



Food and Agriculture  
Organization of the  
United Nations



# STRENGTHENING SECTOR POLICIES FOR BETTER FOOD SECURITY AND NUTRITION RESULTS

## Gender equality



These policy guidance notes have been produced in the frame of the strategic partnership between the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) and the Directorate for International Cooperation and Development of the European Commission to boost food and nutrition security, sustainable agriculture and resilience.

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This policy guidance note is part of a series that the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO), the Directorate for International Cooperation and Development (DEVCO) of the European Commission and partners are producing to support policy makers address the food security and nutrition situation in their country. Each note provides guidance on how to sharpen the focus of sector policies in order to achieve sustainable food security and nutrition outcomes.

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# Introduction

The purpose of this guidance note is to support policy officers and other stakeholders in facilitating dialogue to sharpen the focus of gender equality policies for food security and nutrition. It does this by exploring the interrelationships between gender equality, food security and nutrition; interrogating how policies around gender equality and women's empowerment (GEWE) influence food security and nutrition outcomes; and identifying the policy changes that are needed to ensure greater synergy between the GEWE, and food security and nutrition policy agendas so as to accelerate progress on both fronts.

## Linkages between gender equality, food security and nutrition

Rural women are resourceful economic agents who contribute to the wellbeing of their families and the growth of communities in many ways. They work as entrepreneurs, farm and non-farm labourers, in family businesses, for others and as self-employed. They make up the majority of food producers in the world, and play a major role in household food security and nutrition. They also support their households and communities by providing basic resources such as water, fuel, and care.

Yet in many parts of the world, rural women face multiple forms of discrimination that affect their capacities and potential as farmers, businesswomen and guardians of household food security. They often have less access to and control over productive resources and assets, and fewer opportunities than men to participate in decision-making processes.



## Key messages

- There is compelling evidence that eliminating gender-based inequalities significantly contributes to achieving food security and nutrition. From a policy perspective, it is therefore essential that women's contribution to food security and nutrition is acknowledged, and barriers to gender equality are tackled through an enabling policy and legal environment.
- At country level, the two policy domains tend to remain disconnected: food security and nutrition objectives are rarely reflected in gender-related policies, and gender equality concerns are often missing in food security and nutrition policies. To overcome this disconnect, cross-sectoral collaboration is needed so that institutions and stakeholders working on GEWE become more systematically engaged in the food security and nutrition policy debate. This will foster greater policy coherence and ensure mutually reinforcing measures which can advance both the gender equality and the food security and nutrition agendas.
- Generating and disseminating evidence on gender-based opportunities and constraints is key to raising awareness and supporting the development of policies and programmes that coherently integrate gender equality with food security and nutrition objectives.

## Box 1

**Understanding gender concepts****Gender**

Gender refers to the roles, behaviours, activities and attributes that a given society at a given time considers appropriate for men and women. In addition to the social attributes and opportunities associated with being male and female and the relationships between women and men and girls and boys, gender also refers to the relations between women, and those between men. These attributes, opportunities and relationships are socially constructed and are learned through socialization processes. They are context- and time-specific and changeable. In most societies, there are differences and inequalities between women and men in responsibilities assigned, activities undertaken, access to and control over resources, as well as in decision-making opportunities.

**Intersectionality**

Women and men are not homogeneous groups. In addition to gender, they can be subject to other forms of social discrimination, for example on the basis of race/ethnicity, religion, sexual orientation, socio-economic status, age and disability. Policies and programmes should take these “intersectional” forms of discrimination into account and take special measures to address them effectively.

**Gender equality**

Gender equality refers to the equal rights, responsibilities and opportunities of women and men and girls and boys, independently from whether they

are born male or female. Equality between women and men is seen both as a human rights issue and as a precondition for, and indicator of, sustainable people-centred development. Gender equality implies that the interests, needs and priorities of both women and men are taken into consideration, recognizing the diversity of different groups of women and men. Gender equality should concern and fully engage men as well as women. Gender equality is itself a human right, enshrined in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, as well as in the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) and other international human rights instruments.

**Gender analysis**

Gender analysis is a critical examination of how differences in gender roles, needs, opportunities and rights/entitlements affect men, women, girls and boys in certain situations or contexts. Gender analysis examines the relationships between females and males and their access to and control over resources and the constraints they face relative to each other. A gender analysis should be integrated into all sector assessments or situational analyses to ensure that gender-based injustices and inequalities are not exacerbated by interventions, and that, where possible, greater equality and justice in gender relations are promoted.

