's agriculture sector is to provide the framework for transforming agriculture and increasing its role in economic development. In this respect the strategy supports the main aims of Ethiopia's current national plan; the Growth and Transformation Plan II.

Gender inequality in the agriculture sector

Despite increasing attention being paid to gender in numerous policies and strategies, the evidence shows that women farmers (and this term is used to include women engaged in pastoral and agro pastoral livelihoods) do not receive equal treatment.

Gender stereotypes which define men as the householder and decision maker and discriminate against women perpetuate unfair treatment within the household and the community. Women's work, inside and outside of the home, is not recognised and women are denied equality in terms of decision making and participation in opportunities that would enable them to raise their productivity as farmers.

Women farmers have less access to land and the resources needed to boost production. Extension services that provide improved seed, fertilizers, new tools, technology and training are mainly accessed by men. Women in pastoral areas are particularly ill-served by extension services. Married women (74 per cent of women farmers) are disadvantaged as the assumption is made that training and access to other resources will be available to them via their husbands. Research shows that this does not hold true. Cultural constraints may also limit women's ability to participate in opportunities for improving livelihoods outside of the home. The problem is compounded by the lack of female development agents (DAs) who might be better placed to assist women farmers.

Female-headed households (FHHs), while having greater decision making powers, are disadvantaged in other ways. **On average they work smaller plots, have fewer livestock and less labour available to farm.** This, and their sole responsibility for family and all domestic chores, means that they have an acute shortage of time.

There are distinct gendered patterns in off-farm production and value added activities; men tend to own and work with the higher value animals, for example cattle, while women are allocated smaller animals, such as poultry. This pattern is replicated in value chain activities with substantial research evidence showing that men dominate the higher value end of production and the derived income.

Women have particular difficulty in accessing credit to invest in improved farm inputs and value chain activities owing to their lack of collateral. This and their lack of access to adequate entrepreneurship training and market information, limits women's ability to make progress in producing and marketing value added goods.

Women are less likely than men to participate in groups that can assist production and marketing, for example, cooperatives and collectives and they are extremely under represented in the leadership of such groups.

A number of shortcomings within the MoANR are identified: the lack of an organisational culture, policies and procedures that will ensure that the Ministry is accountable for delivering on gender equality; research outputs that fail to identify and investigate gender concerns, a lack personnel with the capacity to deliver on gender equality and inadequate gender disaggregated data to effectively monitor progress.

Impact and strategic objectives

The overall aim of the strategy is to ensure that women and men farmers, pastoralists and agro-pastoralists benefit equally from agricultural development have improved livelihoods, nutrition and food security and strengthened resilience to climate change.

The strategy identifies 5 systemic barriers to gender equality in the agricultural sector which are addressed in 5 strategic objectives. Key interventions leading to outputs are set out as the means for reaching each strategic objective. These are:

- To strengthen the commitment to, and accountability for gender equality in the policies and institutional structures of the agricultural sector.
- To increase capacity within the MoANR to deliver gender responsive services and implement the gender equality strategy.
- To develop partnerships between the MoANR, other Government ministries, public and private institutions to address the barriers to gender equality in agriculture.
- To enable women farmers, pastoralists and agro pastoralists to increase agricultural productivity and benefit from profitable economic activities.
- To increase the voice, influence and decision making powers of women in the household and within community formal and informal institutions.

The theory of change

The starting point for the theory of change is that gender inequality is underpinned by deeply discriminatory customs, beliefs and attitudes. In order to develop a more just society in which women and men share equally in the benefits of agricultural production, a two-fold approach is adopted addressing both supply and demand. Changes in the institutions and staff that 'supply' agricultural policy, programmes and services will be coupled with efforts to create 'demand' for gender equality through working with women and men farmers. Within the Ministry, training and capacity building for staff, setting of gender performance targets and the strengthening of gender structures will bring about a change in organisational culture. Interventions to address the demand side will make extension services, credit and other agricultural inputs more accessible to women and seek to empower women, enable their participation in decision making, promote a more equal division of labour and increase their control over the resources that can improve their productivity, their wellbeing and their resilience to climate change. The theory uses a gender transformative approach involving work with both women and men farmers. It argues that empowerment of women and shared decision-making contributes to raising productivity, increased incomes and improved food security and nutrition for families. Improved gender equality also enhances resilience or the capacity of men and women to manage change and deal with economic shocks.

Implementation

While the MoANR remains overall accountable for the delivery of the gender strategy, the Women's Affairs Directorate within the Ministry will be strengthened to manage and coordinate implementation and offer expert guidance and technical support. Extensive use will be made of cascade training; that is training trainers at the federal and regional levels in order to roll out training programmes to the lower levels to increase the delivery of gender sensitive services. Cooperation with other sector ministries and institutions is an important part of the strategy to leverage support and share best practice. For example, co-operation with the Ministries of Education and Women and Children's Affairs will be essential to deliver the training to women and men farmers on issues such as women's rights, women's leadership and shared decision making.

At national level the Gender Equality Steering Committee will provide political and strategic guidance and oversight of the implementation of the strategy. It will be chaired by the Minister of the MoANR and have representatives from the implementing units of the MoANR, Pastoral Affairs, MoWC, ATA and affiliated agencies.

The strategy makes provision for monitoring, evaluation and learning to be integrated with monitoring for GTP II, and for regular reviews, mid-term and final evaluations in order to assess progress and make ongoing revisions to the strategy.

1 Background

1.1 The agriculture sector in Ethiopia

Agriculture is central to the economy of Ethiopia and to the livelihood of its people. Around 82 per cent of Ethiopia's 96 million people live and work in rural areas. The agriculture sector accounts for 80 per cent of the employment, 46 per cent of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and 90 per cent of export earnings¹. The largest share of export value comes from cash crops, such as coffee, sesame and livestock, which together contribute 47 per cent of agricultural GDP and 85 per cent of farm cash income². The contribution of the agriculture sector in Ethiopia is impaired by land degradation, deforestation, drought and climate change. The majority of farmers are small holders; female headed-households (FHHs) account for 20 per cent with 85 per cent of households farming less than two hectares and 40 per cent less than 0.5 hectares³.

The Government of Ethiopia's (GoE) overarching strategy for sustainable development focuses on a shift from subsistence to commercial agriculture to enable the growth of industry and services (see **Box 1**). Despite considerable progress, Ethiopia remains one of the ten poorest countries in the world, ranking 174 out of 188, with the score of 0.403 on the UNDP Human Development Index for females and 0.479 for males (in total 0.442)⁴. It has an estimated per capita income of \$550 in 2014 and 29.6 per cent of the population (30.4 per cent in rural areas in comparison to 25.7 per cent in urban areas) live below the national poverty line and are therefore vulnerable to food insecurity.

Box 1: Growth and Transformation Plan II 2015-2020

The overarching objective is the realization of Ethiopia's vision of becoming a middle-income country by 2025. Thus, GTP II aims to achieve an annual average real GDP growth rate of 11 per cent...

The objective of the agricultural sector is to benefit the people at all levels from fast and sustained growth, to realise the transformation of the sector ...enhance the contribution of the sector to the overall economy and build production capacity These objectives will be ensured through increasing the productivity of the sector.

The major agriculture and rural transformation targets ...are: increasing crop and livestock production and productivity, promoting natural resource conservation and utilization, ensuring food security and disaster prevention and preparedness.

A strategic pillar is to: Promote women's and youth empowerment, ensure their effective participation in the development and democratisation process and enable them to equitably benefit from the outcomes of development.

Source: GTP II 2015 — 2020

¹World Bank (2014), Decomposition of Gender Differentials in Agricultural Productivity in Ethiopia, USAID (2015). Feed the Future Country Fact Sheet. <http://feedthefuture.gov/country/ethiopia> (accessed on 01.03.2016) and FAO (2014). Socio-economic context and role of agriculture. Food and Agriculture Policy Decision Analysis (FAPDA) Country Fact Sheet on Food and Agriculture Policy Trends: Ethiopia (accessed from www.fao.org/economic/fapda, www.fao.org/economic/fapda/tool on 23.02.2016)

²IGAD (2013), The Contribution of Livestock to the Ethiopian Economy, Policy Brief No: ICPALD 5/CLE/8/2013

³FAO (2014), Socio-economic context and role of agriculture. Food and Agriculture Policy Decision Analysis (FAPDA) Country Fact Sheet on Food and Agriculture Policy Trends: Ethiopia (accessed from www.fao.org/economic/fapda)

⁴ UNDP Human Development Index (2014). <http://countryeconomy.com/hdi/ethiopia> (accessed on 01.03.2016)

Although women represent half of the population and contribute about 70 per cent of the food production in Ethiopia, they do not share equally in the fruits of development. Compared to men and boys, women and girls are strongly disadvantaged. Their experience is characterised by higher levels of illiteracy and ill health, 28 per cent of women of reproductive age are chronically malnourished and the problem is particularly acute in the rural areas, poorer livelihoods and a lack of rights with regard to access to land, credit and other productive resources⁵.

Addressing prevalent gender inequality is an important dimension of addressing rural poverty. Women work longer hours than men and lack adequate representation in leadership and decision-making positions⁶. Ethiopian women are triply disadvantaged: as poor people, like their male counterparts, they live under harsh conditions; as women they suffer from culturally-based discrimination which undervalues their contribution to development and prevents them from increasing the productivity of their labour and as care givers they carry the full burden of household management for which they get very little support from their husband and family⁷.

1.2 Gender equality: the legal, policy and institutional framework

The Government of Ethiopia is committed to gender equality and this is demonstrated in its legal, policy and institutional frameworks and international commitments.

1.2.1 National policy and legal frameworks

The Ethiopian Constitution, 1995

Both federal and regional constitutions enshrine the equality of men and women: "All persons are equal before the law and are entitled without any discrimination to the equal protection of the law" (article 25). Article 35 addresses women's equal rights to free marriage, to the control and use of land, to own and inherit property, to employment, rights to maternity leave and pay and to full consultation in the formulation, design and execution of national development policies.

Affirmative action to address the historical legacy of inequality and discrimination is provided for in the Constitution and has been used, for example, in education. Equality provisions are extended to all federal and regional laws including the revised Family Code (2000), Labour Legislation (1993, amended 2005), Civil Servants Proclamation (2007) and the new Criminal Code (2005). The Proclamation of Executive Organs of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia (2010) gives the mandate to all sector ministries, government agencies and government development enterprises to integrate gender issues according to their powers and duties (and according to the law). The Rural Land Administration and Land Use Proclamation (2005) contains provisions on women's equal right to land.

National Policy on Women, 1993

The National Policy on Women was developed in 1993 with the objective of addressing women's needs in all development sectors in an integrated way, highlighting the Government's commitment to the full participation of all members of society in social, economic and political spheres. The policy

⁵ Central Statistical Agency (2012), Ethiopia Demographic and Health Survey 2011. Ethiopia ICF International Calverton, Maryland, USA. Addis Ababa

⁶ MDG Achievement Fund and UN Women (2013), MDG Advancing Gender Equality: Promising Practices – Case Studies from the Millennium Development Goals Achievement pp 78.

⁷ MoA (2011), Participatory extension system: Extension Training Materials. Extension Directorate. October 2011, Addis Ababa

called for the establishment of women's machinery at all levels: federal, regional and sub-regional. Subsequently personnel were assigned as gender focal points to take responsibility for ensuring that the needs of women and men were included in the design and implementation of policies and interventions. However, the focal point system is not fully operational, due to frequent staff turnover and limitations of capacity.

The Ministry of Women, Youth and Children Affairs was established in 2005 and entrusted with the responsibility of coordinating and following up on the implementation of the National Policy on Women. It also developed and launched the National Action Plan for Gender Equality (2006-10) to promote and implement Ethiopia's commitment to the Beijing Platform for Action (UN Women 2014).

The Development and Change Package

The Development and Change Package for Ethiopian Women was devised in 2006, and for pastoral women in 2010, by the Ministry of Women, Youth and Children Affairs (MoWYCA) now named the Ministry of Women and Children's Affairs (MWCA) with the objective of ensuring gender equality and equal participation of women in all sectors, including agriculture.

The specific package for pastoral women gives emphasis to addressing pastoral and agro-pastoral women's needs, interests and issues that restrict their development, particularly their limited participation and leadership in the economic, social and political arena. The package is being implemented through the 'one to five groups' at kebele level to ensure government policies, programmes and development activities reach the remotest areas.

However, there appears to be gaps in the understanding of the provisions of this package that were highlighted during the regional consultations workshop held for this gender equality strategy. For example, the gender focal staff of the SNNPR Bureau of Pastoral Affairs were unaware of the Pastoral Women Development and Change Package illustrating the lack of communication and collaborative working between the Bureau of Women and Children Affairs and Bureau of Pastoral Affairs and missed opportunities in reaching reach pastoral and agro-pastoral women who have less access to services and information.

Gender Responsive Budgeting

Gender mainstreaming in national budgets or Gender Responsive Budgeting (GRB) is a strategy that aims to make women's lives more visible and integrate women's economic activities into formal economic planning. This is implemented through the Ministry of Finance and Economic Cooperation (MoFEC) that has set up a system for integrating, investigating and verifying whether gender is mainstreamed into sector ministry budgets and plans. Feedback is provided to sector ministries on their effectiveness in mainstreaming gender equity during annual budget hearing meetings.

The Government's anti-poverty policies and programmes in agriculture have all included a commitment to equality. However, often they have failed to address underlying gender inequalities and provide the rationale or road map for the achievement of equal outcomes. Weak implementation, monitoring and evaluation have lessened the impact of the policies on gender inequalities. The gender equality strategy attempts to advance gender mainstreaming to deliver equality in outcomes.

1.2.2 International commitments

Ethiopia ratified the United Nations Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) in 1981. This Convention sets out the rights of women and their entitlements to full participation alongside men in all social, economic and political aspects of society. Ethiopia has also adopted the Programme of Action of the International Conference on

Population and Development in 1994, which introduced the concepts of sexual and reproductive health rights and recognised that the empowerment of women is a cornerstone in population policy⁸.

Ethiopia signed up to the Beijing Platform for Action (1995) and has also endorsed both the Millennium Development Goals (2000) and the Sustainable Development Goals (2015) demonstrating its commitment to gender equality (see Box 2).

At the regional level Ethiopia signed the Maputo Protocol to the African Charter on Human and People's Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa and adopted the Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality in Africa (both in 2004) which commits states to implementing and enforcing existing normative instruments on human and women's rights⁹.

Box 2: The Sustainable Development Goals – international agreement, September 2015

Goal 5: Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls. Targets include:

- Undertake reforms to give women equal rights to economic resources, as well as access to ownership and control over land and other forms of property, financial services, inheritance and natural resources, in accordance with national laws.
- Recognise and value unpaid care and domestic work through the provision of public services, infrastructure and social protection policies and the promotion of shared responsibility within the household and the family as nationally appropriate.
- Ensure women's full and effective participation and equal opportunities for leadership at all levels of decision making in political, economic and public life.

1.3 Gender mainstreaming and the Gender Equality Strategy

Research shows that socially determined gender inequalities exist in most societies and are the result of deeply rooted attitudes that pervade communities, institutions and market forces. In Ethiopia, like most other developing countries, gender inequality diminishes the economic and welfare prospects of rural women and girls, men and boys, and consequently their households and communities. The gender gap in agricultural production results in greater food insecurity and poorer nutrition for women and therefore children and young people.

World Bank research across 19 countries showed that both men and women rank education, the ownership of assets and access to economic opportunities to earn income as the keys to improving their well-being and that of their families¹⁰. This research documents that women farmers produce between 13 and 25 per cent less than their male counterparts; the gender gap in production for

Box 3: Women and men in Ethiopia: a profile

- Ethiopian households consist of an average of 4.8 persons.
- Women head about 20 per cent of all Ethiopian households (2011).
- 27 per cent of women aged 15-49 have never been married, 58 per cent are married, 4 per cent are living with a man and 11 per cent are divorced, separated or widowed.
- 5 per cent of men aged 15-49 have two or more wives. The highest proportions of men with more than one wife were found in Somali and Benishangul-Gumuz Regions (14 per cent in both regions).
- In 2011, the median age at first marriage among women aged 25-49 was found to be 16.5 years.

Source: UN Women, 2014, Preliminary Gender Profile of Ethiopia, Addis Ababa

⁸ <http://www.unfpa.org/events/international-conference-population-and-development-icpd> (accessed on 25.06.2016)

⁹ <http://www.genderismyagenda.com/declaration.html> (accessed on 25.06.2016)

¹⁰ World Bank (2012), Gender Equality and Development, World Development Report , Washington DC

Ethiopia was estimated at 23 per cent.

Traditionally women's lives are largely associated with family care and production for home use, while men's focus on income generation and decision-making. Conventional studies do not highlight the underlying causes that impede women from accessing input and productive resources and therefore miss lasting solutions. Statistics also fail to recognise the monetary value of women's work within the household, community and nationally.

The gender equality strategy focuses on achieving gender equality outcomes and inclusive economic growth. It builds on and strengthens the policy of gender mainstreaming, instituted in Ethiopia in the early 1990s, which focuses on making the needs and interests of men and women central to the design and implementation of all policies and practice. The strategy adopts a result-based approach and aims to promote access to resources and increased participation in decision-making to ensure women benefit equally from development.

1.3.1 Objectives of the strategy

Understanding the barriers women farmers face and how these can be overcome is critical to achieving the objectives of the Ethiopian Growth and Transformation Plan (GTP II) and the internationally agreed Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). The main objective of the gender equality strategy for the agriculture sector is to provide a national framework on how to ensure gender equality as a means of transforming agriculture and increasing its role in Ethiopia's economic development. Overall the strategy aims to ensure that women and men farmers, pastoralists and agro-pastoralists benefit equally from agricultural development have improved livelihoods, nutrition and food security and strengthened resilience to climate change. The strategy will guide the overall approach in the Ministry of Agriculture and Natural Resources (MoANR), its affiliated institutions, development partners and civil society organisations.

The strategy provides a:

- Vision, strategic objectives, outcomes and interventions for addressing gender inequalities in the agriculture sector and recommendations for the amendment of organisational policies, procedures and systems in order to provide a conducive environment for addressing gender inequalities.
- Framework for collaboration and coordination of efforts horizontally across those Ministries involved in agricultural policy and vertically to the implementing bodies from federal to woreda level including civil society and other relevant women and men's organisations at each level.
- Systemic participatory and representative approach to designing, implementing, monitoring and evaluating gender equality interventions.
- Mechanism for building gender-balanced technical and management leadership to address gender inequalities.
- Framework for using best practice to influence policy and interventions to address gender equality.

1.3.2 The methodology: developing the strategy

Development of the gender strategy was led by the Women's Affairs Directorate (WAD) of MoANR and overseen by a Gender Taskforce which included representatives from national and international development partners and institutions dealing with gender and agriculture issues in Ethiopia. The development process is described below.

- **Agreed template and structure for the strategy** (developed by the Gender Taskforce) and hiring of consultants tasked with gathering and writing the gender analysis for the sector and also developing the strategy in close consultation with the Taskforce.
- **Review of literature and submission of the inception report.** Key gender and agriculture sector related policies, strategies, programmes and research documents of Ethiopia were reviewed as well as documents on the experience of other countries and international organisations.
- **In-depth key-informant interviews, focus groups and consultations.** Interviews were conducted with relevant gender and technical professionals in selected ministries, directorates, programmes including the MoANR, Agricultural Transformation Agency (ATA), Ministry of Livestock and Fisheries (MoLF), Ministry of Women and Children's Affairs (MoWCA), Ministry of Finance and Economic Cooperation (MoFEC), the Ethiopian Institute of Agricultural Research (EIAR), Agriculture Knowledge Learning Documentation and Policy Project (AKLDP) and UN-Women and Care - an NGO. Other relevant programmes consulted were: the Agricultural Growth Programme (AGP), the Sustainable Land Management Programme (SLMP), the Productive Safety Net Programme (PSNP) and the Land Administration to Nurture Development Programme USAID (LAND). Within the MoANR, consultations were undertaken with the Women's Affairs Directorate (WAD), the Planning and Programming Directorate (PPD) and the Human Resources Directorate (HRD).
- **Analysis of information and drafting of the gender equality strategy.** The information collected from the literature review and the consultations was used to compile the gender analysis sections. The strategy development process followed by defining systemic barriers to equality, strategic objectives, key interventions and mechanisms for monitoring, evaluation and lesson learning. Sections on the implementation and financing of the gender strategy were included.
- **Regional consultation workshops.** The workshops were undertaken in Semera (Afar), Hawassa (SNNPR), Bahir Dar (Amhara), and Assosa (Benishangul Gumuz) where about 120 gender practitioners drawn from offices of agriculture and natural resources at regional, zone and woreda levels and other institutions attended. The participants commented on and enriched the gender analysis, the key barriers, strategic objectives and proposed interventions presented by the consultants.

Box 4 Violence against women and the gender equality strategy

Gender inequalities are socially determined and perpetuated by deeply rooted attitudes and cultural traditions that define women as subordinate and result in an unequal balance of power between men and women. Violence against women is an abuse of male power; it takes multiple forms including: female infanticide, female genital mutilation/cutting, child, early and forced marriage, trafficking, sexual assault, sexual harassment, sexual exploitation, domestic abuse and abuse of widows. These practices are widespread in rural Ethiopia. World Health Organisation figures show that more than a third of women in Africa, suffer from partner violence; one in five have undergone FGM and a fifth of women will suffer a rape or attempted rape at some point in their lives. Each form of violence involves acute suffering; all are a fundamental denial of women's human rights and social and economic opportunities. There are also serious consequences for society at large. The costs of VAWG are estimated at between 1 and 2 per cent of national income in developing countries. Recent research shows that violence against women is best tackled through strong leadership and through creating policies and programmes to promote gender equality and change social attitudes. The gender equality strategy is part of a multi-sector approach to combatting violence against women.

Sources: <http://www.who.int/reproductivehealth/topics/fgm/prevalence/en/>;
<http://www.un.org/en/women/endviolence/pdf/VAW.pdf>

- **National consultation workshop.** A further consultation was undertaken with members of the Ethiopian Network for Gender Equality in Agriculture (ENGEA) in a national workshop held on 8th December 2016. The network is composed of gender professionals working in different institutions: government, non-government, UN, bi- and multi-lateral agencies and the private sector. The results of the regional and national workshops were integrated in the strategy.
- **National validation workshop.** The gender equality strategy will be validated at a national workshop in the presence of leading officials and professionals in the gender and technical fields from the MoANR and other relevant ministries and development partners from federal and regional levels. The Gender Equality Strategy was also commented on by members of the Gender Equality Taskforce.

2 The rationale for addressing gender inequality in the agriculture sector in Ethiopia

2.1 Gender equality: a right

Gender equality is a right, enshrined in the Constitution, the legal, policy and institutional frameworks and international commitments endorsed by the Ethiopian Government. Both women and men have equal right to participate and benefit from political, social and economic development. Equality provisions are integrated in all policies and provisions. It is important to recognise women and youth as legitimate actors enabling growth, not simply as beneficiaries of economic growth.