**Gender transformative approach**

Approaches that seek to challenge and transform rigid gender roles and relations, norms and behavior, going beyond the individual level to focus on the interpersonal, social and institutional levels, in order to address the causes of gender-based inequalities. A gender-transformative approach

(cont.)

## Box 1 (cont.)

entails not only improving women's access to key services and resources, but also helping communities challenge the social norms that perpetuate inequalities, engaging with men and boys as partners and agents of change.

### Women's empowerment

Women's empowerment is the process by which women gain power and control over their own lives and acquire the ability to make strategic choices. It refers to women's capacity to participate in, contribute to and benefit from growth processes in ways that recognize the value of their contributions, respect their dignity and make it possible to negotiate a fairer distribution of the benefits of growth. According to the United Nations, it has five components: 1) women's sense of self-worth; 2) their right to have and to determine choices; 3) their right to have access to opportunities and resources; 4) their right to have the power to control their own lives, both within and outside the home; and 5) their ability to influence the direction of social change to create a more just social and economic order, nationally and internationally.

#### Sources:

FAO Gender Glossary, available in FAO Terminology Portal: <http://www.fao.org/faoterm/en/>  
 UN Women online glossary: <https://trainingcentre.unwomen.org/mod/glossary/view.php?id=36>  
 European Institute for Gender Equality, Concepts and Definitions: <http://eige.europa.eu/gender-mainstreaming/concepts-and-definitions>  
 UNSTATs: Glossary of terms. Gender statistics manual: <http://unstats.un.org/unsd/genderstatmanual/Glossary.ashx>

Rural women's contribution to food security often remains invisible and is therefore not reflected adequately in policy, legal and institutional frameworks. As a consequence, they may not be targeted with adequate services, information or training, which increases the likelihood that their productivity will be lower than that of male farmers. These trends of discrimination and non-recognition restrict women's economic opportunities and their agricultural productivity, and affect overall economic growth, food security and nutrition. There is plenty of evidence to suggest that levels of hunger are higher in countries with a lower degree of gender equality.<sup>1</sup>

Food-insecure households are at risk of undernutrition, with adolescent girls, women of reproductive age and young children being most at risk. Lack of access to resources, limited decision-making power, lower educational status and restricted mobility of many rural women and girls make it difficult for them to meet their nutritional needs, receive adequate nutrition education or access health services. In addition, in many instances when women lack time for childcare and breastfeeding it can be a key cause of child undernutrition.

The causes of these gender inequalities lie in deep-rooted social and cultural biases, which need to be understood through a historical perspective. Together they deny women and girls an equal social, economic and political status to that of men and explain why women and girls are

<sup>1</sup> See Klaus von Grebmer, Bella Nestorova, Agnes Quisumbing, Rebecca Fertziger, Heidi Fritschel, Rajul Pandya-Lorch, Yiseac Yohannes, "Global Hunger Index: The Challenge of Hunger: Focus on Financial Crisis and Gender Inequality," Bonn, Germany/Washington, DC/Dublin, UK: Deutsche Welthungerhilfe/IFPRI/Concern Worldwide, IFPRI Issue Brief 6, 2009; Bread for the World Institute, "2015 Hunger Report: When Women Flourish... We Can End Hunger," 2015, pp. 39, 205; Global Nutrition Report, "Op-Ed: The Right Diet for Gender Equality," 9 June 2016; FAO, "Gender and Nutrition Issue Paper," Draft, 2012; Institute of Development Studies (BRIDGE Cutting Edge Programmes), "Gender and Food Security: Towards Gender-Just Food Security and Nutrition, Overview Report," 2014; and Asian Development Bank, "Gender Equality and Food Security - Women's Empowerment as a Tool against Hunger," 2013.



disproportionately affected by food and nutrition insecurity (SIDA, 2015; WFP, 2009). Step 1 below lays out in more detail the causes and effects of these gender inequalities.

At the international level, it has been widely recognized that eliminating gender inequalities and ensuring equitable opportunities for women and men is a precondition to achieving food security and nutrition, and to realizing other human rights. Increasing women's ownership over resources and their participation in society and the economy is not only a matter of social justice, but *"can also contribute to stronger and more inclusive economic growth that can benefit society as a whole"* (EU, 2016). The World Bank, FAO and the International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) have also recognized that *"[g]ender inequalities limit agricultural productivity and efficiency and, in so doing, undermine development agendas"* (World Bank, FAO and IFAD, 2014).