2.2 Productivity gains: opportunities for increasing agricultural productivity

Whilst gender equality is a core development objective, there are also practical, economic reasons for addressing gender inequality in the agriculture sector. Women play an extremely important role in the agricultural sector, in crop as well as livestock production. International evidence from across regions indicate that women have less access than men to productive resources and opportunities and as result, on average, women farmers produce less per hectare than men^{11 12}.

However, gender disparities are neither static nor immutable. It has been recognised that when barriers that prevent women from having the same access as men, to extension, economic opportunities and productive inputs are removed, their productivity increases dramatically. World Bank research shows that providing women farmers equal access to productive resources could increase yields by 20-30 per cent and raise total agricultural output by between 2.5-4 per cent, reducing the number of hungry people in the world by 12-17 per cent or by 100–150 million¹³. Increasing food production to improve household nutrition and meet increased demand because of population growth requires the active engagement of male and female farmers in agrarian, pastoral and agro-pastoral areas.

Box 5: Improved access to technology for women brings results

A case study in East Shewa zone of Oromia Region showed that female-headed households who had access to chickpea technologies doubled their production and with the increased income from sales of the surplus built new houses and improved household assets, for example, buying new oxen.

Source: Chilot et al 2010

2.3 Improving the status of women benefits families

Social norms and practices determine the division of labour, decision-making in agricultural management and the control of end products and income. In Ethiopia, women spend more time in agricultural and domestic tasks than men. One study showed that Ethiopian women contribute as much as 70 per cent of on-farm labour in post-harvest activities for cereals and take on 60 per cent of marketing activities¹⁴. The table below shows the contribution of women's labour across selected regions of Ethiopia.

¹¹ <http://www.fao.org/gender/gender-home/gender-why/key-facts/en/>

¹² World Bank (2014), Levelling the Field: Improving Opportunities for Women Farmers in Africa

¹³ World Bank (2012), Gender Equality and Development. World Development Report 2012

¹⁴ Agajie G and Derese T, (2012), Assessing the potential role of small-scale women food producers in a climate smart Agricultural Development in Ethiopia

Table 1 Women's contribution to crop and livestock production in selected regions

Region	Crop production	Livestock
Amhara	50	48
Tigray	52	52
SNNPR	34	77
Crop, livestock production and NRM, Average		50-80

Source: Alemayehu Refera, 2001

Research suggests that when women's status improves they are more likely to re-invest their income to benefit their children and family; women spend up to 90 per cent of their incomes on their families while the figure for men is 30–40 per¹⁵. Improved education, nutrition and health contributes to social cohesion and peace within the community as well as collective welfare¹⁶.

2.4 Increasing women's representation in decision-making benefits women, families and community

Women's subordinate position in society is replicated in their low representation in household and formal decision-making. This is sometimes described as lack of agency (see box 5). Ensuring that women are heard in agricultural development and policy formation through meaningful representation in decision-making bodies, in management positions and in collectives and cooperatives is crucial to reducing gender inequalities. Strengthening women's ability to make effective choices and to transform those choices into desired outcomes would bring change for women at the household, community and societal level. Understanding how barriers can be overcome is critical to transforming agriculture and economic development.

Box 6: Women agency matters for gender equality

Agency can be understood as the process through which women and men use their endowments and take advantage of economic opportunities to achieve desired outcomes. Thus, agency is key to understanding how gender outcomes emerge and why they are equal or unequal. These outcomes, or expressions of agency, are:

- Control over resources—measured by women's ability to earn and control income and to own, use, and dispose of material assets.
- Ability to move freely—measured by women's freedom to decide their movements and their ability to move outside their homes.
- Decision making over family formation— measured by women's and girls' ability to decide when and whom to marry, when and how many children to have, and when to leave a marriage.
- Freedom from the risk of violence—measured by the prevalence of domestic violence and other forms of sexual, physical, or emotional violence.
- Ability to have a voice in society and influence policy—measured by participation and representation in formal politics and engagement in collective action and associations.

Women's agency matters: it has intrinsic relevance for women's individual wellbeing and quality of life; it has instrumental relevance for actions that improve the well-being of women and their families and it is required if women are to play an active role in shaping institutions, social norms and the well-being of their communities.

¹⁵ FAO (2011), The State of Food and Agriculture. Women in Agriculture. Closing the Gender Gap for Development. FAO, Rome.

¹⁶ Kennedy P and Peters P (1992), Household food security and child nutrition: the interaction of income and gender of household head, World Development 20(8): 1077-1085

3 Situation analysis of gender inequality in the agriculture sector in Ethiopia

3.1 Gender in the agriculture sector policies and strategies review

As has already been suggested, Ethiopia has the necessary legal and policy frameworks in place to address gender equality. This section reviews existing policies and asks how far gender dimensions are fully incorporated in the various agricultural policies, strategies and programmes.

3.1.1 Gender in the Growth and Transformation Plan (GTP)

Mainstreaming gender was identified as a cross cutting issue in GTP I with capacity building to deliver gender equality to be based on gender audits. The Women's Affairs Directorate (WAD) of MoANR in collaboration with ATA made enormous strides in achieving these goals, focusing on building capacity for gender mainstreaming for experts at various levels. In addition, WAD has also devoted time and effort to assisting various programmes and projects to incorporate gender issues, for example, the extension service strategy, while identifying the barriers to effective mainstreaming.

GTP II is the main planning document for Ethiopia for the next five years. It shapes agricultural policy and it is within this that the gender strategy has to operate. The achievements, lessons drawn and best practices of GTP I were used in the preparation of GTP II.

Of the 11 strategic directions that guide the implementation of GTP II, one was developed to ensure that youth and women benefit from the opportunities created by faster growth¹⁷. The plan also promotes a strategy for resource poor women and youth of engagement in mountain and garden agriculture and non-farm activities. GTP II has a range of provisions for addressing gender issues as summarised in box 7.

Box 7 Growth and Transformation Plan II: gender provisions

- Promote women friendly technologies that reduce work load.
- Targets for coverage by extension are disaggregated by sex into Male Headed Households (MHH) and Female Headed Households (FHH), married women, youth farmers, pastoralists and agro-pastoralists.
- Extension services will be provided to 100 per cent of FHHs, 50 per cent of married women and 10 per cent of rural youth.
- Disaggregation of targets into MHHs and FHHs (for issuing second level land certificates, PSNP, safety net graduates and cash transfer beneficiaries, households utilising agricultural inputs, artificial insemination services and participation in cooperatives).
- Agricultural extension will be implemented to address the needs of women farmers, agro-pastoralists and pastoralists through gender sensitive approaches.
- Training will be delivered at farmers' training centres (FTCs) to enable Development Agents (DAs) to provide gender sensitive support to women and rural youth involved in agricultural activities. The management of FTC will include representatives of women and youth.
- Raise women beneficiaries of agricultural mechanisation tools to 30 per cent.
- Extension services and trainings to be delivered to 30 per cent of rural women and 10 per cent of youths including female youths.
- Increase membership in cooperatives to 50 per cent of women and 30 per cent of youths.
- Increase the focus to make women benefit from market participation and value addition: 23 per cent of the poultry package technologies to FHHs; 23 per cent of cattle breed improvement package to

¹⁷ MOA (2015). Agriculture Sector Growth and Transformation Plan – II (GTP-II): Base Case Scenario

urban and peri-urban FHHs.

- Focus on forage development packages for pastoral and agro-pastoral women.
- 20 per cent of land use right certificates to be issued to FHHs.
- 30 per cent of the land administration and utilization positions to be allocated to women experts in all the structures from federal to kebele levels.
- 30 per cent of participation in watershed management, water management and irrigation beneficiaries to be women.
- 100 per cent of trainings on climate resilient and green economy to be for FHHs and 50 per cent for married women; 50 per cent of support on early warning and climate change coping mechanisms for women.

3.1.2 Gender in agriculture sector strategies

Gender in the Agricultural Technical Vocational Education Training

In the mid-2000s the MoANR established Agricultural Technical and Vocational Education and Training (ATVET) colleges throughout the country to train development agents (DAs). However, there were no targets set to train female agents and consequently the extension service remains male dominated. While male agents can address the development needs of female farmers, in some areas of the country cultural prohibitions on communications between men and women make this difficult. It is also important to consider the impact that female agents, as role models, might make in addressing the needs of female farmers.

Gender in the National Strategy of Agricultural Extension Systems

The Ethiopian National Agricultural Extension Systems Strategy 2014 was designed to revitalize and strengthen the agriculture sector by improving access for small-holder farmers to quality extension services¹⁸. The strategy identified key barriers to addressing gender issues including: a low level of gender awareness, poor gender mainstreaming in planning and implementing extension programmes, inadequate monitoring, evaluation and learning (MEL), shortage of financial resources to implement gender activities, lack of accountability and responsibility for gender and gender focal persons, inadequate gender disaggregated data and socio-cultural constraints. One of the cornerstones of the strategy was entitled: "Gender and youth mainstreaming and empowerment" and it set a target of 40 -50 per cent of women and youth participants in every programme or project.

The strategy's ten key interventions, shown in Box 8, are extremely relevant. However,

Box 8: Proposed interventions of the MoANR extension strategy on gender

- Enhance the level of awareness on gender at all levels.
- Strengthen gender mainstreaming actions.
- Improve participation of women and youth in agricultural extension.
- Capacity building for extension staff and rural communities.
- Improve employment opportunity for women DAs.
- Adequate resources to gender related activities.
- Put in place an accountability and responsibility mechanism.
- Strengthen the link between Women's Affairs and Agricultural Extension Directorates and ATA.
- Strengthen collaborations and networking among other actors.

¹⁸ATA and MoA (2014), National strategy for Ethiopia's Agricultural Extension System: Vision, systemic bottlenecks and priority interventions

additionally attention could be given to addressing issues related to the attitudes, norms and male and female stereotypes that perpetuate gender inequality.

Gender in the Strategy of Ethiopia's National Agricultural Research Systems

A strategy was developed for the National Agricultural Research System (NARS) to develop and popularise appropriate agricultural technologies to contribute to agricultural growth. The vision of NARS is to improve the livelihoods of farmers, agro-pastoralists and pastoralists through integrated, demand-driven and transformative research¹⁹. Its mission is to: "contribute to Ethiopia's agricultural growth by generating, adopting and building on indigenous knowledge while popularising and maintaining appropriate technologies, knowledge and information through a national research system that is organically linked to the extension system". These statements make no mention of gender perspectives.

Gender in the strategy of Agricultural Cooperatives Development

Agricultural cooperatives in Ethiopia are established to help farmers increase their yields and incomes through collective service provisions and economic empowerment. It aims to contribute to the overall vision of achieving middle-income status by 2025 through increasing the productivity and income of small-holder farmers through the agricultural cooperatives²⁰. Although the strategy states that 22 per cent of cooperative members are women it does not prioritise increasing female membership or recognise that women are poorly represented amongst the leadership. Gender inequality is not mentioned as a systemic constraint and there are therefore no corresponding interventions.

Gender in Ethiopia's Climate Resilient Green Economy Strategy

The strategy addresses Ethiopia's vision of a achieving a middle-income, green economy by 2025, which would be resilient to the negative impact of climate change and achievable without net increases in greenhouse gas emissions. Its focus is on agriculture and forestry that account for the livelihoods of 80 per cent of the population.

Since the 1960s temperatures have increased by 1 per cent and annual rainfall has decreased by about 20 per cent on average²¹. Drought is said to have reduced GDP by 4 per cent, erosion a further 1 per cent and an estimated 12 million people have been affected by drought with over 0.3 million fatalities. These statistics are not disaggregated by gender despite the knowledge that women are one of the most affected categories. When men and youths migrate from villages in search of a means of survival in the towns or in other countries, the responsibility for caring for children, the sick and elderly and livestock falls on women. Women are also most affected by food shortages during drought or other climate change shocks and experience consequent poor nutrition. Only one section of the strategy has a gender dimension that addresses the distributional and equity issues affecting women. However, greater emphasis on gender analysis of the impacts of climate change could have prompted stronger gender-specific options for interventions to assist married women, FHHs and girls.

¹⁹ ATA, MOA and EIAR (2014), Strategy to improve Ethiopia's National Agricultural Research System (NARS): Vision, Systemic Bottlenecks, Strategic Interventions and Implementation Framework

²⁰ MoA, Cooperatives Agency and ATA (2012), Agricultural cooperatives sector development strategy

²¹ FDRE (2011), Ethiopia's Climate Resilient Green Economy Climate Resilience Strategy: Agriculture and Forestry

Gender in the Strategy for the Transformation of the Ethiopian Seed System

The seed system strategy has been developed to ensure a dynamic, efficient and well-regulated seed industry that provides farmers with sufficient, affordable and high quality seeds for improved varieties of all key crops, while conserving Ethiopia's biodiversity²². The strategy identifies seven strategic intervention areas including gender as a cross cutting issue. It makes provision for enabling men and women to participate in decision-making and share in the benefits of research as well as in seed distribution. It recognises that it is important to build positive working environments for women professionals in all aspects of the seed value chain and to ensure the seed industry is responsive to the needs of men and women farmers. There is little analysis of the gender gaps in the seed system but there is some attention paid to gender. A provision for gender disaggregated data would have been beneficial.

Gender in the Wheat Sector Development Strategy

Wheat is a major crop in Ethiopia with 4.7 million farmers producing 3.9 million tons of wheat annually²³. The average yield of 2.4 tons per hectare (potential productivity is as high as 6.0 tons per hectare) places Ethiopia first in sub-Saharan Africa with a share of 47.8 per cent of wheat farmers and a 55 per cent share of wheat production²⁴. In spite of this, Ethiopia is a net importer of wheat and this is expected to continue until 2030 when national wheat production will meet demand²⁵. The strategy makes an analysis of the wheat value chain, identifies 29 systemic constraints and proposes 31 interventions²⁶. However, the roles of men and women are only briefly described and there is no analysis of specific gender constraints or interventions. Including the indigenous knowledge and skills of women could have further enhanced the growth of the wheat sector.

Gender in the Realising the Potential of Household Irrigation Strategy

Household irrigation aims to boost agricultural production by maximising use of water resources; irrigation can enhance household income from between USD 147 - 323 per hectare per year, which is a potential rise of 120 per cent²⁷. However, only 2 per cent of the country's landmass is irrigated. The strategy identifies 17 systemic constraints in the irrigation sector and proposes 29 corresponding interventions²⁸. However, gender is only briefly mentioned in terms of benefits and does not appear in the analysis of constraints or the proposed interventions.

Gender in the Teff Strategy

Teff is also a major cereal crops and demand rises in line with population growth. Despite decades of research and improvements, productivity remains illusive and teff is regularly in short supply with a

²²ATA and MoA (2012), Five-year strategy for the transformation of Ethiopian seed system: vision, systemic bottlenecks, interventions and implementation framework.

²³CSA (2014), Agricultural Sample Survey (2013/14), Report on Area and Production of Major Crops for Private Peasant Holdings, Meher Season, Addis Ababa.

²⁴Negassa A et al (2013), The Potential for Wheat Production in Africa: Analysis of Biophysical Suitability and Economic Profitability. Mexico, D.F, CIMMYT

²⁵Bergh K, Chew A, Kay M, Gugerty K and Leigh Anderson C (2012), Wheat Value Chain: Ethiopia. Prepared for the Agricultural Policy Team of the Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation. EPAR Brief No. 204

²⁶MoA and ATA (2013), Wheat sector development strategy, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

²⁷BMGF and Global Green Growth Institute (2011) Green Growth in Ethiopia: Deep dive into Household Irrigation Technologies (HIT)

²⁸MoA and ATA (2015) Realizing the potential of household irrigation in Ethiopia: A strategy document

corresponding annual rise in price²⁹. To address these and associated problems, the 2013 strategy identified 20 challenges in the teff production chain and proposed more than 25 interventions. Women play a very important part in teff production in land preparation, weeding, harvesting, threshing and post-harvest processing but the strategy provides no gender perspective and assumes both men and women farmers face similar problems and will benefit from identical interventions.

Summary: gender inclusiveness of agriculture sector policies, strategies and programmes

Many of the strategies make strong efforts to address gender issues while others appear to be gender neutral. The failure to address gender may be attributed to a low level of gender awareness and the false assumption that both men and women farmers have similar interests, priorities and development needs. Some of the strategies that do consider gender are not comprehensive in their coverage of identifying barriers and proposing relevant interventions. Few challenge the existing complex power relations between men and women in the agriculture sector. A further major gap is the failure to distinguish between different types of women farmers: married women, female heads of household, young females and pastoral women.

Gender in the Agriculture Growth Programme

The Agricultural Growth Program (AGP) is a collaborative effort between the Government of Ethiopia and development partners, focusing on agricultural investment and development to support agricultural productivity and commercialisation. It aims to address some of the key constraints to agricultural growth and to contribute to economic growth and transformation. The first phase (2011) made strides in involving women in different programmes, such as Common Interest Groups (CIGs). The programme aspires to ensure increased participation of women and youth in programme implementation. The key gender provisions of AGP-II gender are:

- Gender, nutrition and climate smart agriculture are cross cutting issues in the design of AGP-II.
- Making future growth of the agriculture sector responsive to gender needs.
- Promoting labour-saving technologies for women; providing relevant information to female farmers and easing the time burden of female household responsibilities by providing time saving technologies.
- AGP-II plans to target 3.7 million households, 24 per cent of which are to be FHHs.
- AGP-II will reach 20 million beneficiaries 46 per cent of which will be women.

Gender in the Sustainable Land Management Programme

Since 2008 the MoANR has been implementing the Sustainable Land Management Programme (SLMP) in six regions with the objective of reversing land degradation and improving land productivity. SLMP focuses on gender and it developed its own gender mainstreaming guideline in 2014 to ensure achievement of gender equality at various levels. The following principles were included: fair distribution of workload; equal access to resource and opportunities; equal access to control over resources and benefits and equal participation in decision making. It also allows for gender specific interventions to address the needs of women and men and temporary measures to respond specifically to women's interests.

The social assessment of the integrated watershed and landscape management programme found that involving women in the planning and implementation process produced positive results in terms of women's empowerment and gender equality³⁰. For example, in SNNPR married, widowed and

²⁹ATA, MOA and EIAR (2013), Working strategy for strengthening Ethiopia's Teff value chain: Vision, systemic challenges and prioritized interventions

³⁰ MoANR (2013), Social Assessment of SLMP II

divorced women participated and benefited equally to men. Women were represented in steering committees. In Assosa (Benishangul Gumuz) lending money to women involved in animal fattening, crop and vegetable production and land conservation earned them some income and this led to their increased decision-making power within the household. The assessment also noted that women and youth are engaged in a wide range of off-farm activities such as tanning, weaving, basketry, blacksmithing, milling, petty trades and the brewing and sale of local drinks.

Rural and pastoral women, due to their intensive engagement in natural resources, have specific knowledge of conservation and the use of local natural resources. However, due to their poor representation in research and formal power their knowledge is often ignored as researchers tend to interview men³¹.

Gender in the Productive Safety Net Programme

Ethiopia has suffered recurrent droughts, food crises and long term food insecurity. This has had an impact on the nutrition status of the rural as well as pastoral population, perpetuating an intergenerational cycle of malnutrition. The launch of the Productive Safety Net Program (PSNP) in 2005 saw a shift from annual emergency food aid appeals to a social protection approach. The fourth phase of this programme started in 2016. Its goal is to build resilience to shocks and livelihoods and improve food security and nutrition for vulnerable rural households.

PSNP 4, informed by lessons learned from previous phases, incorporates nutritional outcomes in its objectives. It targets households with malnourished children, has improved the nutritional value of food baskets, implements nutrition sensitive public works, uses conditionality to promote health seeking behaviour and has promoted use of a single register to identify and refer households for health fee waivers as well as safety nets.

The strong gender provisions of the programme implementation manual (PIM) for PSNP 4 are shown in 8. When these provisions are fully implemented they produce positive outcomes for women and

Box 9: PSNP 4 provisions for gender, social development and nutrition

- Provides for equal and active women's participation in PSNP decision-making structures at kebele level.
- Provides joint client card entitlement for husband and wife.
- Allows the transition of pregnant women to temporary direct support after first antenatal care visit (or in the absence of such a visit the fourth month of pregnancy) and continuation of women's participation in Temporary Direct Support until 12 months post-partum.
- Encourages women to collect household transfers and therefore increases their control over household consumption.
- Allows women a 50 per cent workload in public works, late arrival and early departure to and from public works and stipulates that travel distance to the public work site should not be far from village.
- Allows support for eligible labour-scarce households.
- Considers the needs of men and women and other vulnerable groups in annual public works planning.
- Considers women's burden of work and allows a reduced workload/ lighter tasks for women.
- Promotes the construction of childcare centers at public work sites.
- Allows for a gender balance in public work teams and women-only teams for certain projects.
- Promotes women as team leaders in public works.

Source: Dina Ayere, 2009

³¹ MoA, (2011), Gender Audit Report, Women's Affairs Directorate

the community. Where women's participation is high and the provisions implemented, the outcomes are correspondingly good, for example in Hintalo Wajirat woreda, Tigray. In SNNPR, Boloso Soro woreda provides an example of a model child care centre³².

3.2 Gender disparities in agricultural production and value chains

3.2.1 Overview of gender roles

A value chain describes the full range of activities required to bring a product or service from conception, through the different phases of production, to the consumer³³. The main phases are: input supply, production, processing, marketing (for both domestic and export markets), retailing and consumption. The value chain also includes different actors and institutions, including men and women farmers. Evidence from many countries shows that engagement in cash and food crops has a gender dimension³⁴. Generally speaking, men are more involved in the production of cash crops than women and their dominance extends from decision-making about which crops to grow and market, to control of the income derived from sales. Box 10 illustrates that women contribute significant labour towards agricultural production of cash crops. However, one study reported that out of 13 cash crops grown in parts of Ethiopia, men controlled the income of 11 of these, accounting for over 85 per cent of the money raised³⁵. One explanation is that women are responsible for feeding the family and thus grow subsistence crops while men are responsible for providing cash income³⁶. However, there is also evidence to suggest that when crops become financially viable, the control of income is taken over by men³⁷.

Male and female participation in the production and care of animals varies according to custom and locality. Generally gender disparities are found in the marketing and sales of livestock and livestock products where men are likely to control high value animals, such as cattle, equines and dairy cows, while women are often responsible for animals and animal products that have a lower monetary value such as small ruminants, chickens, eggs, butter and cheese. Although women may be contributing substantial amounts of time and effort in livestock production, they are unlikely to have control over the income derived from their work. Again a general conclusion is that female-headed households have greater control over crop and livestock value chains than married women.

Box 10: Contribution of married women's labour to selected value chains

Sesame:	20-40%
Wheat:	22 %
Potato:	60 %
Maize:	36 %
Major crops:	35 – 64 %

Source: Genia, K and Scharrer J, 2011

There are a large number of determinants that influence the commodities women produce and sell including the limited time they have available because of domestic responsibilities and their lack of access to finance and market information. This is particularly true for married women and those with low literacy levels. Various studies have noted that existing gender gaps are perpetuated across the

³² MoA (2013), GSD Impact Assessment Report, April 2013

³³ Kaplinsky and Morris (2000), A Handbook of Value Chain Research. IDRC

³⁴ Koopman (1993). The Hidden Roots of the African Food Problem: Looking within the Rural Household, In Women's Work in the World Economy, ed. Nancy Folbre, Barbara Bergmann, Bina Agarwal and Maria Floro, 82–103. New York: New York University Press

³⁵ Lemlem et al (2011). The role of gender in crop value chains in Ethiopia

³⁶ Doss, Cheryl, and Michael Morris (2001). How Does Gender Affect the Adoption of Agricultural Technologies? The Case of Improved Maize Technology in Ghana.