From a policy perspective, it is therefore important that the root causes of gender inequality are addressed through transformative approaches so that structural barriers faced by rural women and girls are overcome. Policy-makers can play an important role in ensuring that gender equality is prioritized throughout those sectors that impact on food security and nutrition outcomes (such as for example agriculture, health, education and social protection). Unfortunately, food security and nutrition considerations are often missing from GEWE policies, while at the same time GEWE considerations are also missing from food security and nutrition policies. This mismatch results in missed opportunities to promote both policy agendas in a synergistic way.

The disconnect between GEWE policies on the one hand and food security and nutrition policies on the other hand is the result of multiple factors, including:

- the often invisible and undervalued contribution of rural women to food security and nutrition at household, community and national levels;
- limited understanding among sectoral experts of how gender inequality affects food security and nutrition outcomes within their sectors (such as agriculture, livestock, fisheries and forestry);
- the limited engagement of ministries, institutions and stakeholders working on GEWE issues in relevant food security and nutrition policy processes;
- the oversimplification and minimization of gender equality issues, which subsequently appear as irrelevant in food security and nutrition policy debates and governance mechanisms.

In order to address this disconnect, new avenues of communication are required between policy-makers in both areas, together with raising awareness among sectoral and gender experts on the need to address both gender equality and food security and nutrition through a more coherent policy framework.

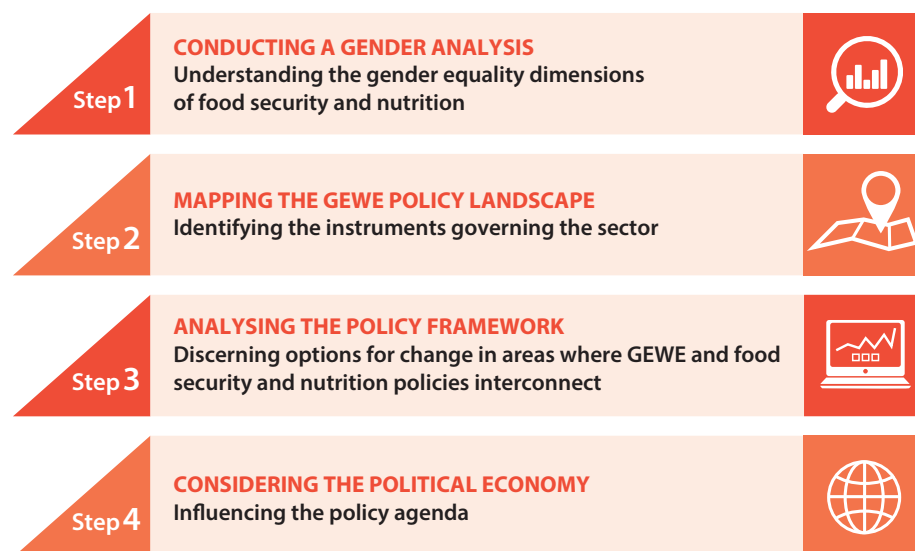




## Stepwise approach Greater coherence between food security and nutrition and gender policies

This note offers a stepwise approach to narrowing the disconnect described above. Step 1 provides an overview of the linkages between gender equality and food security and nutrition. Steps 2 and 3 examine how the GEWE policy landscape connects with the food security and nutrition policy landscape, identifying the barriers that need to be overcome for greater harmonization. Step 4 identifies ways in which policy reform might be brought about to create a more gender-responsive policy environment.

**FIGURE 1. Four steps for addressing food security and nutrition outcomes in GEWE policies**



### Step 1 **CONDUCTING A GENDER ANALYSIS**

A gender analysis helps to understand the gender equality dimensions of food security and nutrition at the national level. This section describes the types of information that would be sought in a gender analysis, based on the four dimensions of food security: availability; access; utilization; and stability.<sup>2</sup> It ends with some reflections on implications for policy. Information and guidance on data collection for a gender analysis are included in Box 2.

Key questions to be addressed in a gender analysis include:

- What are the major areas of gender inequality along the four dimensions of food security? What are their implications on the achievement of sustainable food security and nutrition outcomes?
- Is there any group of women particularly disadvantaged due to specific socio-economic characteristics?
- What are the major trends that have an impact on gender equality and consequently on food security and nutrition outcomes?
- What are the key implications of gender inequality for policy?