³⁷ Lemlem et al (2011) The role of gender in crop value chains in Ethiopia and Koopman (1993) op cit

value chain segments. Women tend to be invisible as they are largely involved in the unpaid production part of the value chain or as informal, underpaid workers. This may be true despite their considerable inputs to production. From a resilience perspective, it is important to visualize the value chain within the framework of the socio-political, economic and ecological system. Women and men's have different socially engendered roles and therefore different exposure to risks, in accessibility to resources and decision making. This affects resilience to economic and climatic shocks.

Work sharing between women and men

In general women work more hours than men because they are involved in both farming and domestic duties. One study showed that in the highlands women spend an average of 16 hours a day working compared to 12 hours for men during peak farming seasons. During slack periods, the burden for women did not decrease significantly while it did for men³⁸.

In focus group discussions with agriculture and gender experts in the pastoral regions of Afar, Benishangul Gumuz and SNNP, it was noted that married women in monogamous households often spend about 80 per cent of their time in herding, feeding and milking cattle, goats and sheep and in addition undertook all the crop management activities. Fetching water is a time consuming activity for all rural women but particularly those in pastoral and agro-pastoral areas. Some reported spending as long as five hours a day in fetching water, carrying the water cans on their backs. Grinding grain is also very time consuming. Motorised mills are rarely available in pastoral areas, and about 60 per cent of women grind by hand, using traditional stone mills.

The regional workshops noted labour-sharing in pastoral households is extremely limited with married women bearing responsibility for the majority of farming and household duties. In polygamous households this was particularly marked. Unfortunately there is little research on work sharing between women in polygamous households, but anecdotal evidence suggests that this does take place. However, decision-making and control of resources remains male dominated.

In FFHs, women are obviously the main source of labour and as a consequence are much more likely to be poor. One study showed that in Alamata (Tigray), Fogera (Amhara) and Alaba (SNNPR) FFHs were 75 per cent and in Miesso (Oromia) 98 per cent of the poorest households³⁹.

³⁸ Agajie, T, Teshome D (2011). Assessing the potential role of small-scale women food producers in a climate smart agricultural development in Ethiopia: The case of mixed farming systems in Amhara Region, Oxfam America. Addis Ababa

³⁹Lemlem et al. (2011), The role of gender in crop value chain in Ethiopia

3.2.2 Gender gaps in food and cash crops value chains

The use of agricultural inputs is key to increasing productivity. These inputs include fertilizers, improved seeds, pesticides, different technological packages, credit, land and extension services. Box 11 shows the gains in productivity that can be made by using new technologies.

Fertilizer

Studies illustrate the persistence of a gender gap, with MHHs having much better access to fertilizer than FHHs. The proportion of FHHs using fertilizer was between 16 to 23 per cent lower than the figures for MHHs^{40,41}. In addition other studies indicate that MHHs not only have better access to fertilizer but they also make use of larger quantities per plot than FHHs⁴². A study of Agricultural Growth Programme woredas reported that FHHs applied an average of 21 per cent less fertilizer than MHHs; FHHs used 13 per cent less fertilizer on wheat and 28 per cent less on maize⁴³. The key reasons for this differential use is that FHHs have less money and less access to credit⁴⁴. As a consequence FHHs tend to be less productive. These issues have not been fully addressed by extension services or cooperatives.

Box 11: Productivity gains using improved technologies

Wheat:	138 per cent
Maize:	146 per cent
Sesame:	125 per cent
Chickpea:	112 per cent
Irish Potato:	263 per cent
Sweet potato:	25 per cent

Source: Shahidur et al, 2010

Seed

Access to quality seed, along with other inputs can boost productivity by between 15-45 per cent. Seeds carry the genetic potential of the crops and therefore determine the potential yield⁴⁵. However, access to improved seed is limited and inconsistent and this has significant implications for production. The formal and informal seed systems in Ethiopia make seed available for genetic conservation and planting but access to quality seed is still an issue, especially for women. Improving community seed banks and farmers' seed management could improve women's access to local varieties of seed, as well as enhancing their knowledge and emphasising their traditional role in conservation. This would help to ensure sustainability and resilience.

Education, knowledge and skills

Education, knowledge and skills are also essential to enhance productivity; literate households are more responsive to the use of new technology and new ideas. Traditionally women have had limited access to education and this is demonstrated in the figures for literacy. Overall in Ethiopia 47 per cent of adult females are able to read and write compared with 63 per cent of men⁴⁶. Some case studies of areas of Ethiopia show that FHHs are 74 per cent less likely to be able to read and write than men⁴⁷. Educational level also influences use of extension services; MHHs with primary

⁴⁰ Leulseged et al (2015), Patterns of Agricultural Production among Male and Female Holders: Evidence from Agricultural Sample Surveys in Ethiopia

⁴¹ Guush Berhane et al (2013), Agricultural Growth Programme of Ethiopia: Baseline Report.

⁴² Catherine et al (2012), Gender differences in Access to Extension Services and Agricultural Productivity. Ethiopia Strategy Support Program II, ESSP Working Paper 49.

⁴³ Abrar Suleiman (2004), Small-holder supply response and gender in Ethiopia: A profit function analysis

⁴⁴ Catherine et al (2012) Ibid.

⁴⁵ Jaffee, S and Srivastava J (1992), Seed System Development: The Appropriate Roles of the Private and Public Sector. Washington DC, USA, World Bank

⁴⁶ UNDP (2015), Human Development Report

⁴⁷ Abrar Suleiman (2004) ibid

education are more likely to have DA visits, attend community meetings and visit demonstration plots or research centres than FHHs⁴⁸.

Although educational opportunities for both boys and girls over the last decade have increased as a result of better provision of schools, cultural practices that favour men over women entail that many adult women have lost out in terms of education. Adolescent girls also continue to be disadvantaged, particularly at secondary school level, by practices such as early marriage and boy preference. Women's low educational level continues to be a barrier to increasing agricultural production.

Agricultural information and extension services

The Ethiopian Government has devoted considerable resources to the development of extension services; the investment in the agricultural extension system and the agent–farmer ratio in Ethiopia is among the highest in the world with around 60,000 development agents (DAs) and 8,500 farmers' training centres (FTCs) at kebele level⁴⁹. However, there are few studies that document the gender dimensions of these investments or the difficulties women face in accessing extension services. New information and knowledge are disseminated through extension trainings, community meetings, on-farm demonstrations, mass media and through FTCs, all of which are more accessible to men farmers who are more likely to be literate and mobile⁵⁰. Networking is also an essential source of information. In addition to their problems of literacy, women have less free time to participate in training or attend demonstrations and may be less mobile due to cultural constraints that do not allow them to travel outside of the home. The low percentage of female DAs is an additional barrier; given cultural constraints on women mixing with men outside of the home. FHHs tend to have better access to information and extension services than married women who are expected to get information via their husbands although there is little evidence to suggest that this happens.

The mobile phone has become a most important source of market information for farmers. However, there is gender gap in the use of phones. One study showed FHHs made much less use of phones for marketing compared with MHHs. The proportion was 42 per cent less for those producing cereals and pulses; 53 per cent for oilseeds and 84 per cent less for FHHs growing vegetables⁵¹. In the livestock sector, FHHs made 81 per cent less use of phones for marketing purposes when compared with MHHs. The ATA in collaboration with the Ministry and the Ethiopian Institute of Agricultural Research (EIAR) has established a free phone service to disseminate and share information about new agricultural practices and technologies but the data above would suggest that this does not necessarily benefit women farmers and is a barrier to increasing women's agricultural production.

During regional workshops it was recognised that more than 90 per cent of agricultural activities in pastoral and agro pastoral areas, are carried out by women. In spite of this, men still have better access to information and extension services.

Farmers' Training Centres (FTCs) are essential sources of new information related to agricultural technology especially for men. FHHs have better access to these than married women who are usually represented by their husbands. At kebele level farmers are organised into development armies of men and women based on the one-to-five principle. In this approach the 'one' might receive the information and is expected to pass it on to the larger group. Potentially this is a fast way of relaying information to farmers but reports suggest that the system is not functioning well.

⁴⁸Catherine et al (2012) inid

⁴⁹ Davis, K, Swanson, B, Amudavi, D., Mekonnen, D.A., Flohrs, A, Riese, J, Lamb C, and Zerfu, E. (2010). In-depth Assessment of the Public Agricultural Extension System of Ethiopia and Recommendations for Improvement. IFPRI Discussion Paper 01041. Washington, DC: International Food Policy Research Institute

⁵⁰Catherine *et al.* (2012). Ibid.

⁵¹Gush et al (2013). Ibid.

The gender difference in access to extension services is highly relevant as it has an impact on the adoption of technology, agricultural productivity and therefore food security. One study involving 7,500 households and 32,000 plots in four major regions in Ethiopia showed that FHHs and plot managers are less likely to get extension services than their male counterparts⁵².

Agricultural technology

Improved agricultural technology, generated and disseminated by the Ministry and numerous research institutions and NGOs, includes improved seeds and fertilizer as well as new agronomic practices and farm tools. Some of these have improved the lives of women farmers. For instance, herbicides have relieved women from laborious and time consuming weeding operations, likewise, milk churners and *enset* decorticators have minimized women's labour.

However, the regional workshops noted that women-friendly technologies have not been adequately promoted and disseminated to women all over the country. There are few enterprises or companies engaged in the manufacturing and supply of these tools. For instance, energy saving stoves have been shown to be very useful but are not used throughout the country. Lack of widespread advertising and promotion of technology, coupled with women's poverty and lack of access to credit restricts widespread use of new technology. Studies have shown that the plots of MHHs are more likely to be planted with improved seeds and with greater quantity of these seeds than those of FHHs⁵³. Many FHHs are forced to lease-out their land to other farmers on a rental or shareholding basis because they have insufficient labour to farm the land. As a result, FHHs may not benefit from improved seeds and fertilizer as the use of these inputs often depends on the cooperation of the shareholder farmer. The findings of a national study in the AGP woredas of the four major regions (Oromia, Amhara, SNNPR and Tigray) were congruent revealing that the proportion of FHHs using improved varieties seed was less by 28 per cent than MHHs⁵⁴. Studies have shown a similar gender gap in the use of irrigation⁵⁵. These factors explain why FHHs are shown to be less productive than MHHs⁵⁶.

The problems of pastoral and agro-pastoral women farmers in accessing knowledge and improved technology are particularly severe as women's illiteracy rates are particularly high and communications limited. However, there are some encouraging initiatives targeted at young people in apiculture, poultry, fruit production, vegetable production, dairy, forest and hill based agriculture.

Studies also indicate that MHHs' plots are also more likely to make use of herbicides than FHHs' plots mainly because of lack of finance and limited knowledge about how to use herbicides⁵⁷. As a result FHHs tend to depend on manual weeding, adding to the female work burden and risking the loss of crops from attacks by pests and insects.

Land

The right to farm land is fundamental to agricultural production. Despite the fact that women have equal rights to farm land, tradition and culture dictate that land is the property of men. The Ethiopian land certification system now guarantees that both the man and the woman in a couple have equal rights to the land and both their photographs should appear on the certificate. Although

⁵² Gender Differences in Access to Extension services and Agricultural Productivity, IFPRI, ESSP Working Paper 49. Ragassa et All, December 2012

⁵³ Catherine *et al.* (2012) Ibid

⁵⁴ Guush et al. (2013) Ibid.

⁵⁵ Catherine et al. (2012) Ibid.

⁵⁶ Abrar (2004) Ibid.

⁵⁷ Catherine *et al.* (2012) Ibid

this is helping to address the issue of women's rights to land, there have been instances where only the husband's photograph appears on the certificate⁵⁸. Several studies have noted a gender difference in size of plots. Nationally the average land holding per household is 1.37 hectares. FHHs have 21 per cent less land than MHHs; 1.4 hectares compared with 1.1 hectares⁵⁹.

Gender disparities in productivity

Studies show that FHHs are 26 per cent less productive because of their limited access to inputs and they are less diversified in production in terms of the number of different products planted than MHHs^{60,61}. As noted earlier FHHs lack of productivity may be explained because they are engaged in sharecropping and make less use of improved seed or fertilizer, they also often lack access to oxen for ploughing and are confined by cultural norms that perceive ploughing as a man's job. As a consequence there may be insufficient production to meet the food and cash needs of the family. On the positive side there are some examples of progressive cultural practices in the some parts of the country that allow women to plough illustrating a more equal sharing of farming roles.

Box 12 summarises the inferior position of FHHs with respect to inputs that could increase production. The study from which the table is drawn took place in SNNPR, Oromia, Amhara and Tigray where there have been significant investments in agricultural production. It is likely that figures for pastoral and agro-pastoral areas would demonstrate a larger disadvantage for FHHs. It should also be remembered that married women farmers may be less able than FHHs when it comes to access to credit, extension and other public services, as the husband is likely to be the decision-maker retaining control over resources and benefits. In both types of household gender inequality can be seen to perpetuate female food insecurity and poverty⁶².

However, when FHHs are able to access technology and expertise, they too can increase their productivity; one study, shown in Box 11, demonstrated a 40 per cent increase in yield for chick pea production⁶³. In this study the remaining restriction on increasing production was the lack of labour which could be alleviated by supplying better farm tools and machinery.

Gender gaps in marketing food crops

Access to markets is fundamental for farmers to increase sales of crops. Studies show that FHHs tend to produce more for home consumption, whereas MHHs sell more cash crops⁶⁴. A similar finding is confirmed by a study that showed that FHHs sell 60 per cent less wheat and 24 per cent less maize than MHHs⁶⁵. Overall FHHs generate 30 per cent less annual income from crop sales than

Box 12: Access to production inputs (in per cent)

Inputs	FHHs	MHHs
Credit service	15	21
Adoption of IVs*	10	16
Pair of oxen	12	30
Used fertilizer	49	58
Used irrigation	5	8
Extension service	51	64

*IVs=improved varieties

Source: Lulseged et al 2015

⁵⁸ Agajie and Derese (2011) *ibid*

⁵⁹ CSA (2013) Agricultural sample survey: Report on area and production of major crops

⁶⁰ Tiruneh A, Tesfaye T, Mwangi W, and Verkuijl H (2001) Gender Differentials in Agricultural Production and Decision-Making among Smallholders in Ada, Lume, and Gimbichu Woredas of the Central Highlands of Ethiopia. Mexico, D.F: International Maize and Wheat Improvement Centre (CIMMYT) and Ethiopian Agricultural Research Organization (EARO).

⁶¹ Arturo A et al, (2014) Decomposition of gender differentials in agricultural productivity in Ethiopia

⁶² Nakhone, L., Kabuta C (1998), A review of gender disaggregated data on maize and wheat cropping systems in Ethiopia, Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda. Addis Ababa (Ethiopia). CIMMYT. CIDA

⁶³ Fisseha, K (2014), Food insecurity and the relative importance of various household assets: the case of farm households in Southern Ethiopia. Second cycle, A2E. Uppsala: SLU, Dept. of Urban and Rural Development

⁶⁴ Guush et al (2013) *Ibid*.

⁶⁵ Abrar (2004) *Ibid*.

MHHs⁶⁶. Other research confirms the general picture that FHHs tend to grow less valuable food crops while MHHs focus on high value and cash crops⁶⁷.

Several studies have demonstrate that within married house holds, sales of produce and control of the income generated is dominated by men. While retaining control of decision making and income is not an issue for FHHs, they face other problems such as access to limited market information, lack of negotiating skills and restrictions on mobility which make it difficult to reach distant markets in rural areas. One study showed that within married households in 70 per cent of cases, men decided when and how much farm produce should be sold. The regional workshops reported that market participation by married women is restricted to minor sales of farm produce despite their significant labour contribution to production. The issue of men spending income raised on non-essential items post harvest was also discussed. Comments were made suggesting that women trying to involve themselves in marketing or decisions over income use could result in domestic violence.

Box 13 Avocado production in Jimma

When annual production is 10 – 60 kg per household women sell the fruit and control the small incomes. When avocado production becomes a commercial business with production ranging from 170 – 800 kg per household, men take over selling the fruit and controlling the income.

Source: Lemlem et al, 2010

Gender gaps in food processing

Women's involvement in processing of food appears to vary according to specific crops. Case studies have reported substantial roles of women in processing and value addition of potatoes⁶⁸. An example is shown in box 14. Generally, processing within the value chain is poorly developed although some women successfully use commodities and simple technology to develop cottage industries. Examples include: distilling of local drinks; potatoes for making chips; chickpeas and barley for roasting into *kolo*; *enset* for making bulla (*enset* flour); pulses for making *shiro*; and *kik* (flour or half-cracked pulses for sauce making); turning red pepper into *berbere* (chili powder) and making brewed coffee for sale. Food processing industries do engage women and men as paid workers but the industries are urban based.

Box 14: Chips processing – a vibrant venture for female youths

In the town of Bahir Dar, for example, more than 500 road-side processors (almost all of them female youths) were engaged in processing of chips, using a minimum of 50 kg of fresh potato per day. It was also reported that processing potato chips, crisps, and roasted potato is becoming a vibrant venture for female youths in cities like Addis Ababa, Hawassa, Adama, Mekele and others.

Source: Agajie T and Deresse , 2013

Participation of men and women in agricultural cooperatives

Participation in agricultural co-operatives is crucial for the farmers to promote the use of inputs, information sharing, and to access credit and increase market participation. These organisations help to build individual and collective economic capacity and can be particularly beneficial to women in enhancing their market participation and in building leadership skills.

However, cooperative membership is generally low in Ethiopia and women are particularly poorly represented. In 2005 only 9 per cent of farmers were members of cooperatives of which only 22 per cent were women⁶⁹. Women's participation in cooperative management and leadership is negligible.

⁶⁶ Abrar (2004) Ibid.

⁶⁷ Guush et al (2013) Ibid.

⁶⁸ Getahun et al, 2015 (2015), Sweet Potato Market Chain Analysis: The Case of SNNPR, Ethiopia. Greener Journal of Agricultural Sciences: ISSN: 2276-7770

⁶⁹ Thomas et al (2013), Women participation in agricultural cooperatives in Ethiopia. ESSP Working Paper 57

Married women are seldom involved, as it is assumed that they are represented by their husbands and expected to be present in the home. The cultural practice that considers men as heads of household and therefore leaders and women as home workers is a substantial barrier to women's participation in cooperatives or other organisations that could help them to be more productive farmers. It is notable that women only cooperatives are successful and can provide substantial opportunities for women in building knowledge and skills and increasing their access to improved technology. South Gondar, in Amhara, provides an example of a women-only savings and credit cooperative (SACCO) that has successfully built skills in collective decision making and leadership and enabled women to increase their incomes⁷⁰.

Gender gaps in horticultural production

Horticultural crops are often produced in the homestead and, as a result, women undertake most work. It is estimated that more than 75 per cent of horticultural operations: planting, weeding, cultivation and harvesting, are done by women in addition to their field level activities and domestic chores. A study conducted in East Hararge Zone revealed that women play a much more significant role in horticultural production than in staple crops⁷¹. Horticultural production is also very labour intensive. A medium-scale farm of about 10 hectares can employ between 38 –50 women a day to weed, pick, and grade fruit and vegetables compared to the 17 men who might be employed to spray and irrigate the fields and in loading and transporting the produce.

Women engaged in horticulture face similar barriers to increasing production in terms of lack of access to improved technology and skills and access to market information. In one study 39 per cent of women experienced lack of improved skills for production of vegetables compared to 20 per cent of men⁷². A case study in East Haraghe confirmed that 51 per cent of men involved in horticulture had access to market information compared to only 27 per cent of women⁷³. As a result of their better access to technology and information, men were 37 per cent more productive than women farmers in the production of vegetables.

Notwithstanding women's substantial engagement in horticulture their participation in the sale of fruits and vegetables and their control over decision-making and income are limited. The study of East Haraghe showed that where fruit and vegetables are produced in the homestead, women may gain income but this is likely to be small. By contrast in larger scale production men are much more likely to make decisions about marketing and to control the income derived from sales.

Major barriers to gender equality in agricultural production and value chains

Category	Barriers
Accountability, institutional structures and systems	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Assumption that agricultural inputs and technology are equally available to men and women; in practice the inputs and technology are largely accessed by men farmers. Limited availability and use of gender disaggregated information; lack of differentiation leads to little attention paid to the needs of different groups of women in different livelihood settings: married and FHHs, young women, pastoral and agro-pastoral women.

⁷⁰ Agajie Tesfaye and Derese Teshome (2014) Climate resilience and cooperatives in Ethiopia in South Gonder zone

⁷¹ Habtamu Deribe and Adugnaw Mintesnot (2016), Review on Contribution of Fruits and Vegetables on Food Security in Ethiopia, Journal of Biology, Agriculture and Healthcare, ISSN 2224-3208. Vol.6, No.11, 2016

⁷² Almaz et al, (2014), Constraints of vegetables value chain in Ethiopia: A gender perspective. International Journal of Advanced Research in Management and Social Sciences. ISSN: 2278-6236.

⁷³ Mahlet et al, (2015), Gender role in market supply of potato in Eastern Hararghe Zone, Ethiopia. African Journal of Agricultural Marketing. ISSN: 2375-1061 Vol. 3 (8), pp. 241-251.

Category	Barriers
Capacity to deliver gender sensitive services	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Assumption by extension staff that married women will access information, knowledge and skills via their husbands, means married women farmers of all types have less access to training, experience sharing visits and other extension events that could improve productivity.
Access to and control over productive resources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Women farmers of all types have limited access to market information and markets and therefore reduced economic opportunities. Male control over decision-making about production, marketing resources and income disempowers women and means they do not share equally in decision making or the benefits of production.
Cultural norms, attitudes and influence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Stereotyped views and attitudes towards women that perpetuate male dominance in the household and the community disempower women. Married women are particularly disadvantaged in power relations.
Intra-household sharing of workloads and benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Women undertake domestic, caring and farming responsibilities and are therefore overburdened. FHHs are particularly disadvantaged in this respect.

3.2.3 Gender gaps in livestock value chains

In understanding how to improve livestock production it is important to examine the different roles that men and women play in the various stages of the value chain. Typically women and girls, because of their socially assigned roles in domestic labour and therefore their proximity to house and home, may take responsibility for looking after small ruminants, poultry and traditional back yard beehives where as men take ownership and control of the larger and more valuable livestock such as, cattle, camels and equines. For example, in pastoral areas male dominance in livestock production begins early when men donate livestock to their sons at birth in order that they may begin building assets. The example in box 15 illustrates how different gender roles maintain male control over production and resources.

Box 15: Pastoral women working in the camel milk and butter value chain

Pastoral women in Afar are in charge of milking both goats and camels. Some milk they may sell in local markets and use the small income to buy household items. They also process camel milk into butter and store it in traditional containers ready for transport. The husbands load the containers onto camels to transport them to Djibouti where camel butter from Afar is a highly sought after delicacy. The men sell the butter, buy whatever they need from Djibouti and return home. Women are involved in the management of livestock, production and packaging of camel milk and butter; men are in charge of transporting and selling the final product. However, most of the income earned from this value chain is controlled by men.

Source: Evidence from regional workshop held in Semera, Afar.

Three key livestock value chains, poultry, crossbred dairy cows and red meat-milk (from indigenous cattle, sheep, goats and camels) have been identified for development during GTP II, on the basis of their potential for growth. To ensure that women benefit equally from these developments, it will be necessary to increase women's participation in the high levels of these value chains.

Dairy and beef production: input and supply segments of the value chain

The pattern of gender disparities in livestock production mirrors that of crop production. Although women play a key role in dairy and beef value chain activities, they are limited in terms of access to resources to promote production and therefore derive fewer benefits. Female-headed households, whilst able to act as independent entities, have fewer assets and less access to inputs to help them increase the income gained from livestock production. Married women, as members of male-led households, are even less able to derive benefits from their labour. There are examples of positive improvements in some areas where women are trained as dairy technicians and are encouraged to set up milk cooperatives and use new technology, like cream separators. This reduces their workload and allows men to be involved in the traditionally female activity of churning. However, the costs of technology, of veterinary services, fodder, holding pens and water troughs are beyond the reach of many families and particularly female-headed households.

Processing and marketing

Women and girls are largely responsible for processing raw milk into butter and *ayib* (cottage cheese) at the household level. Co-operatives (both for dairy and beef production processing and marketing) are mostly male dominated especially at leadership level. Women's lack of market information and linkages, and distance from markets often forces them to sell their products in the nearest market at lower prices. There is evidence that co-operatives can assist women producers. Co-operatives like Ada'a and Selale Dairy Co-operatives collect milk from producers at milk collection centers after undertaking milk quality tests⁷⁴.

Box 16 Gender constraints in the livestock and dairy value chains

Transport Lack of transport and constraints on women's time and mobility limits access to markets.

Marketing Market information is weak and mostly available to men; market infrastructures are not developed and maybe unsuitable for women. Marketing cooperatives are few in number, weak in capacity and have few women members.

Service provision Veterinary services are not consistent and are expensive, especially for FHHs. Extension services (education, training and advice) are limited and only reach husbands.

Source: compiled from different sources by authors

Box 17 Finding the right balance: recognising the domestic burden of women and their aspirations

The participants at the Benishangul workshop commented that acknowledgment of women's reproductive roles should not be used to deny women wider opportunities. While projects promoting poultry are said to suit women because of restrictions on their time and mobility, there is also a demand for less stereotyped activities: "we can do better if project implementers consult us and give us the opportunity to engage in activities they think challenging to us". It is important to find the right balance between being sensitive to women's lack of mobility and reproductive roles and recognising their potential and aspirations.

Source: Regional workshop, Benishangul Gomez

Women perceive savings and credit groups as beneficial as they promote social cohesion, capacity building and personal development. They also appreciate specialized marketing organisations as they provide access to more stable markets, inputs and advice and result in better prices. Evidence suggests that collective action is beginning to assist women to participate in markets but they do not

⁷⁴ Ephrem Tesema (undated), Value chain Analysis and Identification of potential interventions, Oromia Regional State.

benefit as much as men. Women in Amhara Region identified the benefits of participating in collective action in the milk sub-sector as: higher income, reduced costs of transport, time saving and access to a stable market. Access to quality inputs and finance and increased mobility were identified as second-level benefits. However in this study women recognised that some constraints such as transport, access to land, social barriers and lack of time are not adequately addressed⁷⁵.

3.2.4 Gender in honey production: inputs and supply

In MHHs ownership of most honey production assets is retained by men who also tend to control traditional beehives in forests while female-headed households and married women are more likely to work with beehives placed in backyards, reflecting their need to attend to domestic duties. The transition from traditional to modern beekeeping requires a lot of training and control to prevent disease and loss of bee colonies which are particularly affected by the insecticides used by farmers producing different crops. However, many women are excluded from training making it difficult for them to engage in the different levels in the honey value chain⁷⁶.

One study in Amhara Region looked at the benefits for women of participating in collective action; training, savings and credit were said to be the most important. However women reported that they benefited less than men from training and access to modern bee-hives limiting their scope for increasing production. Other benefits of collectives were mentioned: social support, leadership, equality, access to a stable market, self-sufficiency, access to inputs and voice⁷⁷. These kinds of outcomes help to build the confidence of women to further engage in agricultural markets.

Collection, processing and marketing

Access to modern beehives needs to be complemented with a collection strategy and market linkages. Co-operatives are active in offering inputs, training and marketing although there are few women members and even fewer females in leadership positions. Some NGOs report that involving women in self-help groups can increase female leadership and ownership⁷⁸. Selling of honey is a male dominated activity, with primary co-operatives, urban traders, rural/urban middlemen and unions all playing parts in the collection of honey. Co-operatives and unions buy at a reasonable price from women members but women who are not co-operative members often have to sell to middlemen at a lower price.

Honey may be processed at the household level and made into *Tej* for local consumption and this is traditionally a women's activity. However, in some urban areas this is being taken over by young men. Exporters and co-operatives are involved in the processing of honey for export and women can only reach this final stage of the value chain via co-operatives.

Major barriers to gender equality in livestock value chains

Category	Barriers
Accountability, institutional structures and systems	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Lack of gender analysis leads to interventions that do not adequately address needs of different groups of women involved in various livestock production. No attempt to address the imbalance in ownership and control over resources to benefit women involved in livestock production.
Capacity to deliver	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Assumption that training and new inputs delivered to men will be shared within the

⁷⁵ Baden S and Pionetti C, (2011), Women's Collective Action in Agricultural Markets: a synthesis of preliminary findings from Ethiopia Mali and Tanzania, Oxfam.

⁷⁶ Adenew B, and Abadi Z, (2011), Researching Women's Collective Action: Ethiopia Report. October, Oxford: Oxfam GB.

⁷⁷ Adenew B and Abadi, Z, (2011), *ibid*

⁷⁸ Adenew, B and Abadi Z, (2011), *ibid*

Category	Barriers
gender sensitive services	<p>household. Married women, in particular, miss out.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Training is not suitable for women because of their high illiteracy rate.
Access to and control over production resources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Women predominate in low-value products leading to poor income and poor nutritional outcomes. • Access to inputs, new knowledge, training and market information dominated by men. • Lack of transport and collection strategies limits women's access to markets. • Cooperatives can provide inputs, training and collection and marketing but few women members and very few women leaders. • Veterinary services are not consistent and are expensive, especially for FHHs. • Women's low literacy level, limits technology adoption and participation in value increasing activities.
Cultural norms, attitudes and influence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mobility and therefore access to markets is governed by cultural attitudes about women operating outside of the home. • Ownership of and control of higher value livestock dominated by men.
Intra-household sharing of workloads and benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Women and girls engaged in production but have little involvement and control over marketing and income gained from sales.

3.3 Gender and pastoral livelihoods

According to the Ethiopian Constitution, Ethiopian pastoralists have a right to free land for grazing and cultivation as well as a right not to be displaced from their own lands. Pastoralist livelihoods are totally dependent on livestock production and recent climatic changes have reduced water supplies, grazing land and precipitated livestock disease. The impact of climate change is compelling pastoralists to adapt, sometimes with significant negative consequences for human nutrition, health and well-being. Within this context, women are frequently disadvantaged.

Women's unequal power means that they are at a higher risk of poverty. This has consequences for their nutrition and health and that of their children. Men often control larger animals, such as camels, while women care for small ruminants. As reported earlier, in pastoral areas, as elsewhere, women have limited access to financial income earned from the sale of livestock. Despite playing a crucial role in pastoral life, caring for elderly family members and children, fetching water, collecting wood, looking after livestock and performing heavy workloads within and out of the household, women are usually excluded from having access to productive resources and have very limited participation in important household decisions. In general, lack of confidence and limited life skills together with discriminatory norms and practices have made women more vulnerable to poverty⁷⁹.

⁷⁹ Regional Pastoral Livelihood Resilience Project, (2013). Social Assessment of Pastoral Community Development Project 3 (PCDP 3)

Box 18 Respect for women: a commendable practice in Afar culture

Violence against women is a common problem in many communities; it is a violation of women's human rights and undermines women's safety and dignity. In Afar Region it is taboo to inflict physical violence on women and it is socially acceptable for women to be assertive and bold. If a heated argument arises, an Afar man is required to leave the place as 'men do not argue with women'. Verbal arguments do not, therefore, necessarily lead to physical violence. This is a good practice to be shared with other communities.

Source: discussions in regional consultation workshop in Afar, Semera

The Pastoralist Women's Development and Change Package aimed to address pastoral and agro-pastoral women's needs and interests. It identified harmful traditional practices (FGM, wife inheritance, and child marriage), limited participation of women in the economic, social and political arena and lack of adequate political leadership as issues limiting the development of women in pastoral and agro-pastoral areas⁸⁰.

The Government is promoting a change in pastoralism from nomadism to sedentary lifestyles. This measure has gender dimensions as more households dwell in enclosed land, pastoral migration is reduced and men are freed from their traditional role of herding. However, women, in addition to their domestic tasks, have more animals to milk, more land to cultivate and where increased numbers of children attend school, less support

from children within and outside the household⁸¹. Moreover, the retreat from pastoralism means women's involvement in crop production has increased, while their mobility, and therefore their access to markets where they traditionally traded dairy goods, has declined. Dairy marketing now may be done by male heads of the households and through middlemen, which deprives women of their traditional rights over milk animals and participation in sales decisions. Commercialization and consequent sedentarization has been observed to reinforce gender hierarchies and made women more dependent on men for cash⁸².

International studies on pastoralism and women suggest that the transition from pastoralists to agro-pastoralist or sedentarization need to be supported by comprehensive activities (such as enclosure, restocking, access to credit, market, training and education etc.). Sedentarization and agricultural activities correlate with a decline in pastoral women's rights and status^{83 84}.

A good practice example can be drawn from the PRIME Project, a USAID supported initiative⁸⁵. An evaluation noted that 197 saving and lending associations composed largely of women had enabled women to manage saving and lending transactions. The Somali Region Micro Finance Institute was involved in providing mobile banking services.

One of the challenges identified by participants during regional consultation workshops in Afar and SNNPR is the lack of consideration given to gender in the administration. While the PSNP has mainstreamed gender, other projects and programmes in the regional administration remain largely gender blind. For example, the gender position at the Afar Bureau of Pastoralists and Agro-Pastoralists Development was downgraded from three staff to one gender focal person and there are no designated gender persons in 32 of the woredas offices for pastoral and agro-pastoral development. In addition to the PSNP, the pastoral areas are supported by the Pastoral Community

⁸⁰ Ministry of Women and Children Affairs, (2010). Pastoralist Women Development and Change package

⁸¹ <http://landpost2015.landesa.org/resources/infographic-womens-land-rights-and-the-sustainable-development-goals/>

⁸² FAO (1997), Literature Review on Nomadic Women and the Use of Rangelands

⁸³ Oxfam International (2013), Women's Collective Action: Unlocking the Potential of Agricultural Markets

⁸⁴ FAO (1997) *ibid*

⁸⁵ Tufts University (2015) USAID Pastoralist Area Resilience Improvement through Market Expansion (PRIME) Mid-Term Evaluation, February 2015

Development Project, hosted by the Ministry of Federal and Pastoral Affairs. This focuses on improving access to community, demand-driven, social and economic services for pastoralists and agro-pastoralists. The Regional Pastoral Livelihood Resilience Project (RPLRP) works to enhance the resilience of pastoral communities in Somali, Afar, Oromia and SNNPR to external shocks. Ensuring effective gender machinery in all participating programmes and authorities will be essential to improving the lives of pastoral women.

Major barriers to gender equality in pastoral and agro-pastoral communities

Category	Barriers
Accountability, institutional structures and systems	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Absence of adequate gender structures in regional and woreda administration and lack of gender perspective in evaluation. Lack of coordination among various institutions and programmes in addressing gender. Adaptive policies fail to address gender and have a negative outcome on women and children's nutrition. Food security among polygamous, monogamous and FHHs not sufficiently researched and not addressed.
Capacity to deliver gender sensitive services	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Lack of consultation and assumption that women pastoralists are homogenous group leads to inappropriate policies and interventions and reinforces existing social inequalities and excludes women in poorest households (polygamous). Service and information delivery does not take account of level of illiteracy e.g. ATVET unsuitable for sedentary and nomadic lifestyles.
Access to, and control over production resources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Lack of ownership of assets; also affects ability to access credit – lack of collateral. Lack of access to education for pastoral women and girls perpetuates illiteracy, inequality and poverty.
Cultural norms, attitudes and influence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Social norms, lack of decision making power hinders women's ability to benefit from policies and services. Poor understanding of pastoralist social relations e.g. women's social support systems leads to missed opportunities and entry points to empower women. Harmful traditional practices (wife inheritance, FGM, child marriage) widespread - violation of women's economic, social and political rights.
E. Intra-household sharing of gender roles and responsibilities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Pastoral women undertake a larger percentage of domestic and productive work - unfair burden is exacerbated by climate related shocks. Social norms dictate men do not share household activities.

3.4 Gender gaps in natural resource management

Natural resource management deals with the way in which men, women, boys and girls interact with the natural resources around them. It focuses on land use, planning, water management, biodiversity conservation and the sustainability of the agriculture sector. The development of sustainable land reclamation, irrigation, fisheries and forestry is fundamental to economic development and achieving food security for all Ethiopians.

Both agricultural and pastoral women and men use natural resources for their livelihoods, hence they are vulnerable to any change or degradation. Women's traditional roles in collecting fuel and water are particularly affected by such changes. The immediate effects are increased workloads for women and girls in fetching water and fuel and increased pressures on feeding the household.

Box 19 Pastoralist women and natural resources

Major decisions about the **use of key natural resources** are generally negotiated through indigenous mechanisms such as the clan or territorially-based institutions. Women's influence over these management decisions is therefore largely on the basis of their informal power. Day-to-day, pastoral women play a significant role in natural resource management, through their use of firewood, wild fruits, fodder and water. They also play an important role in managing the forest and its products, including non-timber forest products. Source: Oumer (2007) in: Cathy Watson (2010), Gender Issues and Pastoral Economic Growth and Development in Ethiopia.

The gendered dimensions of control over natural resources are exacerbated by climate change. The MoANR notes that women and men do not benefit equally from watershed management and other natural resource management programs⁸⁶. Decisions about natural resource management are frequently community led, as shown in box 19, but women's lack of assertiveness, their under-representation in community leadership and reluctance to publically voice their views means that their issues and concerns may not be considered. Likewise their knowledge and ideas about how to manage local situations are not included in local plans and policies. The vast majority of agricultural extension agents

(approximately 81 per cent) are male⁸⁷. As a result, women farmers are discouraged and lose out on opportunities to participate and further climate change resilience. In addition literacy levels limit their access to other means of transmitting technical knowledge. Equally, women's lack of public presence restricts their ability to share their knowledge and skills in land and natural resource management with members of the community⁸⁸.

Cultural barriers may also impede women's access to natural resources. Despite robust law and policies asserting equal rights to land and land use, custom may intervene and traditional laws about inheritance on divorce or widowhood take precedence, leaving women without the ability to inherit land and without a livelihood. This is particularly an issue for women in polygamous households. Female heads of households engaged in share cropping arrangements may lose their rights to farm land. There are also some loopholes in land law that disadvantage women. The current proclamation cancels the right to access land if the individual no longer resides in the vicinity. Most women on marriage leave their birth-place and relocate to their husband's village and therefore this provision limits the entitlements of women to benefit from some land rights.

Constraints on women's time exacerbate natural resource issues. Women may be less effective in maintaining the fertility of the soil because they have less time to spend on improving soils and lack the know how, skills or finance to reverse soil degradation. There are also examples that illustrate the difficulties of meeting the needs of women while at the same time addressing natural resource issues. Water management and irrigation tends to be geared towards the needs of agriculture and fail to recognise household needs and the time that women may spend in collecting water. Female-headed households, particularly those without an older child, face particular difficulties because of shortage of labour.

Improving access to natural resource management technology such as water pumps, bio-gas and solar devices for cooking and lighting is not only important for the sustainability of land and forests and control of air pollution but could also alleviate constraints on women's time. However, it is also clear that effective natural resource management requires the development of women's knowledge

⁸⁶ MoA (2011), Guidelines for Gender Mainstreaming in the Agricultural sector, Women Affairs Directorate, Addis Ababa and MoA (2013) Gender Mainstreaming Guideline SLMP

⁸⁷ Oxfam America (2011), Strengthening Ethiopian Agricultural Extension System (SEAES): Report on DA capacity needs Assessment, Addis Ababa: in ATA (2013). Strategy for Strengthening Ethiopia's Agricultural Extension System. Vision, Systemic Bottlenecks, Interventions and Implementation Framework

⁸⁸ MoA (2011), Guidelines for Gender Mainstreaming in the Agricultural sector, Women Affairs Directorate, Addis Ababa

and skills through training and inclusion of gender analysis in the design and implementation of interventions.

Major barriers to gender equality in natural resource management

Category	Barriers
Accountability, institutional structures and systems	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Land rights and land use laws not properly enforced. • Lack of monitoring, evaluation and learning and insufficient data to make evidence-based interventions. • Lack of policy and interventions to support FHHs in maintaining rights to land.
Capacity to design and deliver gender responsive services	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Women's lack of access to legal advisory services. • Lack of training on natural resource management tailored for women. • Lack of availability of technology inputs to preserve sustainability of water, land and forests.
Access to and control over production resources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Technology designs and dissemination not informed by the needs of women.
Cultural norms, attitudes and influence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Women's indigenous knowledge in natural resource management not acknowledged. • Traditional law taking precedence over statute. • No recognition of the women's time constraints in operating sustainable practice.
Intra-household sharing of workloads and benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Technology transfers focused on men as farmers – need to re-focus on women's needs.

3.5 Gender in agricultural commercialisation

3.5.1 Small-holders commercialisation

The barriers to gender equality found in studies of small scale commercialisation have already been described and can be summarised as male dominance in the high value ends of production, such as cash crops and cattle fattening, while women predominate in less valued items such as poultry and dairy products. The example shown in box 17 gives a further illustration of the key issues that occur as a result of small scale commercialisation.

Most studies conclude that commercialisation adds to the burden of labour for women while excluding them from income control. This suggests that interventions to promote commercialisation should take account of the likely division of roles between men and women and aim to promote gender equality, the sharing of decision making over production and the use of income.

Box 20: Commercialisation and the control of income

Coffee is the most important cash crop in Ethiopia and its production reveals gender disparities. While women sell small quantities (usually not more than 50 kg) 85 per cent of the production is sold by men, who then control the income derived.

When coffee is commercialised and its production base increased, men control bulk sales as high as 3000 kg and control about 90 per cent of the income. The study reported that women's efforts to control sales sometimes resulted in violence and therefore women tended to sell small amounts to gain cash for household needs.

Source: Lemlem et al, 2010

3.5.2 Large-scale commercialisation

Large scale commercial agricultural makes up only 5 per cent of total food production, while peasant farms account for 95 per cent. However, commercial farming is growing in many parts of Ethiopia including pastoral and agro-pastoral areas⁸⁹. These farms are labour intensive and employ both men and women and particularly young workers. The gender make-up of their workforces depends on the type of crops being produced. For instance, the approximately 100 flower farms in Ethiopia engage 85 per cent of women⁹⁰. Men predominate in commercial dairy, fattening and processing farms. However, it is clear that large scale commercial farms are providing opportunities for women to take up paid employment outside of the family home. Processing factories, such as breweries and wheat flour plants are providing openings for contract farmers in supplying malt barley and wheat although this form of commercialisation tends to be dominated by male farmers.

However, although commercial farms may provide increased opportunities for women and particularly young women, there are reports of increased incidences of violence against women including rape, sexual assaults and harassment, resulting in unwanted pregnancies, cases of infanticide and exposure to HIV and AIDS. Although there are few supporting studies, the response of law enforcement agencies is said to be minimal⁹¹.

The other notable gender disparity in large scale commercial farms is in the status of employees. While men predominate in the better-paid and higher status supervisory positions, women are concentrated in the low paid, lower status jobs that carry few decision making responsibilities. The lower level of education amongst women may offer a partial explanation but the predominant attitude that women are not managers or decision makers is likely to be a contributing factor.

Initiatives to promote large scale commercialisation will need to be accompanied by increased collaboration between Government ministries and law enforcement agencies to ensure equality in workers' rights, health and safety at work and to take action to investigate and prosecute cases of violence against women. Violence against women causes pain and suffering to victims but also devastates families, undermines workplace productivity, diminishes national competitiveness and hinders development.

Major barriers to gender equality in small and large scale commercial farming

Category	Barriers
Accountability, institutional structures and systems	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gender equality is not included in commercialisation policies and programmes. • Limited collaboration between Government ministries and law enforcement agencies to protect workers' rights, promote health and safety at work and prevent violence against women.
Capacity to deliver gender sensitive services	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of training, credit and other services to promote women's role and gender equality in commercial farming. • Insufficient focus on training and capacity building for women to encourage participation in commercial farming.
Access to and control over productive resources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Men predominate in higher value areas of commercial production. • Commercialisation favors men because they control decision making on scaling up of production and derived income.
Cultural norms, attitudes and influence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Male dominated decision making, control of resources and income limits female participation (especially married women) in commercial farming. • Discriminatory attitudes that imply women are incapable of higher status jobs

⁸⁹ UNDP, Ethiopia (2013), An assessment of operation and performance of commercial farms in Ethiopia: Summary of Commissioned Studies

⁹⁰ <http://www.africanfarming.net/crops/horticulture/horticulture-industry-blooms-in-ethiopia>

⁹¹ UNFPA (2016), Protection of Gender Based Violence in Ethiopia.

Category	Barriers
	in commercial farms.
Intra-household sharing of workloads and benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Lack of recognition of the work burden of women that limits their opportunities to benefit from commercialisation.

3.6 Gender and food security

The World Summit on Food Security (2009) stated that the four main pillars of food security are: *availability, access, utilization and stability* of food. However, gender analysis shows that even when these four main pillars are in place, inequality and discriminatory social norms will result in women being poor and more food insecure than men. Food security for a country does not necessarily translate into food security for women and children at the household level. Women's increased vulnerability to poverty and food insecurity leads to higher levels of malnutrition amongst adult women and stunting and wasting in children.

Gender dynamics affect food security and nutrition in a number of ways. Primarily, as already documented, women farmers are less productive and less able to improve their productivity to ensure food security. But intra-household dynamics are also important in explaining why women and children are less food secure than men. Cultural views that identify men as the dominant species and head of household mean that women have less control over income and what it is spent on. Such views may also determine that priority in feeding the family is given to men and boys with girls and women coming last. Harmful practices such as pregnancy related food taboos contribute to malnutrition and have a negative impact on maternal and neonatal health.

Pastoral women face additional problems in terms of food security and poor nutrition. Women undertake heavy work, in comparison to their calorie intake. They also undertake livestock duties that may take them away from home with subsequent impacts on breastfeeding and child care. Studies also show that their access to pre and post natal care where they might learn about nutrition, vaccination and family planning is very limited⁹².