<sup>2</sup> Several other frameworks, tools and guides exist for carrying out a gender analysis that can be applied to the food security and nutrition sector. For example, see: CARE International: Good Practices Framework, Gender Analyses, <http://pqdl.care.org/gendertoolkit/Resources/Good%20Practices%20Brief.pdf>; FAO, Gender in Food and KIT & SNV: Nutrition Security, <http://www.fao.org/elearning/#/elc/en/course/FG>; and Nutrition and Gender Sensitive Agriculture Toolkit, [www.NGSAtoolkit.org](http://www.NGSAtoolkit.org).

## i) Major areas of gender inequality and implications for food security and nutrition outcomes

### Gender dimensions of food availability

This note focuses on the agricultural production aspect of food availability, which rests on the capacity of farmers to produce high-quality, nutritious food.

In developing countries, women comprise around 43 percent of the agricultural labour force, ranging from 20 percent in Latin America to 50 percent or more in parts of Africa and Asia (FAO, 2011b). Across all regions, however, women face constraints that limit their productive potential and capacity. They often have limited access to natural and productive resources, such as land, water, livestock, agricultural inputs, rural advisory or extension and financial services, information and technologies.

These gender inequalities in accessing and controlling productive assets not only undermine women's economic potential, but also impose high costs on the agriculture sector and the broader economy. FAO estimates that, if women had the same access to productive resources as men, they could increase yields on their farms by 20 to 30 percent. These gains in agricultural production alone could lift some 100–150 million people out of hunger (FAO, 2011b).

The following paragraphs provide a brief overview of the areas in which the “gender gap” in agriculture is more common and persistent affecting food security and nutrition outcomes:

#### ■ Access to land

Many countries still have discriminatory inheritance laws or practices that prevent women from inheriting land and family farms (OECD, 2012),<sup>3</sup> resulting in the overall global share of female agricultural landholders being 12.8 percent (FAO Gender and Land Rights Database). Women's limited control over such a fundamental asset constrains their

empowerment, and contributes to food insecurity and higher levels of malnutrition. Research carried out in 2012 found that countries where women lack any right to own land have on average 60 percent more malnourished children (Landesa, 2012).

#### ■ Access to extension and advisory services

Evidence shows that despite women's important role in agricultural production, they enjoy less access to agricultural extension and rural advisory services than male farmers, with little improvement in recent years (Petrics *et al.*, 2015). Gaining new skills and accessing improved practices and technologies is not only key to improving women's productivity and income opportunities, but also to increasing their self-confidence and decision-making power within the household and the community.

#### ■ Access to financial services

Access to financial services, such as credit and insurance, opens up opportunities to boost agricultural productivity and enhance income, and is therefore key to food security and nutrition. Rural women face multiple barriers to accessing financial services – the number of female smallholders who can access credit is up to 10 percent lower than male smallholders (IDS, 2014). Rural finance programmes tend to target the male household head as the intended client while failing to recognize women as productive economic agents with their own financial needs and constraints (Fletschner and Kenney, 2011). This gender discrimination in accessing financial services reduces women's ability to invest in seeds, fertilizers and technology, in particular labour-saving and productivity-enhancing technology, or adopt new agricultural techniques needed to produce more, or more nutritious, food.

<sup>3</sup> For more information on gender discriminatory laws, see: OHCHR (2008) “Project on a mechanism to address laws that discriminate against women”, [http://www.ohchr.org/Documents/Publications/laws\\_that\\_discriminate\\_against\\_women.pdf](http://www.ohchr.org/Documents/Publications/laws_that_discriminate_against_women.pdf)

**Box 2****Data collection and sources for sex-disaggregated and gender-sensitive data**

In order to carry out a gender analysis, policy-makers need access to gender-related statistics and sex-disaggregated data, possible sources for which can be found below. At present, however, there is a limited amount of reliable gender-sensitive statistical data available at national level that relates to food production and rural livelihood strategies (such as access to agricultural extension services, technology, inputs, and credit, or participation in food value chains, or farmers' organizations). This means that surveys may need to be commissioned to enhance the evidence base

and ensure informed policy making. These could be: household surveys, questionnaires, attitude studies, seasonal labour profiles or time-use studies.