As noted earlier, FHHs that engage in sharecropping, thereby ceding to share croppers their rights to farm land, are also more likely to be poor and less able to increase their productivity and they and their families are therefore vulnerable to food insecurity. Conversely ownership has a positive effect. For instance promoting married and divorced women's land rights has a positive outcome on women's control of assets and promoting their bargaining power within the household and community. Studies reveal that securing women's property rights contributes to lower poverty and vulnerability, increased environmental sustainability and investments in children's health, nutrition, and education⁹³.

Discussions with professionals implementing agricultural programmes indicated that their perception was that participation in saving and lending groups increases the ability of women to control income and they often spend it on children's education and on the household. However, further study is required to determine how far married women and women in polygamous marriages are able to control and dispose of income and how this is linked to women and children's nutritional status.

Studies that confirm the greater susceptibility of FHHs to food insecurity noted a number of situations that decreased their vulnerability⁹⁴. Food gaps were lower in households where the man

⁹² Warner J et al (2015), A Review of Selected Topics of Gender and Agricultural Research in Ethiopia over the Last Decade IFPRI

⁹³ ibid

⁹⁴ G/Selasie K, Bekele H, (2013), The Gender Dimensions of Food Insecurity in Food Security, Safety Net and Social Protection in Ethiopia, Forum for Social Studies, Addis Ababa

was temporarily absent and in FHHs with off-farm employment. With respect to women in married households those who had higher bargaining power, for example, making decisions on children's clothing and medication, were 10 per cent less food insecure and those holding assets such as land and oxen decreased their food shortage by one per cent. Other factors were also associated with decreasing food insecurity: access to formal and informal financial resources, although this did not hold true for FHHs; higher levels of education among household heads and FHHs who receive transfers or unearned income through the PSNP.

Box 21: Gender based constraints in agriculture

Adverse environmental factors are expected to boost world food prices by 30-50 per cent in the coming decades and to increase price volatility with harsh repercussions for poor households.

- In Africa, on average, 15 per cent of landholders are women, ranging from below 5 per cent (Mali) to above 30 per cent (Botswana, Cape Verde and Malawi).
- Farms operated by FHHs are only one-half to two-thirds as large as farms operated by MHHs.
- Women receive only 5 per cent of agricultural extension services worldwide.
- In most countries, the share of female smallholders who can access credit is 5 per cent, lower than that of male smallholders. This is partly attributable to the fact that women often do not have the necessary collateral.
- Of 141 countries, 103 (25 of 35 in Africa) have legal differences between men and women that may hinder women's economic opportunities, including access to credit.
- Studies in some countries show that women are much less likely to use purchased inputs such as fertilizers and improved seeds or to make use of mechanical tools and equipment.

Source: Extracted from UNDP, 2014.

Long term, women's food insecurity can only be resolved by increasing women's decision making powers within the household, promoting their leadership and voice in community organisations and improving the access of all women farmers to affordable agricultural inputs, improved technology and credit.

3.7 Gender and nutrition

Food security, nutrition and health and making progress in agricultural productivity are interdependent and it is widely recognised that cross-sectoral approaches are far more effective and sustainable than single-sector strategies⁹⁵. Improving nutrition is a priority in the GTP II agenda and is included in the Sustainable Development Goals 2 and 3 that aim to end hunger and food insecurity and ensure healthy lives and wellbeing for all by 2030.

Box 22: National Nutrition Programme

The National Nutrition Programme (NNP II) makes nutrition-specific and nutrition-sensitive programme integration a priority and calls for enhanced inter-sectorial coordination and the collaboration of community, private, national and international efforts to end malnutrition by 2030. The life cycle approach emphasises the crucial period of pregnancy and the first 2 years of life (the 1000 days from conception to a child's second birthday) during which good nutrition and healthy growth give lasting benefits throughout life. This is the period when there is most need for good nutrition and health care but when adolescent girls, pregnant women and young children in Ethiopia are most vulnerable to inadequate care, inadequate access to health services and sub-optimal feeding practices.

Source: NNP II

⁹⁵ MoANR (2016), Nutrition Sensitive Agriculture (draft) Strategic Plan

In Ethiopia the national nutrition strategy is a multi-sectoral approach to mainstream nutrition issues into agriculture, health, education and other sectors, which is coordinated by the National Nutrition Coordination Body under the Prime Minister's Office.

Gender is one of the six strategic objectives the strategy. It recognises that gender inequality is the cause and consequence of hunger and malnutrition. It also recognises that intra-household gender dynamics governing control over resources, income and decision making and women's unfair work burden have a significant impact on nutrition. The programme acknowledges that women's roles and contributions to the agricultural sector need to be fully taken into account in order to produce policies, strategies and interventions that will improve nutritional outcomes. Women's empowerment and the active involvement of women are seen as a prerequisite⁹⁶.

Box 23 Gender and nutrition

Households tend to sell nutritious products for cash leaving the households vulnerable to malnutrition due to lack of awareness about nutrition. Food security and therefore nutrition is a huge issue among pastoralist, however, support is often provided to sedentarized and agro-pastoralist groups leaving women and children in pastoral communities vulnerable to malnutrition. Pastoral women are very dependent on their husbands due to lack of livelihood alternatives and this has an impact on food security and nutrition outcomes. Lack of family planning among pastoralist and sedentary communities is also a hindrance to achieving food security.

Source: Evidence from regional workshop in Assosa, Benishangul Gomez

The NNP suggests that coordination among various sectors is critical in implementing nutrition interventions that can combat the adverse cultural practices that prevent advance. The lack of specifically assigned nutrition professionals at the woreda level limits progress. At kebele level, the DAs and the Health Extension Workers (HEWs) are responsible for implementation but while HEWs can reach women in all types of households, DAs have less access to married women and this is a limiting factor.

Cross –sectoral working for women's empowerment to secure improved nutritional outcomes

A study by IFPRI suggests that cross-sectoral action is essential to strengthening health outcomes⁹⁷. For example, increasing women's productivity might increase production by 20 per cent but that does not guarantee that women will have control over the additional income. The result might be poorer nutrition for both women and children due to additional workload and time-poverty. Cross-sectoral action is needed to change attitudes and introduce appropriate technologies to reduce women's workload and time poverty.

Other research also recognises that 'time' is important in unravelling the links between agriculture and health. If women increase the time spent in food production, they may have less time to prepare nutritious foods for themselves and their children⁹⁸. Women's empowerment is crucial to progress; research shows that the food gap between men and women is lower in households where women participate in household decision making⁹⁹.

Another study reinforces the evidence of the regional workshop that households may sell the high-quality foods they grow and the income earned may not be used on high-quality food. It noted that any high-quality food purchased or retained by the household may not be eaten by women and

⁹⁶ FDRE (2015), National Nutrition Program II2016II2016-2020.

⁹⁷ IFPRI (2015), Agriculture, gendered time use and nutritional outcome: a systematic review. IFPRI discussion paper 01456

⁹⁸ IFPRI (2015), *ibid.*

⁹⁹ G/Sellaise K, and Bekele H, (2013), 'The Gender Dimension in Food Security', in Food Security Safety Net and Social Protection in Ethiopia, Forum for Social Studies

children or if received by them, may not be consumed in sufficient quantities to effect nutritional change¹⁰⁰. The conclusion that women's empowerment is crucial to effecting change is reinforced by numerous studies.

Box 24 Measuring women's empowerment: Women's Empowerment Agricultural Index

Measuring empowerment is difficult because it is often context specific and in Ethiopia has to be used across different livelihood types. Feed the Future developed a tool to measure five dimensions of women's empowerment.

- Production: decisions about agricultural production, including sole or joint decision making power over food or cash-crop farming, livestock and fisheries and autonomy in agricultural production.
- Resources: access to, and decision making power over productive resources, including land, livestock, agricultural equipment, consumer durables and credit.
- Income: sole or joint control over income and expenditure.
- Leadership: leadership in the community, including membership in economic or social groups and being confident in speaking in public.
- Time: allocation of time to productive and domestic tasks and satisfaction with the time available for leisure activities.

The tool offers decision makers and implementers information on the leverage points to improve gender equality and poverty reduction.

Source: Feed the Future, Ethiopia ¹⁰¹.

Major barriers to gender equality in food security and nutrition

Category	Barriers
Accountability, institutional structures and systems related	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Inadequate coordination among relevant sectors (agriculture, health, education, etc.) to integrate nutrition in their activities. • Lack of governance structure to implement NNP at all levels. • Insufficient research and data to understand the complex relationships between agricultural interventions and women's empowerment. • Nutrition not well integrated into ATVET curriculum. • Government policy focused more on support to sedentarised and agro-pastoral areas leaves women and children in pastoral communities vulnerable. •
Capacity to deliver gender sensitive services related	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of inclusion of nutrition in gender mainstreaming - absence of relevant guidelines. • Lack of capacity of MoANR to mainstream gender and nutrition. • Poor understanding of intra-household gender and nutrition dynamics by region and household type. • Focus on increasing women's productivity ignores impact of workload and time poverty on poor nutritional status. • Failure to disseminate good practice e.g. child care centres in PSNP areas. • Assumption that improved production and additional income generated due to increased production results in improved food security and nutritional outcomes for women and children. • Failure to ensure cash transfers and resources are targeted on and received by

¹⁰⁰ Girard et al. (2012)

¹⁰¹ Presentation given by Hazel Malapit and Fanaye Tadesse both IFPRI on The WEAI tool and Feed the Future, Ethiopia findings, on Gender and Agriculture: Reviewing the evidence and the way forward Workshop, 17 June 2016 at Getfam Hotel, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

Category	Barriers
	women.
Access to and control over production resources, inputs and income related	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Women's lack of access to assets and extension services affects productivity and therefore food security and nutrition. • Lack of literacy among women affects ability to benefit from agricultural developments but also affects food security and nutrition. • Lack of saving culture affects women's capacity to respond and cope with shocks.
Cultural norms, attitudes and influence related	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Food taboos especially during pregnancy have a significant impact on the foetus and health of pregnant women. • Lack of awareness of nutrition among the community leads to selling nutritious product for cash. • Cultural practices such as feeding men first, large family size, not consuming nutritious, protein rich food.
Intra-household sharing of workloads and benefits related	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Unequal intra-household decision making over use of income. • Food allocation within household favours men and boys. • Time poverty affects women's food security and nutrition.

3.8 Gender and climate change and the impact of disasters

International studies recognise that climate change is a cross cutting factor that affects all aspects of agriculture through unpredictable weather such as droughts, floods, increases in temperature, variability in rainfall and extreme weather events that trigger crop failures, pest and disease outbreaks and the degradation of land and water resources¹⁰². Climate change is said to have reduced the Ethiopian GDP by as much as 10 per cent and soil erosion alone is conservatively estimated to reduce agricultural GDP by 2-3 per cent per year¹⁰³.

Climate change, disasters and gender: different vulnerabilities

Climate change and disasters are indicators of unsustainable models of development based on unbalanced gender and power relations and social and economic inequalities. Policies to respond to climate change can either reinforce existing inequalities or address some of the root causes of environmental and social crisis. Transforming gender relations is an essential element of resilience¹⁰⁴.

The previous section on natural resources noted the different ways in which men and women interact with natural resources and therefore climate change policies and programmes need to consider gender-differentiated vulnerabilities to climate change¹⁰⁵. One of the consequences of climate change is water shortage for both humans and animals. This affects women's workload increasing the number of hours spent collecting water. A decrease in the quality of water may also bring about increased risks to health. Men and women also react differently to other aspects of climate change such as land degradation, the loss of agricultural production and grazing for cattle. Some may sell household assets thereby diminishing resources to deal with the next crisis. Men from poorer households may migrate to urban areas to try to sell their labour while women are left behind to work on farmland and care for families, thereby increasing their work burden.

Migration also throws up different vulnerabilities: malnutrition and morbidity rates of children and adults increase as the availability of nutritional food declines. In pastoral communities, for example,

¹⁰² Gender Climate Change and Food Security in Gender and Climate Change Africa Policy Brief 4

¹⁰³ FDRE (2013), Ethiopia's Climate Resilient Green Economy

¹⁰⁴ IIED (2014), Building resilience to environmental change by transforming gender resilience. IIED Briefing

¹⁰⁵ Ibid, Policy Brief 4

reduction in water for cattle and grazing often means that households transfer to semi urban areas and the consequent change from a diet rich in meat and milk leads to malnutrition.

There are important social outcomes to the impact of climate change. Children drop out of school, usually girls first, and the separation of couples may lead to increased incidences of HIV and AIDS. Female-headed households are the most vulnerable as women have less livelihood alternatives hence their household is more prone to food loss and shocks. There are relationship consequences too, often with adverse effects for women and girls. Older sons may migrate, poorer families and female-headed households may marry off their daughters at a young age to save food and gain benefits from dowries. However, climate change can also create opportunities to renegotiate gender roles as women take on traditionally male roles due to male migration.

Research is needed to document the process of adaption as a result of disasters and climate change and to measure the differential impact on different groups of men and women following diverse livelihood patterns.

Climate change and disaster management policies

Ethiopia is making considerable efforts to combat climate change and put in place measures to prevent and respond to natural disasters. It is one of the few African countries benefiting from the Green Climate Fund and this provides an opportunity to plan for the differing impact of climate change and disasters on women, men, boys and girls. The key policies are found in the Climate Resilient Green Economy (CRGE) which deals with agriculture and forestry, the Sustainable Land Management Programme (SLMP) and the National Policy on Disaster Risk Management. The Productive Safety Net Programme (PSNP) also includes some natural resource management activities. The CRGE strategy sets results and key performance indicators that are mainstreamed into existing national monitoring and reporting systems and gender and differential vulnerability are included, however, implementation at the woreda level appears weak.

The National Policy on Disaster Risk Management (DRM) aims to reduce risks and the impact of disasters through the establishment of a comprehensive and integrated disaster risk management system within the context of sustainable development. This heralds a shift from response and recovery to a multi-sectoral, comprehensive approach that focuses on disaster prevention, mitigation and preparation.

The recently completed DRM Strategic Policy Investment Framework highlights some of the gaps within the early warning and response function. Data collected has improved but use of this in planning and decision making processes still remains weak. The DRM information system needs to be unified to undertake risk management and make responses more efficient. Improved use of risk assessment tools and livelihood impact analysis at the woreda level could identify how different categories of men and women are affected and enable plans to be put in place to respond to differing vulnerabilities.

Box 25: Women's indigenous knowledge and skills: missed opportunities

The role and use of indigenous knowledge within small-scale agricultural systems compared to externally induced development programmes is a subject of study. Women through their engagement in a large variety of agricultural activities have excellent understanding of why certain plants grow well in specific places and accumulate a vast amount of knowledge on conservation, the use of local natural resources, seed varieties, food production and the use of herbs for medicines. Such knowledge is often passed down through generations. Women's indigenous knowledge has an impact on household and national food security, biodiversity and sustainability. However, because of their socially subordinate position, women are seldom consulted in research studies or programmes that aim to increase sustainability. Failure to take account of gender inequalities entails that valuable information which can address issues of climate change adaption, environmental conservation and sustainability is being lost.

Source: evidence from regional workshops

The IGAD Drought Disaster Resilience and Sustainability Initiative (IDDRSI) seeks to end drought emergencies in the Horn of Africa and drive economic growth. An Ethiopian plan was developed in 2012 under the leadership of MoANR to improve food and nutrition security and enhance resilience to external shocks with particular focus on drought prone communities. The six major components of the plan are: natural resource management, market access and trade, livelihood support, pastoral disaster risk management, research and knowledge management and peace building and conflict resolution. This initiative also offers the opportunity of responding to the differing vulnerabilities of men and women following different livelihood strategies.

PSNP 4 will be the primary user of early warning information in Ethiopia generated through the DRM programme. Some PSNP programmes are promoting energy saving devices to mitigate some of the effects of climate change. Other initiatives include IGAs for youth and women and other public works on soil retention, gully reconstruction, water and sanitation¹⁰⁶.

All the strategies focused on climate change and disasters need to recognise that women can be 'agents of change', if their needs, capacities and vulnerabilities are understood and their involvement in initiatives and the green economy harnessed.

Major barriers to gender equality in response to climate change and disasters

Category	Barriers
Accountability, institutional structures and systems	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • CRGC gender screening is weak. • DRM information system needs to include information on how different categories of men and women are affected. • Joined-up, coordinated approach needed at national level to achieve resilience in sustainable development, climate change and disaster risk reduction.
Capacity to deliver gender sensitive services	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of research to inform programmes of differing vulnerabilities of men and women to climate change in diverse agro climatic areas. • Local Adaptive Capacities Frameworks not adopted by all stakeholders in development.
Access to and control over production resources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Poor access to inputs makes all women more vulnerable to climate change. • Men and women's knowledge about the environment and their potential to prevent disaster and contribute to early warning is not sufficiently recognised. • Lack of insurance (crop, livestock, life) exacerbates disaster impacts especially among poor women.
Cultural norms, attitudes and influence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Customary practices result in unequal food allocation during times of food scarcity, affecting in particular nutrition of women and children.
Intra-household sharing of workloads and benefits.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Workload and risks of violence increase for women and girls and boys during drought (e.g. water shortage).

¹⁰⁶ Sutton P, Abadi, Z, (2014), CRS DFAP Midterm Evaluation.

3.9 Gender in agricultural research and extension

3.9.1 Agricultural research and outreach

The National Agricultural Research System (NARS) has engaged in a number of activities to promote gender responsive research and extension including: sensitisation and capacity building training on gender for researchers, administration and management staff and re-structuring to try to focus attention on gender. However, despite these reforms gender perspectives are not adequately incorporated in the research system largely due to the perceptions and attitudes that favour men and the limited technical capabilities of researchers on gender¹⁰⁷. Most of the researchers appear to conclude that male and female farmers face similar agricultural problems and that the technology generated will be equally useful to both men and women.

Until the mid-1990s there was almost no deliberate consideration of gender in the EIAR and the regional agricultural search institutions. The first gender sensitization workshop of EIAR was launched in 1999, which sparked the need for incorporating gender perspectives into agricultural research systems and technology generation processes¹⁰⁸. In the NARS gender has been structured in various ways with the most recent inclusion of the Gender Research Department. In most of the other institutions of NARS, gender focal units (GFUs) are commonly established. Gender focal persons (GFP) were also assigned at lower levels to support the mainstreaming process. There are capacity limitations and severe deficiencies among the research directorates in the accountability for and institutionalization of gender perspectives in the research agenda¹⁰⁹.

A review of the EIAR showed, as evidenced elsewhere, that adoption of agricultural technologies was lower for FHHs than MHHs counterparts due to women's poverty and limited access to credit services. In addition, most of the technologies generated were not tailored to solve women's problems¹¹⁰.

There are severe capacity limitations in NARS in incorporating gender in the various research programmes. The participation of farmers, especially women, in problem identification, technology screening, research planning, implementation and evaluation is still very limited. The reporting system is gender neutral with no requirement to provide gender disaggregated data. Implementation of the gender mainstreaming guideline in NARS is not complete and most of the research and administrative staff still perceive gender as the responsibility of the Gender Directorate and gender focal units. In general NARS is still far from its goal of institutionalizing gender in all its research programmes and projects and ensuring gender equality in the research system.

3.9.2 Agricultural extension and advisory services

The reasons for women's low participation in agricultural extension services have been detailed elsewhere; the availability of men, cultural constraints on women operating outside of the home and the time both FHHs and married women spend on domestic chores limits their participation. Priority in service delivery is given to heads of households and therefore married women, young people in MHHs and FHHs receive little attention. This is particularly significant because younger people have generally received more education and would therefore be receptive to training on new technology.

¹⁰⁷ Yeshe C and Agajie T, (2005), Organizational assessment of gender issues in the Ethiopian Agricultural Research Organization and Rehima M, (2013), Gender Mainstreaming Efforts in the Ethiopian Institute of Agricultural Research

¹⁰⁸ Rehima Musema (2013), Gender Mainstreaming Efforts in the Ethiopian Institute of Agricultural Research

¹⁰⁹ EIAR (2015), Research Strategy Plan of Agricultural Economics, Extension and Gender Research Directorate for 2015 – 2030

¹¹⁰ Rehima Musema (2013) *ibid*

A report by IFPRI revealed that DAs often work closely with male heads of household, and provide advice to husbands even on women's activities¹¹¹. There are very few female DAs and 30 per cent of FHHs in one study believed that they were not visited for extension services because of the lack of DAs in their locality and 4 per cent claimed that DAs often served those households with more land and education, which in most cases are male farmers¹¹². Another piece of research estimated that 65 per cent of FHHs did not perceive advice from DAs as useful because the extension services were largely oriented to the needs and priorities of men¹¹³. International figures suggest that only 5 per cent of extension resources are directed at female farmers and, as a consequence, women produce a third less per unit of land than male farmers^{114 115}.

The participation of women in FTCs is reported to be minimal and that of young people is non-existent. Establishing development armies was one of the extension approaches for easy access to technologies and information. For instance, in Amhara region, there are about 120,000 development armies each of them with members ranging from 20 – 30 farmers made up of male or female one to five groups. However, it is suggested that around 80 per cent of these development armies do not function properly. This is a missed opportunity as there are women's development armies and these would provide an excellent platform for extension and advisory services.

Interviews and focus group discussions with agriculture experts in Afar, Benishangul Gumuz and SNNP regions have highlighted the lack of extension services in pastoral and agro-pastoral areas but that when they are available, they are mostly used by MHHs. The services in agro-pastoral areas focus on supplying agricultural inputs, such as seeds, fertilizer and farm tools. Practical trainings are also provided to mainly male audiences despite the fact that men rarely participate in farming operations in these areas. This is especially true for polygamous households where it is expected that the wives will do all the work. There is also a lack of dissemination of appropriate packages for pastoral areas, such as improved dairy and fattening breeds and recommended feeding and management practices. In general, extension services have focused on the highlands. The gender gaps in services in the pastoral and agro-pastoral parts of the country are very high where illiteracy of both men and women is prevalent, where cultural factors prohibit male and female interaction and the availability of DAs is extremely limited.

Major barriers to gender equity in agricultural research and extension services

Category	Barriers
Accountability, institutional structures and systems	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gender mainstreaming within NARS and EIAR extremely limited. • Lack of capacity in researchers and management in integrating gender. • Gender considered to be the responsibility of the Gender Directorate and the GFUs. • No gender targets in staff BSCs or in annual performance reviews or incentives to address gender equality. • Inadequate gender disaggregated data and information to inform research, planning of interventions and services.
Capacity to deliver	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of DAs overall and very small proportion of female DAs; high turnover of

¹¹¹ IFPRI (2010), In-Depth Assessment of the Public Agricultural Extension System of Ethiopia and Recommendations for Improvement. IFPRI Discussion Paper 01041. Addis Ababa: International Food Policy Research Institute

¹¹² Guush et al., (2013), Agricultural Growth Program of Ethiopia: Baseline Report

¹¹³ Catherine et al (2012), Gender differences in Access to Extension Services and Agricultural Productivity

¹¹⁴ Huria (2014). An Assessment of Women Farmers' Participation in Agricultural Extension Services for Income and Nutrition Improvement in Ethiopia: The Case of Becho District, South West Oromia

¹¹⁵ACDI/VOCA (2013), Cooperatives Hold Economic Promise for Women in Ethiopia. Feed the Future Program Bolsters Cooperatives as Empowerment Strategy for Women

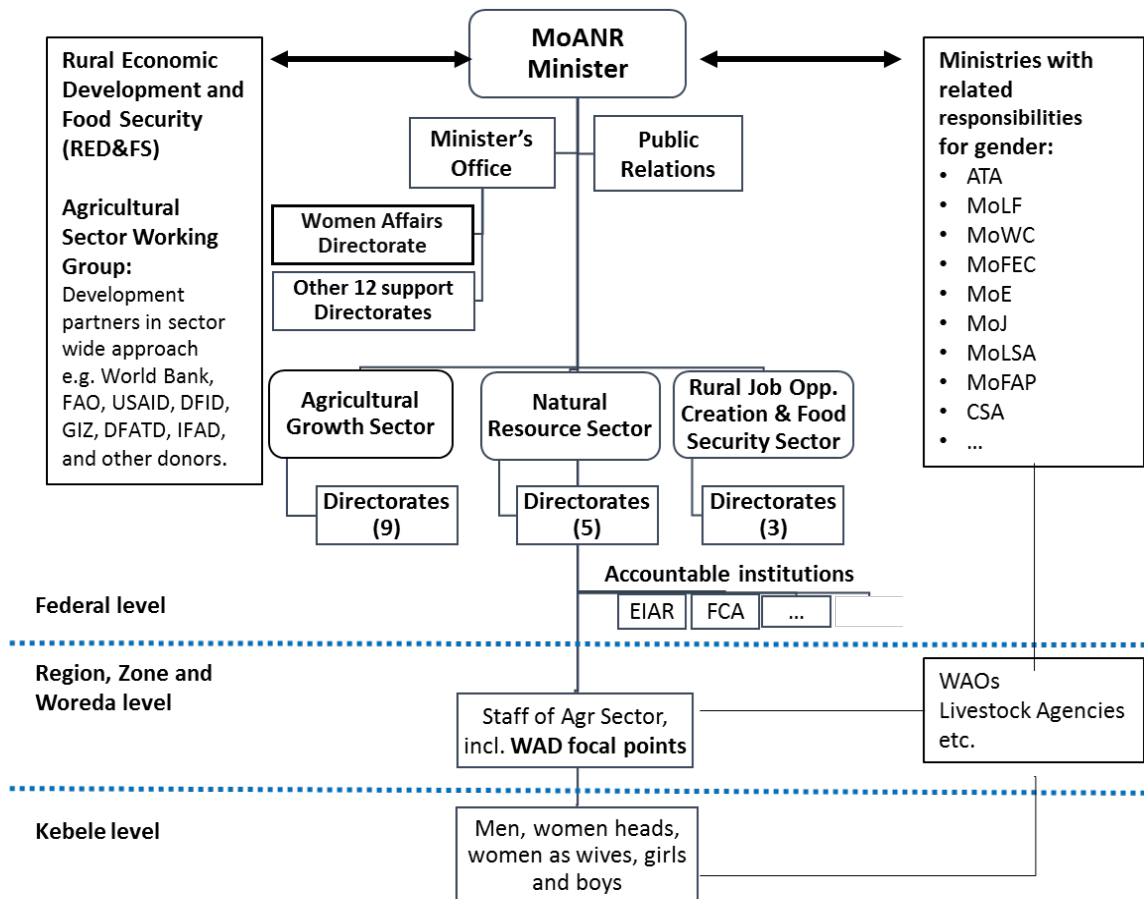
Category	Barriers
gender sensitive services	<p>staff.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Inadequate capacity, knowledge and skills of technical staff in incorporating gender in research, programmes and projects. Limited capacity of gender focal persons in providing training. Lack of appropriate services in pastoral and agro pastoral areas.
Access to and control over production resources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Extension services targeted on men; little attention to the needs of FHHs, married women and young farmers. FHHs lack finance for inputs and new technology.
Cultural norms, attitudes and influence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Lack of understanding of gender among staff – assumption that it is the responsibility of GFU/GFP. Cultural barriers preventing male DAs interacting with female farmers limits women access to extension services; lack of mobility.
Intra-household sharing of workloads and benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Constraints on time and availability of women to access extension services. Research does not address labour saving needs of women.

3.10 Accountability structure and institutional capacity on integrating gender

3.10.1 The Ministry and responsibilities for implementing gender equality

Figure 1 shows the structure of the MoANR and the sections with responsibilities for implementing gender.

Figure 1: MoANR organisational structure



In September 2015, the previous Ministry of Agriculture was restructured into two: the Ministry of Agriculture and Natural Resources (MoANR) and the Ministry of Livestock and Fisheries (MoLF). The MoANR has 30 directorates, of which 17 are technical directorates under the three State Ministers responsible for the Agricultural Growth Sector, the Natural Resource Sector and the Job Creation and Food Security Sector. Additionally, there are institutions accountable to the MoANR: the Ethiopian Institute of Agricultural Research (EAIR) and the Federal Cooperative Agency (FCA). The MoANR has responsibility for policy making, planning, monitoring and evaluation sectoral programmes and projects, and for mainstreaming gender equality throughout its policies, procedures, processes and practices.

The Women's Affairs Directorate (WAD) is accountable to the Minister and provides services to all other directorates. The Women's Affairs Directorate is responsible for the co-ordination of gender mainstreaming activities within the Ministry. It has inadequate resources (currently only 11 staff at the federal level) and within the decentralised focal point structures at the regional, zonal and lower levels. All programme staff within the Ministry are expected to mainstream gender in their plans and activities. Budgets for gender related activities are not separate but identified by breaking down the Ministry's budgets according to the impact on women and men using the GRB system.

Gender mainstreaming in agriculture policies, programmes, projects and operations is expected to be a shared responsibility of all directorates, core processes, work units and staff (Minister, State Ministers, Directors, and Core Process Owners and professionals as well as those in support positions). This shared responsibility is not well articulated since it is not translated into gender responsive planning, monitoring and evaluation. In order to ensure accountability, responsibility for gender mainstreaming has to be included in job descriptions and targets set out in the BSC score cards for measuring the performance of all individuals, work teams and directorates.

Discussions with the Human Resource Development Directorate and the Planning and Programming Directorate revealed deficiencies in understanding and shared responsibilities for gender. Often gender is wrongly equated with women only activities and gender mainstreaming thought to be the work of WAD. In fact the role of WAD is to provide technical support for gender mainstreaming.

The agricultural sector staff profile shows a significant gender imbalance at all levels. There are more than 74,000 staff employed in the agriculture sector but only 36 per cent are women. The majority of women are placed in the lower paid positions due to their lower academic qualifications; 82 per cent of the female compared to 57 per cent of male staff have an education level that is below 12th grade. Table 2 sets out the qualifications of MoANR staff showing that women predominate in the lower levels.

Even those with better academic qualifications have not been able to achieve equality in decision-making positions with the exception of few cases¹¹⁶. At lower levels the gender imbalance is greater with the ratio of 1:15 male to female extension workers.

Since 2016, within the leadership two out of four state ministers of MoANR have been women but this gender balance is not reflected elsewhere. Out of 31 directorates only three are led by women. Developing leadership skills and giving women

Table 2: Staff Profile of MoANR at Federal level

Education level	Female	Male	Total	Per cent female
PhD	1	1	2	50 %
Masters	19	72	91	21 %
Bachelors	63	262	325	19 %
Diploma	51	35	86	59 %
Certificate	5	10	15	33 %
Literate	270	350	620	44 %
Total	409	730	1139	36 %

Source: obtained from HRD, MoANR, May 2016

¹¹⁶ MoA (2010), Gender Audit

professionals the opportunity to take up managerial and leadership roles demands action and a change of attitude among male and female professionals and decision makers.

The WAD is under budgeted and short staffed and unable to employ sufficiently qualified professionals to carry out its coordination and capacity building role. The existing staff are overstretched and unable to meet demand for technical support from within the MoANR, the regions and other development partners. Since gender is a cross-cutting issue, WAD staff have many calls on their time and are therefore unable to provide sufficient technical support to enable the MoANR to institutionalise its commitment to gender mainstreaming.

The Agricultural Transformation Agency

The Agricultural Transformation Agency (ATA) has a mandate to develop and implement solutions to systemic barriers in order to transform the agriculture sector. Its Gender Programme Team is responsible for mainstreaming gender in all activities and ensuring that men, women and youth farmers participate and benefit from agricultural transformation. ATA is responsible for a women's economic leadership project and for building the gender mainstreaming capacity of the Women's Affairs Directorates (WAD) in the regional bureaux.

Despite a commitment to gender mainstreaming and equality within the Ministry, there are a number of shortcomings in the structure and the implementation processes.

- The knowledge and skills to conduct gender mainstreaming and gender budgeting are not widespread across the vertical and horizontal structures of the Ministry.
- The focal point structures, which are there to support gender mainstreaming, are not established in all regional and lower level offices.
- The focal point personnel that are established, are expected to implement gender mainstreaming but do not have sufficient capacity or resources.

3.10.2 Data collection and analysis

The collection, analysis and dissemination of up-to-date, accurate and reliable sex-disaggregated statistics are critical to implementation, monitoring and evaluation. Progress has been made but there are a number of issues that need to be addressed. Most data on women focuses on female-headed households who represent 20 per cent of all households; married women who are farmers are entirely overlooked with the result that little is known about their roles, participation in household and collective decision-making or access to resources and services. There are similar problems in understanding the lives of different ages of women and of those living in monogamous and polygamous households¹¹⁷. Women from different areas of Ethiopia will farm under very different conditions and much data refers only to major regions¹¹⁸.

Top managers and practitioners have little awareness of gender mainstreaming, the need to gather data to fill knowledge gaps, and do not know how to present and disseminate the information gathered. The emphasis on collecting data about production and methods of land use needs to be widened to include information about the human resources involved in production. Research and policy analysis capacity is currently being supported by the IFPRI's Research for Ethiopia's Agricultural Policy (REAP) project. This initiative will improve tracking of progress, support strategic decision-making and document best practices.

¹¹⁷ Warner et al, (2015), A Review of Selected Topics of Gender and Agricultural Research in Ethiopia over the Last Decade.. IFPRI April 2015

¹¹⁸ Leulseged et al, (2014), Gender Differentials in Ethiopian Agriculture: Results from the CSA-Agriculture Sample Surveys, Report prepared for ATA. Research for Ethiopian Agricultural Policy (REAP) Project. IFPRI. September 29. 2014, Addis Ababa.

Box 26: Women's unpaid work: a contribution to the national economy

Women spend much more of their time on 'unpaid' work, while men were more likely to be engaged in productive works. The time women spend on unpaid work is time they cannot devote to paid work, education or health care. The lack of recognition of women's and girl's unpaid work significantly increases their higher rates of poverty, risks of physical, social and psychological problems and their dependency on their father, husband or son who becomes the ruler of their lives. Lowering the burden of unpaid household responsibilities of women and girls enables them to engage in productive and remunerated activities, increases their self-esteem, allows attendance at education and health care services and improves their participation in decision-making. Time spent on unpaid labour is a contribution to the national economy and should be recognized. Equitable shares in work, paid and unpaid should be promoted through advocacy and awareness raising campaigns.

Source: The Ethiopia Time Use Survey

3.10.3 Monitoring, evaluation and lesson learning

The purpose of monitoring is to assess progress and, in the light of information, make adjustments to a programme or project to ensure that it meets its objectives. Evaluation, mid-term or final, identifies the lessons learned that can contribute to future design and planning. Systematic monitoring, evaluation and learning would provide a body of knowledge on gender and agriculture and pastoralism that can inform the revision of existing and new policies and practices.

The review of key documents revealed a number of gaps that should be addressed to ensure effective monitoring and evaluation (M&E) of the gender equality strategy to identify lessons learned.

- Women and men farmers and pastoralists are rarely involved in the monitoring and evaluation of programmes and projects. Most M&E activities are undertaken by project implementers. Systems for assessing beneficiaries' satisfaction with services, technologies and products are not well developed.
- Staff have limited skills and knowledge about how to review progress on achieving gender equality. M&E as a tool for continuous learning and improvement of performance is not understood, rather it is regarded as a performance test.
- There is a bias towards using quantitative data and a lack of understanding that qualitative data can provide insights into why a policy is, or is not, working.
- The high staff turnover within the sector, particularly at zone and woreda levels, erodes organisational capacity for M&E.
- Often the indicators selected are gender-neutral with the result that the opportunity to understand trends in women's involvement, productivity and use of agricultural services is lost.
- Programmes and projects begin without establishing effective baselines.
- Compiling and producing periodic progress reports is given more emphasis than reflection on the M&E findings to improve project management and delivery by key official and practitioners.

3.11 Systemic barriers to achieving gender equality

The gender issues and problems identified in the preceding sections have been clustered into five major, systemic barriers. These are:

- Inadequate **accountability in MoANR systems and commitment** to ensure gender equality in agriculture sector policies, strategies, programmes and procedures.

- Inadequate **capacity within MoANR to deliver** agricultural services in a gender responsive manner.
- Insufficient intra- and inter-sectoral **collaboration and partnership** among relevant ministries and institutions.
- Inadequate **economic empowerment of women** farmers, pastoralists and agro-pastoralists to contribute to and benefit from profitable economic activities in agriculture.
- **Unequal power relations between men and women** and women's limited **influence, voice and participation** in informal and formal institutions.

The gender equality strategy is built around addressing these systemic barriers and is fully described in the next section.

4 Strategic framework and principles

4.1 The strategic framework

Vision

A society free from poverty in which women and men farmers, pastoralists and agro-pastoralists contribute equally to the development of a modern, market-led agricultural system and share equally in its economic benefits.

Mission

The MoANR will ensure the delivery of high quality and inclusive services which respond to the practical and strategic needs of women (including women in MHHs) and men farmers, pastoralists and agro-pastoralists to create an equitable and fair environment for economic development.

4.2 Underlying principles, concepts and approaches

Gender equality is a human right; the strategy is built on that principle and the commitment of the MoANR to ensuring gender equality is implemented in all policies, procedures, strategies and programmes.

The strategy is built on the following understanding and commitments.

- **Leadership:** the MoANR's leaders and senior management take responsibility for implementing the strategy throughout the various institutions and technical entities of the MoANR and at all levels.
- **Shared responsibility and accountability:** progress towards gender equality and women's empowerment is the responsibility of all sectors and partners.
- **Inclusiveness:** gender equality is about the inclusive development of society to ensure women's rights.
- **Partnership working** between the MoANR and other development partners and actors is essential to facilitate multi-sectoral and multi-actor engagement at all levels.
- Progress will be made by **scaling up good practices**, learning lessons and disseminating knowledge across operational areas.
- **Achieving gender equality** is about a change process; to be managed by instituting transformative approaches and practices.
- **The causes of gender inequality** are socially determined and need to be understood by all actors in order to bring about change. Care must be taken to ensure that interventions do not exacerbate existing inequalities but contribute directly to women's empowerment.

Box 27: The foundations of gender inequality underpinning the strategic approach

- Gender inequalities are socially determined. Deeply rooted attitudes and cultural traditions that vary from area to area (agricultural, pastoral and agro-pastoral) disempower women, men, girls and boys but are responsible for the discrimination faced by women. These deeply held attitudes and practices are embedded in society and its institutions but they can be changed.
- Gender inequality often begins at the household level. Household members negotiate decisions about the division of labour, reproduction and consumption. Such decisions most frequently favour men. Households then interact with institutions (formal and informal) and markets. The aspiration to attain gender equality therefore requires interventions at all levels.
- Households are composed of individuals and are not homogenous. Women are also not a homogenous group. They have different preferences, needs, constraints and capabilities but equal rights. The design for any intervention to address gender inequality should be informed by the differentiated needs of women due to their various roles within the household as heads of household, wives and daughters and their differing social and economic circumstances.
- Women's social, economic and political empowerment is central to the strategy. Progress in achieving equality will only be accomplished by addressing the power relations between men and women and galvanizing male support for change.

4.2.1 Approaches

The strategy will build on the following operational approaches. The strategy will:

- Use the concept of gender transformative development that emphasises the importance of working with both women and men to understand the causes and consequences of inequalities and to challenge and transform power relationships.
- Provide gender responsive services that recognise the differentiated needs, interests, constraints and opportunities of men and women taking into account their differing social and economic circumstances.
- Recognise and build on indigenous knowledge, promote good practice and the sharing of new knowledge and experiences.
- Focus on developing the capacity of individuals working in the sector, institutions and policy environment to achieve gender equality¹¹⁹.
- Build on the strengths of gender mainstreaming in planning and designing interventions and their likely impact on women and men while also addressing women's empowerment.
- Focus on results to ensure that progress towards gender equality can be measured and evaluated.

Box 28: Gender and inclusive development

Gender-blind development – excludes women or brings them in on terms that reproduce their secondary status.

Gender-aware development – brings economic and welfare benefits to women and their families but does not challenge the status quo (can lead to unanticipated transformations).

Gender-transformative development – promotes structural changes to address power relationship.

Source: Kabeer, 2010

¹¹⁹ OECD definition: capacity is the ability of people, organizations and society as a whole to manage their affairs successfully.

4.3 Theory of change: implementing the gender strategy

The theory of change (see Figure 2) acknowledges that gender inequality is underpinned by deeply held discriminatory customs, beliefs and attitudes. In order to develop a more just society in which women and men share equally in the benefits of agricultural production, a two-fold approach is adopted addressing both supply and demand. The theory suggests that gender equality will only come about through seeking changes in the institutions and staff that 'supply' agricultural policy, programmes and services while also seeking to address the 'demand' for gender equality through working with women and men farmers.

Implicit in the gender strategy is the notion that institutionalising gender equality in all policies, programmes and services must be coupled with capacity building to develop the knowledge, skills, and commitment levels of the MoANR staff to enable them to implement the strategy. The contention is that gender targets and gender responsive provisions alone are insufficient to change the attitudes and behaviour of staff who bear the responsibility for the delivery of services that support development in the agricultural sector. Interventions to institutionalise gender responsive policies and practices are coupled with developing the capacity of the agriculture sector staff to deliver gender sensitive services. Together these interventions seek to bring about a cultural shift in the MoANR and ensure that the Ministry delivers gender equality. These interventions aim to satisfy the supply side of the equation.

But it is also necessary to stimulate demand for gender equality. The beneficiaries of agricultural policy, programmes and services, likewise reflect the prevailing discriminatory customs and norms. Women's inferior position in society demonstrates the power imbalance between men and women and therefore interventions must also address the demand side by seeking to empower women, enabling their participation in decision making, promoting a more equal division of labour and increasing their control over the resources that can improve their productivity, their wellbeing and resilience to climate change. Interventions will present women with new opportunities to benefit from agricultural value chains, innovation and options to increase remunerative agriculture and agricultural-related work. However, changing discriminatory attitudes, customs and beliefs and promoting gender equality demands work with both men and women. For example, training to change attitudes, to promote women's empowerment and shared decision making will require work with both men and women farmers. Widening opportunities through the provision of gender sensitive services together with training and awareness raising of women's rights will increase women's empowerment and bring about changed attitudes towards shared decision making and shared control over incomes.

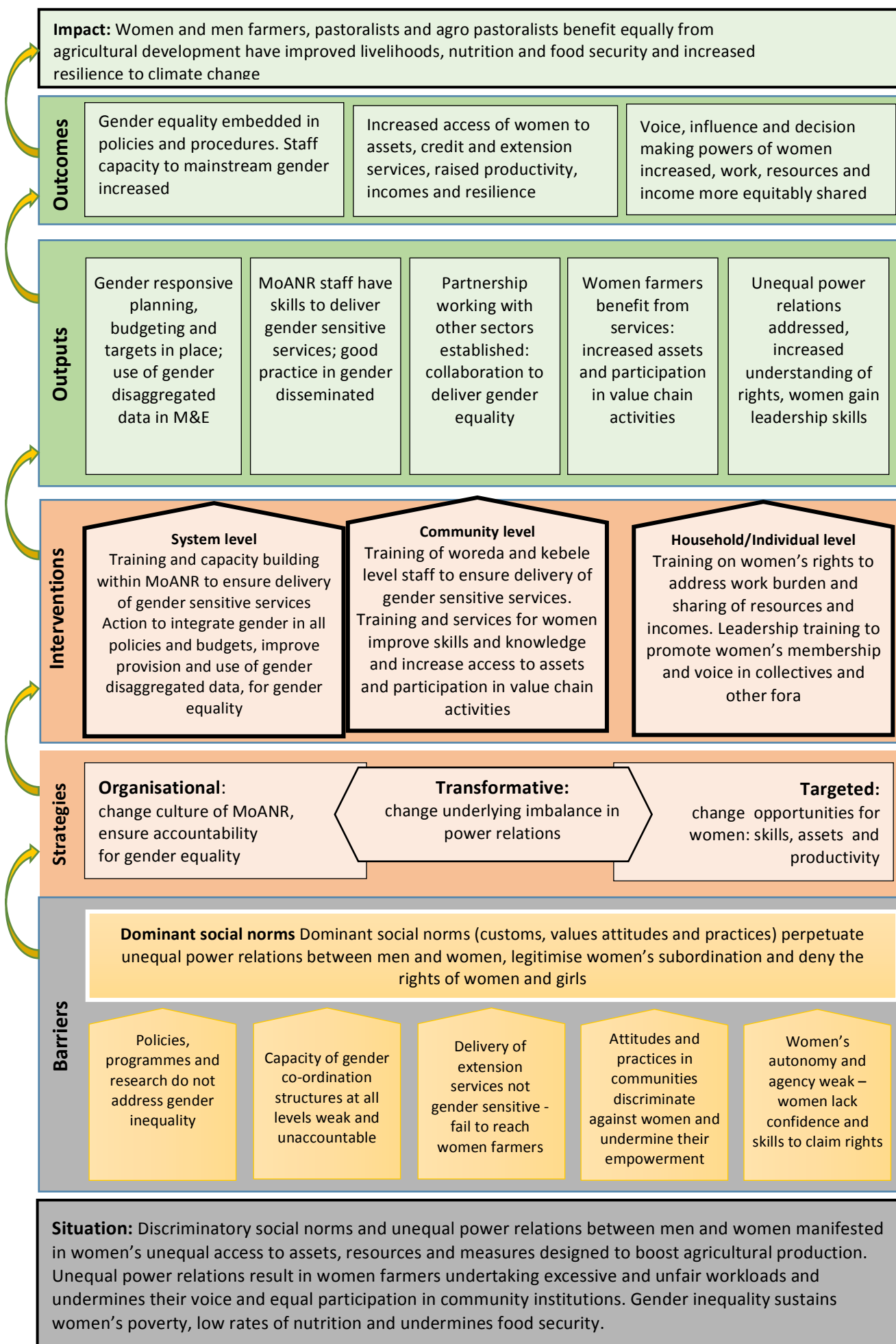
Empowerment of women and shared decision-making contributes to raising productivity, increased incomes and improved food security and nutrition for families. Improved gender equality also enhances resilience or the capacity of men and women to manage change and deal with economic shocks¹²⁰. Women are both beneficiaries and actors in the change process but to take action they need to be empowered, that is to exercise 'power' or 'agency'¹²¹. These strategies are referred to in figure 2 as organisational change, transformational change and targeted change this interventions targeted on women alone.