Quantitative data also need to be complemented by qualitative information – at 'case study' level – to assess the historical and societal trends that lie at the root of gender inequality. Qualitative methodologies are those that capture such intangible notions as gendered power dynamics, human behaviour, decision-making patterns, self-esteem, attitudinal shifts, social and cultural norms, or traditions. These methodologies may include: community consultations; participatory rural appraisals; ethnographic studies; vulnerability assessments; participant observations; focus group discussions; and key-informant and semi-structured group interviews.

*Data sources:***Demographic and Health Surveys**

<http://dhsprogram.com/What-We-Do/Survey-Types/DHS.cfm>

**European Institute for Gender Equality, Gender Statistics**

<http://eige.europa.eu/gender-statistics>

**EUROSTAT, Gender Statistics**

[http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/Gender\\_statistics](http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/Gender_statistics)

**FAO Gender and Land Rights Database**

<http://www.fao.org/gender-landrights-database/en>

**FAO Gender Country Assessments**

(33 prepared to date), requested through FAO regional gender officers

**FAOSTAT:** <http://www.fao.org/faostat/en/#data>

**Global Health Observatory Data**

<http://www.who.int/gho/en/>

**Inter-Agency Expert Group on SDG Indicators (IAEG-SDG):**

<https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/meetings/iaeg-sdgs-meeting-05/> (under construction)

**International Labour Organization, Gender Statistics:**

<http://www.ilo.org/global/statistics-and-databases/statistics-overview-and-topics/gender/lang-en/index.htm>

**OECD Development Centre, Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI)**

<http://www.genderindex.org>

**UNICEF Data**

<https://data.unicef.org>

**UNECE**

<http://www.unece.org/statistics/areas-of-work/statssoc/gender-statistics.html>

**UNSTATS, Gender Statistics**

<https://genderstats.un.org/#/indicators>

**United Nations Development Programme, Gender Inequality Index**

<http://hdr.undp.org/en/content/gender-inequality-index-gii>

**United Nations Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights**

[http://tbinternet.ohchr.org/\\_layouts/treatybodyexternal/TBSearch.aspx?Lang=en&TreatyID=3&DocTypeID=29](http://tbinternet.ohchr.org/_layouts/treatybodyexternal/TBSearch.aspx?Lang=en&TreatyID=3&DocTypeID=29) (for periodic CEDAW reports prepared by member countries)

**World Bank, Gender Statistics**

<http://data.worldbank.org/data-catalog/gender-statistics> and <http://datatopics.worldbank.org/gender>

**Womanstats Database**

<http://www.womanstats.org>

## Gender dimensions of food access

### ■ Access to employment

Due to the persisting gender discrimination in education and in the labour market, women face specific constraints in accessing decent on-farm and off-farm employment and income-generating opportunities. As a result, they are often poorer than men and thus have less capacity to buy food or the inputs needed to grow food.

Rural women are less likely than men to be engaged in wage employment, and often work without remuneration on family farms. They are commonly concentrated in low-skilled segments of agricultural value chains and are more likely to hold part-time, seasonal or low-paying jobs (FAO, 2012).<sup>4</sup> Also, women have generally been more affected by the rise in informal employment resulting from economic liberalization. In South Asia, sub-Saharan Africa, and Southeast and East Asia (excluding China), more than 75 percent of all jobs are informal (ILO, 2013).

The key causes of these gender inequalities in rural labour markets are rooted in historical and prevailing social norms that value male over female labour. According to “The World’s Women 2015” publication, women earn less than men across all sectors and occupations, with women who work full-time earning between 70 and 90 percent of what men earn in most countries (UNDESA, 2015). The persisting gender gap in secondary and tertiary education in many countries is certainly responsible for preventing women from accessing equal employment opportunities compared to men. In addition, women tend to shoulder a disproportionate burden of unpaid care work<sup>5</sup> within their households. In developing countries, women spend on average three hours more per day than men on unpaid work compared to two hours more than men in developed countries (UNDESA, 2015). It has been estimated that if unpaid care work were assigned a monetary value, it would constitute between 10 and 39 percent of a country’s gross domestic product (Budlender, 2008).

These competing demands on women’s work and time limit their opportunities to earn an income. The provision of quality and accessible care services as well as time- and energy-saving infrastructure and technologies can play a pivotal role in alleviating women’s work burden and facilitating their participation in the labour force. The UN Special Rapporteur on Extreme Poverty and Human Rights has emphasized that State policies should position care as a social and collective responsibility, in particular by improving women’s access to public care services and infrastructure, and that care responsibilities should be more equally shared between women and men (Sepulveda Carmona, 2013).