¹²⁰ Oxfam defines resilience as the ability of women and men to realize their rights and improve their well-being despite shocks, stresses and uncertainty. <http://policy-practice.oxfam.org.uk/publications/the-future-is-a-choice-the-oxfam-framework-and-guidance-for-resilient-developme-604990>

¹²¹ 'Power' refers to people's capacity to make choices and exercise influence in relation to themselves as well as others; 'Empowerment' refers to processes by which this capacity is acquired by those who have been denied it, and 'agency' refers to the capacity to exercise choice and pursue goals. Agency gives people the power to challenge or renegotiate unequal power relations (Kabeer 2010).

The theory envisages changes will take place at various levels: at the individual or household level to address issues of the division of labour and shared decision making; at the community level, for example, to promote women's participation in formal and informal institutions such as cooperatives and collectives, and to enable equal access to credit and extension services, and at the institutional level to promote gender sensitive policies, planning and implementation of delivery of services. Intervention will also be made to address effective monitoring, evaluations and increased accountability for delivering gender equality. The commitment and action to deliver change will be initiated and led by the Ministry of Agriculture and Natural Resource with the Women's Affairs Directorate taking a leading role in providing technical support. To enhance the status of WAD and the support it can offer, the interventions take into account strengthening their team and negotiating for an elevated Gender Equality Directorate.

Figure 2: A pathway for change



5 The gender equality strategy

5.1 Overall objective of the gender equality strategy

The overall objective is to ensure that women and men farmers, pastoralists and agro pastoralist benefit equally from agricultural developments in order to improve their livelihoods, nutrition and food security and strengthen their resilience to climate change.

5.2 Strategic objectives of the gender equality strategy

The strategic objectives address systemic barriers which were identified in the research evidence in the preceding sections of this document and which are clustered as shown below:

- Inadequate **accountability in MoANR systems and commitment** to ensure gender equality in agriculture sector policies, strategies, programmes and procedures.
- Inadequate **capacity within MoANR to deliver** agricultural services in a gender responsive manner.
- Insufficient intra- and inter-sectoral **collaboration and partnership** among relevant ministries and institutions.
- Inadequate **economic empowerment of women** farmers, pastoralists and agro-pastoralists to contribute to and benefit from profitable economic activities in agriculture.
- **Unequal power relations between men and women** and women's limited **influence, voice and participation** in informal and formal institutions.

Two of the objectives address the deficiencies and capacity within the MoANR to deliver gender equality, one addresses strengthening partnerships with other sectors and institutions to maximise collaboration on achieving gender equality. Of the other two objectives, one focuses on ensuring that women farmers are able to access the services, credit and agricultural inputs that will enable them to increase their productivity and therefore their livelihoods, while the other addresses the underlying imbalance in power relations between men and women to bring about more equitable workloads, decision making and share of resources and income.

Throughout this section and in the accompanying results framework (annex 1) for the sake of brevity, the term women farmers is used to include those working in pastoral and agro pastoral regions and also to include, unless otherwise specified, FHHs, married and young women farmers.

Strategic objective 1: To strengthen the commitment to, and accountability for gender equality in the policies and institutional structures of the agricultural sector.

The strategic objective is broken down into 5 outputs which, together with those under strategic objective 2, aim to bring about a cultural change within the MoANR to ensure its staff are capable and responsible for achieving gender equality in agriculture.

Output 1.1: Agricultural development policies, strategies, programmes and budgets reviewed, analysed and amended to reflect gender equality.

The evidence showed that there was very limited institutionalisation of gender equality in agriculture sector policies, strategies, programmes. In summary:

- Gender equality was not included in major policies and procedures and the assumption is that if it is missing in the policies and strategies it will not be implemented in programmes.

- Despite gender mainstreaming being the current policy, there was very little commitment amongst the management to implementing gender and no accountability mechanism for delivering on gender.
- Where gender policies were in place or activities had begun there was no real continuity or commitment to sustaining the effort.

This output seeks to embed gender equality in all policies, procedures and budgets and to ensure that the management and the leadership of the MoANR are fully aware of their responsibility and accountability for delivering on gender equality.

Key interventions:

- Carry out gender strategy awareness training with senior managers, policy and decision-makers to ensure support for strategy.
- Conduct review of policies, strategies and procedures in sector and amend to reflect gender equality.

Output 1.2 MoANR's directorates, affiliated institutes and decentralized structures are gender-responsive in their programming and budgeting.

The evidence showed that there was inadequate gender planning and budgeting. In summary:

- Gender analysis was not routinely carried out to inform the design of projects and programmes.
- There was very limited participation of beneficiary men and women in the design of programmes.
- The principles and practice of gender mainstreaming and budgeting were not fully understood or carried out by those responsible for planning. With exception of the central MoANR offices and WAD there was a lack of manuals and guidelines to assist mainstreaming processes in other institutions or the lower structures.
- Interventions assumed that the needs of all men and women farmers were the same and failed to differentiate between different groups of women farmers following different livelihood patterns and the impact of cultural issues on men and women's roles in agriculture.

This output focuses on mainstreaming gender in all planning and budgeting activities and setting gender targets.

Key interventions:

- Require all new programmes and projects to demonstrate gender analysis in design.
- Review and analyse the budgets of all implementation units to assess the level of budget allocated for gender mainstreaming activities and ensure compliance with Gender Responsive Budget standards.
- Review all programmes and projects to ensure gender equality targets are in place.

Output 1.3 Gender coordination structures (WAD and GFP) in place in all MoANR directorates, affiliated institutes and decentralized structures.

The evidence showed that gender coordination structures were very weak. In summary:

- There was a lack of gender machinery at regional, zonal and woreda levels. Often the Gender Focal Units (GFU) and GFP were not established and, where they were, there were vacancies and unfilled posts. In the emerging regions the situation was found to be particularly severe; gender structures were almost entirely absent.

- Where the GFUs and GFPs were in place, the problem was that they had no dedicated operating budget to implement activities.
- The general capacity of the personnel in the GFUs and GFP was found to be extremely weak and in addition there was a very high turnover of staff.

This output aims to strengthen the structures and ensure that they have a budget with which to operate. Building the capacity of the GFU and GFP staff appears under strategic objective 2.

Key interventions:

- Review and address gaps in gender co-ordination structures at all levels of MoANR (federal to kebele) and in affiliated institutions.
- Strengthen the status of the gender coordination structures by negotiating for a Gender Equality Directorate at HQ and Gender Coordination offices at zonal and woreda levels.
- Allocate an independent budget line through the GRB approach to provide human and other resources to gender coordination structures.

Output 1.4 MoANR's operational policies and procedures for staff amended to include gender equality.

The evidence showed that MoANR staff policies and procedures were weak in reinforcing gender equality. In summary:

- Gender equality was generally absent from annual plans.
- Gender equality was not included in job descriptions.
- Gender equality was not integrated into performance targets (BSC) for staff, teams or units.

This output contains further measures to reinforce the accountability for gender equality and ensure that all staff are aware of the part that they have to play in changing what they do and how they do it to further gender equality.

Key interventions:

- Review all MoANR human resources procedures and manuals to ensure inclusion of gender equality.
- Incorporate gender targets in job descriptions of MoANR staff.
- Include gender targets in BSCs of staff and TORS for consultants to ensure gender equality is included in assessment of performance.

Output 1.5 Research, monitoring and evaluation reflects increased attention to gender equality and uses disaggregated data.

The evidence showed that data gathering and research was inadequate and failed to inform, monitor and evaluate gender in activities and programmes. In summary:

- The CSA does not disaggregate gender data in sufficient details to be useful. Married women farmers in monogamous and polygamous households and young farmers in particular are excluded and the focus is on FHHs alone.
- There is a lack of research data focusing on different livelihood strategies e.g. agro pastoral, pastoral and sedentarized communities; gender and value chain activities; the nature of women's work burdens and the impact of increasing women in leadership roles.
- There is a lack of capacity amongst MoANR staff in how to analyse and use disaggregated data.

- There are areas where there is little research information on gender and gender issues and in general, research tends to ignore the gender perspective. Researchers themselves are unaware of their lack of attention to gender.
- There is inadequate monitoring and evaluation to assess progress on the achievement of gender equality.

This output focuses on improving the collection of data that will inform the design of programming and provide quality information for monitoring and evaluating progress towards gender equality. Some ideas for further research have already been highlighted but there is a need to further identify gaps in knowledge and ensure that all research design incorporates gender.

Key interventions:

- Identify and carry out research to gather further evidence on gender gaps and barriers to equality.
- Design and carryout training to build the skills of MoANR staff and affiliated institutes in collection, analysis and dissemination of gender disaggregated data.
- Collaborate with MoFEC and CSA to revise data sets to reflect wider categories of disaggregated data: female headed households, married women, young and single women.

Strategic objective 2: To increase capacity within the MoANR to deliver gender responsive services and implement the gender equality strategy.

Output 2.1: Leadership of MoANR management, WAD and gender focal units have capacity to lead implementation of strategy.

The evidence showed that there was a lack of capacity among the leadership of MoANR, WAD and the GFUs and GFPs in their ability to lead the implementation of the strategy. In summary:

- Gender mainstreaming was accepted as a policy but understanding of how to implement the policy was found to be weak in the leadership and management of MoANR.
- WAD, was noted to be severely understaffed and therefore did not have sufficient capacity to provide technical support to all units at all levels within the Ministry.
- GFU and GFP staff in addition to lacking any budget to implement gender activities were also lacking in the necessary understanding and skills.

This output focuses on developing the capacity of the HQ management, the WAD and staff of the GFUs in gender mainstreaming. Training for DAs and other kebele staff on gender and the delivery of gender sensitive services is covered in output 2.2. In order to reach gender staff in the regional, zonal and woreda offices a cascade or training for trainers mechanisms will be used. It is essential that this training is of high quality, participative and practical.

Key interventions:

- Review the remits and number of staff in WAD to assess the leadership capacity and enlarge the team where necessary.
- Undertake a needs assessment of MoANR management, technical and administrative staff to identify gaps in skills and knowledge that are needed to lead and implement the gender strategy.
- Devise and deliver a gender training programme for MoANR HQ staff and GFU staff based on the results of the needs assessment.

Output 2.2 MoANR staff at all levels has capacity to deliver gender sensitive planning, programming and delivery of services enhanced.

The evidence showed that there was a lack of capacity among the staff of lower levels in terms of being able to deliver gender sensitive planning, programming and services. In summary:

- There were insufficient guidelines and manuals on how to mainstream gender into planning, service delivery and monitoring and evaluation.
- There was no assessment procedure to evaluate the effectiveness of gender training and the quality of training was criticised for being overly theoretical and using traditional lecture style methods.
- Staff (DAs and other kebele staff) at lower levels had not been trained on how to deliver gender sensitive services.
- The ATVET curriculum used in training centres was weak on gender.
- The number of DAs was too few and the proportion of female DAs very low. In addition there is a high staff turnover among DAs.

This output focuses on improving the gender sensitivity of the design and delivery of extension and other services provided by the MoANR and on boosting the number and proportion of female DAs. Again, use will be made of cascade training and it is essential that this is of high quality, using practical and active learning methods if it is to be effective at the local level. It is this level that actually delivers services to women farmers and where the greatest impact can be made. It is also important that training is evaluated and adjustments made to maintain quality. In addition, use can be made of guidance to help implementation and checklists to assess the effectiveness of delivery of services. Tools for measuring women's empowerment should be introduced at the appropriate levels such as the Women's Empowerment in Agriculture Index (WEAI) which is used by the Feed the Future Programme in Ethiopia (see box 24).

Key interventions:

- Review and amend the curriculum of the ATVET curriculum at federal and regional levels to include gender equality.
- Design and implement a cascade training programme to roll out gender awareness training for DAs and other workers at the kebele level.
- Amend the recruitment procedures and training to increase the number of female DAs.
- Design and deliver training on project cycle planning and management for experts working at all levels within the MoANR.
- Prepare guidelines on gender responsive monitoring and evaluation for use by MoANR units at all levels.
- Devise a checklist to guide the delivery of gender responsive services for all MoANR implementing units.
- Devise a standard procedure for assessment of the impact of training delivered.
- Select and promote tools for measuring progress towards gender equality.

Output 2.3 Good practice in gender equality in all MoANR structures rewarded, documented and publicised.

The evidence showed that there were inadequate incentives for rewarding gender equality achievement and lack of mechanisms for sharing good practice. In summary:

- The preparation for the gender strategy identified a large number of innovative projects that could be used to promote best practice. Currently, however, there is not an adequate mechanism for disseminating knowledge and lessons learned.

- There was no mechanism for celebrating, rewarding or publicising achievements in gender equality.

This output focuses on recognising and rewarding gender achievements but also developing ways of disseminating good practice. The planned interventions include publishing policy briefs in order to disseminate important research findings and good practice. It is very important that these 'policy briefs' are written and produced in a way that makes them accessible to those people in the MoANR who bear responsibility for the delivery of gender sensitive services. Those people who are actually delivering the services need to be able to see why and how new methods and innovations are making progress in delivering gender equality to encourage them to adopt best practice. If the MoANR, as an organisation, is to change its culture, it will be important, not only to modify job descriptions and performance targets, but to ensure that progress towards gender equality is recognised and rewarded. The interventions propose developing a guideline to be used at all levels to recognise and applaud achievement and to stimulate debate and discussion about how best to achieve gender targets. It will be important to develop communications within the Ministry to ensure that achievements are publicised. The headquarters and regional bureaux will need to develop excellent working relationships with radio television and the print media to publicise 'good news stories' to broadcast and celebrate progress.

Key interventions:

- Develop and implement a guideline for recognition, assessment and reward of gender transformative achievements.
- Innovate to generate a culture of gender equality e.g. annual celebration of women's day; workplace gender discussion groups.
- Produce and disseminate policy briefs on best practice and research findings on gender equality in agriculture.
- Work with the media to disseminate information about, and promote best practice in achieving gender equality.

Strategic objective 3: To develop partnerships between the MoANR, other Government ministries, public and private institutions to address the barriers to gender equality in agriculture.

Output 3.1: Working partnerships and agreements established between MoANR and other ministries and institutions to address gender equality.

The evidence showed that there was a lack of partnership working to make progress on gender equality and that much could be achieved by collaborating with other sectors and organisations that are also committed to delivering on gender equality. In summary:

- There were weak links with other stakeholders and joint action is needed to address barriers to gender equality. In particular collaboration with sector ministries and other organisations involved in education, health, employment and the law was lacking and undermining rights for women farmers. The evidence also showed

Box 29 Improving women's literacy: entry points

Women's collectives such as saving and lending groups, fuel-saving stove and WASH groups offer excellent entry points to deliver leadership, literacy and numeracy skills training. Membership has enhanced women's social capital; participants have a high sense of ownership and pride. This approach demonstrated the potential to promote dialogue on various topics to strengthen collectives, ensure sustainability beyond each group's mandate and expand members' knowledge, awareness and voice.

Sutton, P., Abadi, Z., et al, 2014

that making progress on these rights is integral to improving agricultural productivity.

- There was very limited cooperation or collaboration with other ministries and institutions to leverage support and resources to push forward on gender issues.

This output focuses on establishing joined-up working to deliver on gender equality. For example, collaboration with the Functional Adult Literacy programme could address illiteracy rates among women farmers; low level of literacy is one of the main reasons that women farmers do not access training, limiting their agricultural productivity and their involvement in value chain activities therefore the possibility of improving their livelihoods. Co-operation with the Ministries of Education and Women and Children's Affairs is crucial to promote women's rights and in particular women's education and training. Cooperation with the Ministry of Justice to enforce women's rights to land and with the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs to enforce employment rights and improve the health and safety of women and men working in the growing commercial sector are two further examples of where partnership working to achieve shared goals is crucial. Collaboration with other government institutions and the non-governmental and private sectors is equally important to ensure common messages and approaches to achieving gender equality. Following the stakeholder analysis it is expected that the MoANR will establish memoranda of understanding or agreements for joint action with relevant ministries and other organisations.

Key interventions

- Conduct a MoANR stakeholder analysis to identify inter-sectoral links relevant to addressing gender equality.
- Establish links with relevant sections of ministries and other institutions to share practice and take joint-action in addressing barriers to gender equality.

Output 3.2: Knowledge, information and resources to promote best practice shared amongst partners.

The evidence showed as detailed about, that the lack of collaboration meant that best practice lessons were not shared and there was a failure to exchange information and resources to achieve gender equality. In summary:

- It was noted that other stakeholders have information that could help to inform MoANR policies and procedures and speed up the process of gender mainstreaming.
- Currently the mechanisms for sharing best practice are weak both within the MoANR and with other stakeholders.

This output focuses on taking output 3.1 a stage further by sharing information, knowledge and other resources.

Key interventions

- Establish a web site for sharing best practice and learning with other stakeholders the best was of tackling gender equality.
- Establish a task force with responsibility for amending programmes and projects based on information generated by inter- sectoral collaboration.

Strategic objective 4: To enable women farmers, pastoralists and agro pastoralists to increase agricultural productivity and benefit from profitable economic activities.

Overall the evidence showed that all women farmers, pastoralists and agro-pastoralists were particularly, were disadvantaged when it came to accessing extension services, training, agricultural inputs, credit and market information that could help to boost their productivity and empower them economically.

Output 4.1: Women farmers have access to land, services and other productive resources.

In summary the evidence showed that:

- Services do not take into account the needs of different groups of women, for example, married women farmers, young women and FHHs.
- FHHs are often too poor to afford inputs such as fertilizer and seed and that the use of sharecropping, as a result of their limited labour power, limits the use of improved technologies.
- Women farmers all have less access to credit because they lack collateral.
- Married women miss out on information and training because they are thought to learn via their husbands and participation rates of young women in training are very low. Women's workloads and the expectation that they will remain within the home also limit their participation in training and other extension services that could improve methodologies.
- Low literacy levels frequently account for women's lack of access to training but also credit, where there may be demands made for business plans and accounting that semi or illiterate women cannot fulfil.
- Men's control over decision making, resources and income presents a formidable barrier to gender equality.

This output focuses on improving the means by which different groups of women following different livelihood patterns can access the inputs that will empower them economically. The issue of male control over decision-making barring women's progress in agriculture is a common finding and addressed under strategic objective 5. Research will also be an important part of this output, for example, researching pattern of land control in pastoral areas to improve women's access to land and researching ways in which FHHs can be assisted to improve farming their land. The use of active learning methods in training and the use of female trainers can also help to ensure women's participation.

Key interventions

- Undertake an assessment of women in different household and livelihood production types to learn how to design and deliver women specific extension services.
- Provide gender sensitive access points for women farmers to participate in extension services and for the delivery of agricultural inputs.
- Develop extension manuals and guidelines to support DA staff in gender sensitive delivery of services.
- Provide credit facilities to women farmers to buy seed, fertilizers, livestock and other inputs needed to participate in value chain activities.
- Implement certification of shared ownership of land across all regions and work with the MoJ and police to enforce women's rights to land.
- Undertake research on patterns of land control and use in agro pastoral and developing regions to assess and improve women's access to land and in FHHs to develop alternatives to sharecropping.
- Identify and recruit women farmers as role models to support DAs in providing gender sensitive services.

Output 4.2 Women farmers able to participate in higher levels of value chain production and commercial agriculture.

The evidence showed that women's participation the higher levels of value chains activities was extremely limited. In summary:

- Men control the higher value livestock e.g. cattle while women tend to control smaller, less high value livestock e.g. poultry.
- Women's workload and low literacy levels limits their participation in training.
- Access to credit is also a barrier to benefiting from value added activities.
- Men not only control the higher levels of value chain activities but the income derived from sales. This again limits the ability of women farmers to control family spending which can benefit the children.
- The mobility of women is limited by social expectations about women remaining within the homestead and their excessive work loads. This limits access to markets.
- The situation of pastoral and agro pastoral women farmers was particularly poor but there was little information about their specific needs. What evidence there was, showed that a move from pastoral to sedentary lifestyles is often accompanied by loss of rights and the reinforcement of male hierarchies.

Box 30: Women in the value chain: evidence from Bangladesh

Under the Microfinance and Technical Support Project in Bangladesh, IFAD supported the development of women-centred poultry value chains. Women were trained to be specialized actors at well-defined nodes in the chain (i.e. model poultry breeders, mini-hatchery owners, chick raisers and poultry keepers), and value was added by upgrading the poultry. The level of technology was appropriate because mini-hatcheries are easy to build and manage. Overall household income was raised, there were more equitable roles and relations in the household became more equitable and women's status within the village increased.

Source: IFAD, 2012

This output focuses on increasing women's role in the higher- value end of productions. Issues of market information and the focus of output 4.3 and issues over male control of decision making and workloads are dealt with under strategic objective 5.

Key interventions

- Conduct gender analysis of value chains to identify barriers to participation by women farmers, pastoralists and agro pastoralists.
- Provide funds to promote women's access to credit for high value chain activities.
- Organise women in collectives and facilitate transport and collection points to ensure they can reach markets.

Output 4.3 Women farmers have increased skills and information on production, processing and marketing of agricultural products.

The evidence showed that women farmers have lack of information and skills to process and market agricultural products. This affects women who are trying to market agricultural products as well as those involved in high value chain activities.

- There is male control over sources of information e.g. networking and ownership of mobile phones.
- Training is not tailored to women's needs. For example, there is infrequent use of local languages or courses pitched at the appropriate literacy level to enable women to participate.
- Women are less able to network to gain information but also less able to access markets because of restrictions on their mobility and work loads.

This output addresses these issues.

Key interventions

- Provide skills training for women of different educational levels on value chain activities, management, market information.
- Develop and operate systems for gathering and disseminating market information for women farmers.
- Design and operate a mobile training system for women in pastoral, agro pastoral and remote kebeles.
- Research use of mobile phones to deliver training and market information for women farmers and pastoralists.

Strategic objective 5: To increase the voice, influence and decision making powers of women in the household and within community formal and informal institutions.

Output 5.1 Women and men have increased awareness of women's human rights and of the impact of discriminatory and harmful practices.

The evidence fully and frequently documented the prevalence and strength of social norms, beliefs and attitudes that perpetuate gender inequality. In summary:

- There is a prevailing view that women are subordinate and that men should make all the decisions. Power relations between the sexes are unequal.
- These attitudes maintain male control over resources and income and decisions about livelihoods but also family matters such as how many children to have and who goes to school. When women have control over resources, spending on the family is increased.
- Harmful traditional practices, such as FGM, widow inheritance and child marriage are sustained by unequal power relations. Violence against women is also a key issue to be addressed.

Box: 31 Women's participation in decision-making

When women are involved in kebele committees there is a positive correlation between their participation and community awareness of women's rights. For example, the PSNP provisions on reducing women's work burdens were more effectively implemented when women representatives were included in the committees. Women's leadership also resulted in the inclusion of the elderly, physically disabled and chronically ill. In Tigray women representatives in committees were able to voice demands around targeting of resources, prioritising loans for women, making provision for pregnant and lactating women and providing evidence to assist women to move from cash transfer to livelihood support under the PSNP programme.