### ■ Access to social protection

Social protection interventions, such as cash transfers and public works schemes, can increase food security and nutrition by providing recipients with money for food, including for a more nutritious and varied diet.<sup>6</sup> In many countries, the majority of cash transfer beneficiaries are poor and vulnerable women (FAO, 2015). Cash transfers can also enable women to start small businesses, thus generating income for food. However, social protection interventions alone will not advance women’s economic opportunities. They need to be integrated with other services, such as educational, financial, extension and advisory, health, care and legal services.

<sup>4</sup> For more information on rural women and decent work, visit: <http://www.fao.org/docrep/013/i1638e/i1638e.pdf>.

<sup>5</sup> The term unpaid care work includes the production of goods or services in a household or community that are not sold on a market. It encompasses all the daily activities that sustain our lives and health, such as housework (food preparation, cleaning, washing, and water and fuel collection) and personal care (taking care of children, and tending to the elderly, people who are sick or have a disability). Products of unpaid care work may also benefit those in the community, such as cooking a meal for a neighbour or volunteering in a homeless shelter. These activities are most commonly performed by women in the household for free. Sources: <http://www.wikigender.org/wiki/unpaid-care-work/> and UN Women Gender Equality Glossary.

<sup>6</sup> For more information on how to alter the design of social protection programmes for greater impact on food security and nutrition, see Guidance note 4: Social Protection.

### ■ Household decision-making

Even when women earn their own income, they may not have the power within the household to decide how it is spent or invested. On average, one in three married women in developing countries have no say about major household purchases, and one in ten are not consulted on how their own cash earnings are spent (UNDESA, 2015). This has implications for food security and nutrition. There is plenty of evidence to suggest that when women have control over household income, they are more likely to invest in improving their family's living conditions, investing in child health, nutrition and education (Smith&Haddad/IFPRI, 2000; World Bank, 2012).

### ■ Impact of cultural norms on intra-household food allocation

Gender-discriminatory practices in intra-household food allocation represent another obstacle to women's and girls' access to food. Cultural assumptions that place a lower value on women and girls than on men and boys determine that in some contexts women and girls eat less nutritious food or eat last when very little food is left (see Box 3) (IDS, 2014). This is particularly problematic, as biologically women and girls are at risk of specific forms of nutrient deficiencies due to their unique reproductive capacities. For example, pregnant and lactating mothers need increased intakes of macro- and micronutrients, including protein, vitamins and various minerals. Women of childbearing age are at higher risk of anaemia because of blood loss from menstruation. The nutritional status of newborns and infants is strongly linked with the nutritional status of the mother before, during and after pregnancy. Research has linked maternal malnutrition to low birth weight, which in turn results in high infant morbidity and mortality rates. Poor female nutrition in infancy reduces a girl's learning potential, increases her reproductive and maternal health risks, and lowers her productivity (WFP, unspecified).

### ■ Gender inequality and obesity

Research shows that excess in female obesity is strongly correlated with gender inequality and that improving women's status may be a key area

#### Box 3

#### Examples of food taboos affecting women and girls

- For the Orang Asli people of Western Malaysia, pregnant women have strict food taboos to observe and must restrict themselves to eating only certain small animals thought to possess "weak" spirits.
- In Papua New Guinea, some tribes forbid menstruating women to eat fresh meat, bananas and all red-coloured forest fruits.
- In the south-western and central part of Ethiopia, pregnant women are forbidden to eat foods which are white in colour, such as milk, fatty meat, porridge and potatoes.
- In some parts of the Nusa Tenggara Timur of Indonesia, pregnant and lactating women are forbidden to eat certain nutritious foods, such as fish to avoid baby's bad smell, chili to avoid baby's conjunctivitis, and pineapple to prevent miscarriage.

Sources: Meyer-Rochow and Victor Benno (2009), Nejimu Biza Zepro (2012).

for addressing the global obesity epidemic over the long term (Wells *et al.*, 2012). There are numerous socio-cultural dynamics that contribute to disparities in obesity, which should be taken into account by food security and nutrition policies and action plans. A study from Mexico, for example, found indigenous women to be more overweight and obese than their male counterparts because exercise is forbidden for them and public spaces for sports are used exclusively by men.

Women also assumed that it is "normal" to be overweight after giving birth, or consider obesity as an inevitable inheritance from parents, and that weight loss is not desirable at any stage of life.

## Gender dimensions of food utilization

### ■ Food preparation

Women around the developing world tend to be principally in charge of food processing, preparation and storage, all of which are critical for the safety of food and dietary diversity of the household. Research across a wide range of countries shows that 85-90 percent of time spent on household food preparation is carried out by women (WFP, unspecified). Women also tend to hold valuable knowledge relating to local food varieties and traditional processing and preserving techniques. It is therefore important that women's role in food production and preparation is recognized and that women are targeted with nutrition education, so that they can make informed decisions about the food that is bought and prepared for their households. At the same time, to avoid reinforcing gender imbalances, men should also be targeted with nutrition education programmes in order to promote a more equal distribution of domestic tasks, alleviate women's work burden and contribute to household food security and nutrition.

### ■ Risks of solid fuel use

Women often cook over open fires or traditional stoves using solid fuels such as wood and coal. In rural areas, fuel for cooking and heating may be wood, agricultural crop residues, animal dung or charcoal. All of these fuels exude pollutants that cause diseases such as Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease, and it is women who tend to spend more time than men inside the home taking care of cooking and other domestic tasks, and who are therefore most at risk. Strategies that improve home stoves and ventilation, or provide cleaner burning-fuel sources, will ease women's work burden and health risks as well as ensure a healthier household environment.

## Gender dimensions of food stability

### ■ Volatility of food prices

The global food crisis of 2007/08, triggered by shrinking economies, rising oil prices and climate change, led to an escalation of food prices in many parts of the world. Although international food prices have since fallen, local food prices in many countries have not. High food prices affect poor families, who have to reduce their food intake.

At such times, discriminatory cultural norms may dictate that men and boys eat first, leaving women and girls most at risk of food and nutrition insecurity. Research has shown that in some countries even the nutritional needs of pregnant women are not prioritized during times of food crisis (UNAIDS, 2012).

Globally, female-headed households, which tend to be poorer than male-headed households, are most at risk of food price volatility. In South Africa, for example, female-headed households living in the predominantly rural provinces of Eastern Cape and KwaZulu-Natal experienced the sharpest rise in hunger when food prices escalated (Jacobs and Motala, 2012).

### ■ Conflict

The World Food Programme (WFP) has highlighted that *"protracted crises undermine food security and nutrition. Women are more likely than men to be affected, and their access to aid can be undermined by gender-based discrimination"* (WFP, Date unspecified). Natural and man-made hazards restrict access to economic opportunities and cause the destruction of household assets, impacting the roles of men and women in the family and as economic actors. Displaced war widows may return home to find their land has been appropriated by others. With no legal rights to reclaim their land, they may have no other assets with which to feed their families.



Evidence also suggests that women and girls are more likely to be victims of sexual violence in conflict, while boys may be used as child soldiers or forced into joining violent gangs (EU, 2015). The threat of violence limits the mobility of women and girl to access productive resources or – when conflicts are prolonged – to gain the knowledge and skills required for employment or food production.

### ■ **Climate change**

The effects of climate change can exacerbate the constraints that women face in achieving food security and nutrition. Since rural women are primarily responsible for fetching water and fuel for cooking and heating, they have to walk further away to provide for their households when natural resources dry up or become depleted. The barriers that female farmers face in accessing extension and advisory services, and in some countries, higher education, mean that they have fewer opportunities than men to learn about climate-smart agriculture practices and technologies. However, as stewards of natural and household resources, rural women are versatile in mitigating and adapting to change, holding a large body of traditional knowledge and skills that can be applied to climate-smart agriculture and disaster risk reduction.

### ■ **Coping mechanisms**

Both natural and man-made shocks can deplete the assets of poor households and therefore further restrict their access to economic opportunities. Women are likely to take on additional economic roles within the household and community while still having unequal access to productive assets and resources, receiving lower salaries, and suffering the same or even an increased work burden. In cases of complete asset depletion and extreme food shortage, women and girls are at risk of adopting negative coping mechanisms such as commercial sex, early and forced marriages, or pulling girls out of school.

On the other hand, natural and man-made shocks can also open up opportunities to challenge traditional unequal gender norms as women may find themselves in new occupations and roles. Even in post-conflict situations there can be a window of opportunity to intervene in progressive ways. For example, women can be assisted to claim their land rights by challenging social norms that have eroded during the period of conflict. Transformative policies and approaches are required that address deep-rooted gender power imbalances in order to build up women's resilience (FAO, 2014).