Source: Philip et al, 2012, Ethiopia PSNP, 2010-14: a value for money assessment

This output is crucial. It seeks to address this very fundamental barrier to women's equality. It is recognised that there is a need to work with both men and women to address this issue but that women's subordinate position and their lack of confidence in participating in mixed circles will necessitate work with women only groups to raise awareness of their rights to gender equality and to empower women to demand those rights. The interventions below will involve collaboration

with other ministries, in particular the Ministry of Women and Children's Affairs and the Ministry of Education, but also other key government agencies such as the police and the Ministry of Justice. The strategy referred to below could include activities such as community conversations on gender equality. This type of intervention engages with both men and women but also key opinion formers, such as traditional and religious leaders. Activities such as these will be need to bring about behaviour change in both men and women. In addition, training targeted on women can be used to raise their confidence and other mechanisms, such as poster and media campaigns, used to support messages about gender equality. Again, it is important to note that training will need to employ active learning methods and be of high quality in order to achieve its objectives. The use of female trainers will also be important to secure women's participation. Social accountability programmes address the delivery of services such as education, health, water and sanitation by involving the community is assessing whether standards for delivery are met. It is important that messages about gender equality are consistent across community programmes.

Key interventions

- Develop a strategy, involving men and women, to raise awareness of women's rights and gender equality policies and provisions in agriculture.
- Work with the MoWC and the MoE to promote social and behavioural change communication and training on women's rights and the impact of violence against women and harmful traditional practices.
- Work with social accountability programmes to ensure women's rights and gender equality are included in social accountability mechanisms.

Output 5.2: Domestic and productive work burdens between men and women are more equitably shared.

The evidence clearly showed that women's unequal workload reinforces gender inequality in decision making and control over resources. If women are to engage in training to raise their productivity and their participation in higher-end value chains, then workloads have to be more equitably shared. In summary:

- Women's work burdens are excessive; they are expected to work outside the home in agricultural production/value chain activities but also to care for children, elderly and sick and carry out all domestic chores, some of which will be excessively time consuming such as gathering water and fuel.
- Excessive work burdens prevent women from participating fully in community fora and in activities that could raise productivity e.g. training.
- Research and extension services have not paid attention to labour saving tools and mechanisms that would ease women's work burden.

This output focuses on promoting measures to encourage more equitable sharing of workloads and promoting labour saving techniques. Clearly the sharing of workloads will also be addressed through the training and community conversations set out under output 5.1.

Box 32 Sharing the burden: men help to carry the water

In Dembeli, a village in Western Oromia with 1200 families, men now help to carry water. Some nutrition experts working in the village asked the women: "what's the most onerous task"? All the women gave the same answer – the worst is fetching the water. There are two covered wells about four kilometre outside the village and fetching water can take up to 3 hours a day. There is no money to build wells nearer to the village. The village chairman, who calculated that his wife had to carry 60 kilo a day, initiated some changes. The family has two daughters and the chairman and his wife were keen that they should have the same opportunities as their sons and not drop out of school because of domestic duties like fetching water. The chairman persuaded other men to join with him in taking their turn to fetch water. He explains: If a husband and wife share the burdens their love will be strengthened and the family becomes healthier and better off."

Source: Waterfront, No.3 2015

Key interventions

- Develop implementation guidelines on options and best practices to reduce workloads for women participating in agriculture sector programmes.
- Promote dialogue and discussion of the impact of workload on women and the benefit of equitable distribution of labour within the household.
- Research and promote use of labour and time saving farm tools, technologies and facilities that reduce excessive workloads on women and girls.
- Promote the establishment of community child care facilities to assist women with caring responsibilities.

Output 5.3 Women farmers are able to participate in and lead formal and informal social and economic groups.

The evidence showed that there was a lack of women's representation and leadership in formal and informal social and economic groups. In summary:

- Women, particularly married women, are unable to participate in planning for development because their voice is not heard.
- Women lack the confidence to participate in fora and speak out. The social expectation is that men will lead and dominate discussions and community decisions.
- There is very low female membership of organisations, like collectives and cooperatives, that could help women improve their economic position. Women collectives have been seen to be successful.

This output focuses on making changes to the rules of organisations and providing training that will promote women's participation and encourage them to take up leadership roles. Again, it is important to note that the training will target women and may well be best delivered as part of the training envisaged under output 5.1.

Key interventions

- Work with other institutions to promote women's role in existing male dominated collectives and cooperatives and women only collectives and cooperatives.
- Review project implementation manuals and/or rules for committees in natural resource management, safety net, co-operatives and other agricultural programmes to institute 50/50 male and female in leadership and promote female membership.
- Provide leadership skills training for women to promote their role and participation in formal and informal groups.

6 Implementation modalities

6.1 Conditions for implementing the strategy

There are three key underpinning strategies to be executed: organisational, to change the culture, attitudes and behaviour of staff in the MoANR to ensure that it is accountable for delivering on gender equality; targeted changes within the delivery of services and activities to ensure women farmers can access land, credit, skills training, information and other resources to empower them economically and transformative actions to bring about a shift in the balance of power between men and women.

6.2 The role of WAD within the MoANR

While the MoANR remains overall responsible and accountable for delivering the strategy and ensuring progress towards gender equality, the WAD will lead the implementation by providing overall management, expertise and technical support and coordinating activities. Strengthening the WAD and the gender structures as indicated in output 1.3 will be crucial to effective implementation. Output 1.3 also provides for the possibility of recognising the need to elevate its status in line with its responsibilities by creating a Gender Equality Directorate and corresponding structures at regional, zonal and woreda levels. Key activities for WAD will include:

- Initiating awareness raising within the leadership of MoANR and its directorates and securing their ownership of the strategy and their responsibilities and accountability for gender equality.
- Leading the review of policies, strategies and procedures to embed gender provisions.
- Overseeing the development of a cascade training system to build the capacity of regional, zonal and woreda level agricultural staff and ensuring the quality of training manuals and assessment procedures.
- Working with the MoE and MoWCA to design the cascade training systems to deliver targeted training on women's rights.
- Ensuring that all new programmes and projects conduct gender analysis in the design process.
- Overseeing annual plans and budgets of the directorates and decentralised structures to ensure that gender issues and activities are mainstreamed.
- Coordination of monitoring, review and learning processes at national and regional levels.
- Forging partnerships with other development partners and establishing and maintaining a network of gender staff in partner ministries and organisations.
- Horizontal and vertical co-ordination of the implementation of the strategy by strengthening the gender machinery within MoANR and its affiliated institutes at national level and in the regional bureaux of agriculture.
- Co-ordination with the gender focal units in other ministries and organisations
- Documentation and dissemination of best practice in gender responsive planning and implementation.

6.3 Gender assessments and rolling annual plans

The MoANR, through WAD, will ensure that all its interventions are preceded by gender analysis and gender audits to understand the context, constraints and opportunities of men and women in different circumstances; to set relevant indicators and targets and to promote gender equality outcomes.

Rolling annual work plans to ensure implementation will be developed by WAD in collaboration with the regional focal points, the MoANR directorates and case teams, affiliated institutes and decentralised structures. Each implementation entity will collect sex-disaggregated data and information to establish baselines, identify performance indicators and develop realistic gender targets to assess progress on the strategy (see Annex 3 for the outline action plan). In addition the MoANR will need to earmark resources for advocating and promoting the gender equality strategy through workshops, conferences, publications and a 'gender equality' day.

6.4 Strengthening research, the knowledge base and knowledge management

The WAD will work closely with the gender equality units in the ATA, CSA, National Agricultural Research Systems and other relevant international organisations to ensure that gender equality is mainstreamed into their plans and practices and to identify and execute pieces of research that will inform policy and practice. It will be important to develop action research to pilot and make ongoing evaluations of interventions to provide qualitative information for scaling up successful activities. For example, action research techniques could be used to pilot and evaluate mobile training to reach pastoral women and those in very remote kebeles. The evidence and proposed interventions highlight a number of other areas where research is needed:

- The effectiveness of training on the rights of women on changing attitudes amongst men and women.
- Women's work burdens and the impact of leadership training on developing women's voice and representation.
- Methods for improving FHHs' land use and alternatives to sharecropping.
- The impact of the transition from pastoral towards sedentary lifestyles on the rights and livelihoods of pastoral women and girls.
- Documentation of indigenous knowledge and skills that are essential to nurturing and managing the environment and natural resources.
- Ways of providing women with market information.

Monitoring procedures need to be adapted to capture good practice. For example, there could be routine requirements for providing case studies which, where they demonstrate good practice, can be disseminated. Considerable resources will have to be devoted to knowledge management and the dissemination of good practice. As pointed out earlier, publications will need to take into account the target audience and ensure that written policy briefs or the use of other media are accessible in language and style. Other ways of disseminating good practice might include seminars, conferences and workshops and instigating competitions between and within regions to show case exemplary practice in achieving gender equality.

6.5 Recognising and rewarding achievement

Output 2.3 notes the importance of rewarding good practice in reinforcing a culture change within the MoANR. A number of methods are proposed including regular discussion of gender as part of work routines, annual celebrations of good practice and successes on national women's day and developing a guideline for the assessment, recognition and award of gender transformative achievements. It is suggested that the WAD in collaboration with ATA and development partners like AKLDP should undertake this exercise. Regular gender audits may also be used to identify innovation and achievements.

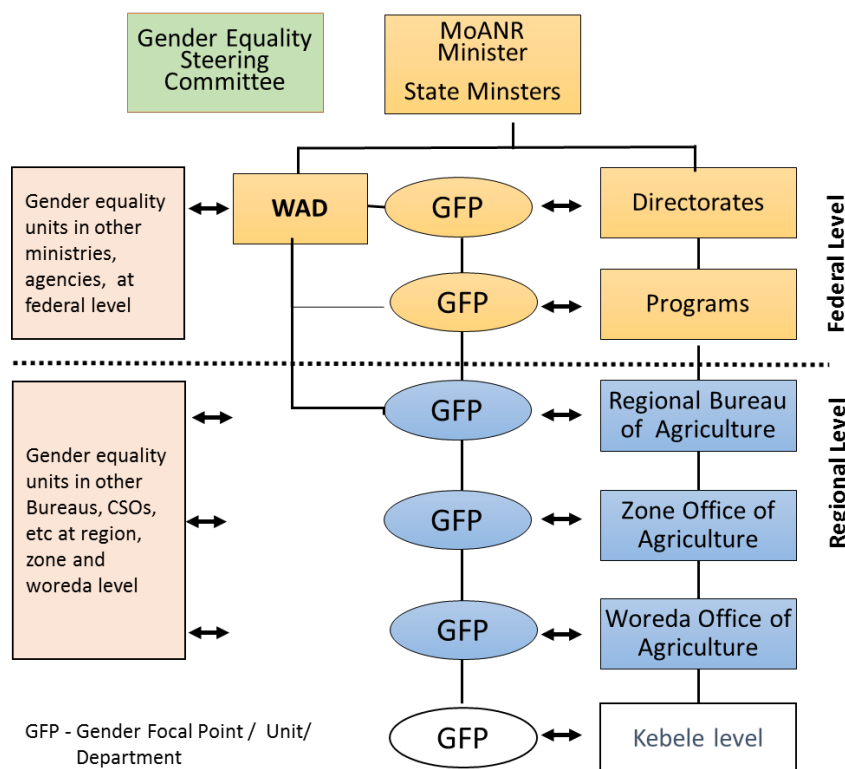
6.6 Implementation structures at national and regional levels

Figure 3 sets out the structures for implementation noting the crucial position of a strengthened WAD in overall management and coordination. The following recommendations are made to support effective implementation.

6.6.1 The Gender Equality Steering Committee

At national level the Gender Equality Steering Committee (GESC) will provide overall strategic direction, guidance and oversight of the implementation of the strategy. It will be chaired by the Minister of the MoANR. The committee will have representatives from the MoANR directorates, affiliated institutes, the Ministry of Federal and Pastoral Affairs, the Ministry of Women and Children, the Agricultural Transformation Agency and other relevant organisations. It will meet twice a year and will also be responsible for publicising the strategy. The Committee will liaise with the Agriculture Transformation Council and the Standing Committee for Gender Affairs at the House of Representatives of the FDRE.

Figure 3: Implementation structure of the gender equality strategy



6.6.2 Gender focal points for the implementation of the strategy

Appointments will need to be made to fill existing gaps and create new gender focal points (GFPs) where they do not exist. The GFPs will take on responsibility for facilitating the implementation of the strategy. It will be crucial to ensure that the GFPs are given sufficient training and resources to carry out the gender planning, budgeting, monitoring and evaluation that successful implementation of the strategy requires. The devolved GFPs will coordinate their activities with the WAD who will assist implementation at the regional level and below by providing training, materials, guidelines and procedures, technical support and by facilitating learning and review events. They will also lobby for assignment of appropriate professionals on the position of gender experts.

6.5 Partnership and network for gender equality in agriculture sector

Gender equality strategy cooperating partners

Implementation of the strategy will require developing and nurturing strategic partnerships within and outside the agriculture sector to advocate for the strategy and leverage support. Table 3 lists the key actors within the agricultural sector and partners in related sectors and institutions. Again the WAD will take responsibility for establishing and sustaining partnerships with key stakeholders. Considerations that will guide networking and the establishment of partnership working are the:

- Mandate of the sector/institution with respect to specific gender issues.
- Expertise and experience of the partner, national and international, with regard to gender.
- Potential of the partner to contribute finance or other resources.
- Networking power or strength of relationship the partner has with other important actors.

Ethiopian Network for Gender Equality in Agriculture (ENGEA)

The MoANR, through WAD, and together with the ATA, will strengthen the Ethiopian Network for Gender Equality in Agriculture (ENGEA). This body was established to create a synergy between Government, development partners, donors, NGOs and research institutions in the development and implementation of gender responsive agricultural policies, to advocate for gender equality and to share and promote best practice.

Gender Equality Taskforce as multi-stakeholder coordination platform

The Gender Equality Taskforce is a multi-stakeholder forum composed of WAD, ATA, relevant ministries, development partners and NGOs. It has played a key role in the development of this gender equality strategy. It is recommended that the remit of the Gender Equality Taskforce be extended within the framework of ENGEA to provide a platform for technical coordination of internal and external partnerships for meaningful cooperation and coordination. The Gender Equality Taskforce will be chaired by the WAD Director and meet on quarterly basis.

Theme-based inter-sectoral/ministerial collaboration

MoANR will also establish binding terms of engagement with relevant ministries and institutions to jointly intervene in common thematic area. These will include formal agreements with the:

- Ministry of Livestock and Fishers to provide gender responsive extension and livestock services at kebele level.
- Ministry of Women and Children's Affairs to carry out the training at community level that can assist the empowerment of women and promote their participation in decision-making at household and community levels.
- ATA for joint action to identify and remove the barriers to inclusive development.

- Ministry of Education to promote women's participation in functional adult literacy programmes and to influence educational policy and action.
- Ministry of Justice to ensure the implementation of women's legal rights.
- Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs to ensure that the employment rights of women and girls are upheld and to promote women friendly work environments.
- Ministry of Federal and Pastoral Affairs to implement the gender equality strategy in pastoral and agro-pastoral areas.

Collaboration among different partners and joint work to further gender equality objectives will be formally recognised through memoranda of understanding or joint agreements. These documents will set out clear terms of engagement, the roles and responsibilities of each party, agreed strategic objectives, milestones to monitor progress, fora or events for the joint of review and evaluation of achievements and mechanisms for solving conflicts as well as sharing lessons and success stories.

Table 3: Proposed roles and responsibilities of the key stakeholders in implementation

Key stakeholder	Roles and responsibilities
MoANR MoLF	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Overall direction, guidance, oversight and accountability for implementing gender strategy. • Generate and distribute gender sensitive policies, laws, regulations. • Gender responsive planning, budgeting and M&E. • Ensuring provision of gender disaggregated data in agriculture surveys and reports.
WAD of MoANR	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Overall coordination of the gender equality strategy. • Production of action plans for implementation. • Overseeing the insertion of gender equality provisions into all procedures and policies. • Coordination of gender strategy planning, monitoring, review and learning processes at national and regional levels. • Carrying out capacity building training for gender and other staff at federal and regional levels. • Forging partnerships with other development partners and establishing and maintaining a network of gender staff in partner ministries and organisations. • Horizontal co-ordination of the implementation of the strategy by advocating for strengthened gender machinery within MoARD and its affiliated bodies at national level. • Vertical co-ordination of the implementation of the strategy by strengthening the gender machinery in the regional bureaux of agriculture. • Co-ordination with the gender focal units in other agricultural bodies (directorates, Ethiopian Institute of Agricultural Research, etc.) • Documentation and dissemination of best practice in gender sensitive planning and implementation.
Agricultural Transformation Agency (ATA)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identification and elucidation of gender barriers to agricultural production and productivity. • Building the institutional and organisational capacity of WAD and regional agriculture offices with regard to gender equality strategy implementation and women's empowerment. • Capacity building for partner institutions who have a stake with MoANR

Key stakeholder	Roles and responsibilities
MoANR directorates and case teams & affiliated institutes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Developing gender equality objectives, indicators, targets and milestones and gender equality action plans. • Integration and implementation of gender sensitive interventions in their own programmes, projects, training and extension package/manuals. • Ensuring resource allocation for gender interventions. • Establishing and using gender disaggregated data. • Providing gender-sensitive delivery of extension and advisory services in consideration of the differentiated approach. • Providing measures to increase the knowledge and skills of men and women in different livelihood systems. • Establishing and resourcing gender focal persons. • Ensuring M&E and review of the strategy and documenting learning.
Ministry of Women and Children's Affairs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strengthen a National Policy for Women with increased attention to the situation of women farmers and in line with the gender equality strategy. • Coordination of implementation of the national gender policy and development packages for women, men and youth including pastoral women. • Collaborate with MoANR at all levels to provide training on gender and agriculture.
Ministry of Finance and Economic Cooperation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Institutionalising gender responsive budgeting as a public financial management system. • Providing training on gender responsive budgeting. • Allocation of sufficient resources for gender responsive plans and initiatives.
Central Statistical Agency	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Collection of gender disaggregated agricultural production and productivity data. • Technical support in developing a gender disaggregated data management system.
Gender machineries at MoANR decentralised structures at region, zonal, woreda levels	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Build capacity for gender equality outcomes at region and woreda level. • Reinforce the gender responsive planning, budgeting and monitoring mechanisms. • Produce and use gender statistics and gender disaggregated data. • Build gender competence of local authorities, head of units and staff. • Strengthen the gender focal points with qualified staff and resources.
Development Partners and Donors (such as USAID)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Resource gender focused interventions. • Advocate and network to promote gender equality. • Provide technical assistance and knowledge exchange on gender in agriculture. • Share experiences, best practices and lessons from other countries.
NGOs (local and international)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Incorporate and implement the gender equality strategy in their programmes. • Share experiences, best practices and lessons from gender focused initiatives.
Women and men farmers,	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Active participation in agriculture programmes (trainings, cooperatives, etc.)

Key stakeholder	Roles and responsibilities
<p>pastoralists and agro-pastoralists and their organisations</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Participate in awareness raising events and training. • Make full use of extension and advisory services. • Participate in consultations and activities to promote gender equality in agriculture, particularly to further equal access to resources and shared decision-making. • Share information and feedback on the implementation of gender focused initiatives. • Participate in the planning of programmes and projects.

7 Monitoring, evaluation and learning

7.1 The monitoring and evaluation framework for the gender strategy

Monitoring, evaluation and learning (MEL) are essential to measure progress, inform review and amendment of the strategy during its lifetime and to assess the impact mid-term and at its conclusion. The M&E system for the strategy will be aligned with the M&E plan set out for the Growth and Transformation Plan of the Agriculture Sector. Information for indicators that are not routinely collected as part of the monitoring system, will be gathered for the mid-term and end of term evaluations. The MoANR will institutionalise a gender sensitive, results-based M&E system and the key elements of this are presented in Annex 2.

The collection of gender-disaggregated indicators will include not only female heads of households but also married women in polygamous and monogamous marriages and young women. The WAD at federal level and the gender equality units at regional level will be the central points for the collection of gender disaggregated data from the lower levels. It is expected that monitoring will be carried out on a quarterly basis, once the mechanisms for gathering the relevant data are in place.

Two evaluations for the gender strategy are planned at mid-term and the end of the strategy period. The mid-term review will provide an opportunity for the MoANR leadership and senior management teams of the implementing bodies to assess progress in addressing gender gaps and decide whether the strategy needs to refocus. A provisional date for the mid-term review is set at the end of 2018 and it will be co-ordinated by the WAD. The final evaluation of the strategy will be undertaken towards the end of 2020 and it will assess and rate the performance of the implementing bodies in closing the targeted gender gaps.

7.2 Review, reflection and learning

Annual review and learning forums will be organised by WAD to reflect and learn from the strategy interventions. The review and learning forums will be used to suggest ways of improving implementation and facilitate exchange of best practices among the implementing bodies. These fora will be coordinated by WAD at the national level and by the gender focal units at the regional level.

8 Funding modalities

Gender budgeting is the responsibility of MoFEC. There are two opportunities for ministries to submit their budget: the official 'budget call' in June and in a mid-term budget framework (MTEF). As a result, each ministry prepares its own estimates for expenditures and revenues and submits these to MoFEC who prepares a forecast for expenditures and total Government revenues for the MTEF. The 'Guidelines for Mainstreaming Gender in the Budget Process' provides a sample of a 'gender aware budget statement' and information on how to develop indicators for gender sensitive budgets. The gender equality strategy will be used to guide the Ministry's gender budgeting exercise to ensure that resources are devoted to the implementation of the strategy.

The strategy also suggests some gender specific activities and a comprehensive capacity building approach for the MoANR to be rolled out within rural communities which will require specific budget allocations. WAD will also require additional human and financial resources to strengthen its capacity to lead the process and drive the strategy forward.

The UN has developed the Gender Equality Matrix (GEM) a financial tracking system for resource allocation and expenditures for gender equality results. The GEM measures the extent to which results contribute to the promotion of gender equality and/or the empowerment of girls and women. This involves rating every intermediate result against a four-category scale that ranges from 0 (not expected to contribute to gender equality in any noticeable way) to 3 (advancing gender equality as a principal objective of the result). It is recommended that, like the Ministry of Health, the MoANR should consider adapting the MoFEC gender mainstreaming guideline to develop a GEM for the agricultural sector.

Possible avenues for gaining additional financial and human resources may be identified by sharing the strategy and its action plan with national and international development partners working in the agricultural sector. Some of these development partners are already members of the Gender Task Force. Common ground and shared activities could include conducting gender assessments, trainings and other interventions. The recent adoption of the Sustainable Development Goals is also an opportunity to develop an action plan that can be implemented in partnership with various stakeholders. The Green Climate Fund is the main fund for international climate change finance which seeks to achieve a paradigm shift towards low-carbon and climate resilient development pathways. This may provide financial opportunities for the MoANR as well as the possibility of mainstreaming gender in technologies and interventions that will benefit the environment, reduce women's work burden, promote sustainable income generating activities and build on the resilient capacities of women and men.

Considerable resources (technical and financial) may be mobilised by MoANR by entering memorandum of understating or agreements with its partners; development partners, NGOs and UN agencies on implementing interventions within common areas of interest. The possibilities range from financing a one-time training event or other stakeholder engagement event to a nationwide study on gender issues.

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