### ii) **Groups of women particularly disadvantaged due to specific socio-economic characteristics**

"Intersectional" discrimination (see Box 4) often leads to higher poverty rates among specific groups of women, making it especially difficult for them to access nutritious food for themselves and their households. In fact, gender inequality often overlaps with other forms of discrimination (based on, for example, age, ethnicity, socio-economic status), causing some groups of women to be particularly vulnerable or marginalized.

In India, for example, hunger is concentrated among women who are from low-caste and scheduled tribes, and among those who live in rural areas (FAO, 2011a). In Bolivia, Brazil, Guatemala and Peru, indigenous or Afro-descendant women consistently earn less than men from their own communities, and considerably less than non-indigenous and non-Afro-descendants workers. In Brazil, 67 percent of Afro-Brazilian women earned less than US \$1 per hour, compared to 43 percent of white women. In Guatemala, the figures were 81 percent versus 59 percent (Lennox, 2011).

In Brazil, the odds of moderate and severe food insecurity are higher among households headed by women compared to households headed by men (Felker-Kantor and Wood, 2012). In Nepal, data show that food security



is significantly worse for households that are female-headed, and that those that do not receive remittances are also more likely to have undernourished children (Nepal National Planning Commission, 2013).

These examples illustrate that some groups of women may face particularly severe discriminations. Policies should therefore address intersectional, or multiple, discrimination and not regard women as a homogenous category.

### iii) Major trends that have an impact on gender equality and consequently on food security and nutrition outcomes

The effects of global trends, such as migration and urbanization, on gender equality patterns are not neutral and have different impacts and implications for women and men.

#### ■ Migration

Gender affects reasons for migrating, who will migrate, the job opportunities people have access to, and whether they leave or stay behind. Migration can lead to a greater degree of economic or social autonomy for women as well as for men, and the opportunity to challenge traditional or restrictive gender roles. Through migration, both men and women may develop skills, access better job opportunities and earn higher wages – which in many settings contribute largely to ensuring the livelihoods and food security of households and communities (FAO, 2016a). Nonetheless, migration can also lead to restrictive gender norms of women's dependency and limited decision-making power, both in areas or countries of destination and origin (Jolly and Reeves, 2005).

Male migration patterns, together with the commercialization of agriculture, have an impact on the division of labour in rural areas and are a key driver of an important trend occurring in many regions:

#### Box 4

### Gender, ethnicity and food security and nutrition in Guatemala

In Guatemala, gender roles and stereotypes remain entrenched; women are expected to carry out nearly all of the domestic chores, and certain legislation restricts married women's rights. Women, particularly indigenous women and girls, face particular challenges in education and employment. Illiteracy is at 31.1 percent among women 15 years of age and older and reaches 59 percent among indigenous women. Women, and in particular indigenous women, also face a disadvantaged situation in the labour market, as evidenced by a significant wage gap, lack of access to social security, long working hours and lack of protection available for women working in the informal and agriculture sectors.

Guatemala has the fourth highest rate of chronic malnutrition in the world and the highest rate in its region; the situation worsens in rural areas, where chronic undernutrition reaches 55 percent, and 69 percent among indigenous populations. Studies illustrate the importance of taking an intersectional approach when it comes to situational analysis. They showed that women from households experiencing food insecurity were more likely to have completed only primary education or less, and to report their ethnicity as indigenous. In addition, women from severely food-insecure households were more likely to have experienced intra-familial violence (physical, sexual, or verbal) in the 12 months prior to the survey.

Sources: CEDAW (2009), Chaparro (2012) and World Food Programme (2016)

the feminization of agriculture. This trend is especially pronounced in North Africa and the Near East. In North Africa as a whole, the share of women in agriculture increased from about 30 percent in 1980 to 43 percent in 2010, and in the Near East the share increased from 35 percent to 48 percent in the same period (FAO, 2011b). Women's employment in agriculture is also on the rise in countries of Central Asia. In Tajikistan, women constitute more than 55 percent of the agricultural employment as men migrate for work to neighbouring Russia (World Bank, 2016b). This trend has significant implications on agricultural and rural development and food security and nutrition. The increasing role of women in agriculture can be empowering only if structural inequalities are addressed and women are provided with equal opportunities to access and control assets, resources and opportunities. Policies and institutions need to be transformative and responsive to women's emerging needs, if agricultural performance and food security and nutrition is to be improved.

#### ■ **Urbanization**

Urbanization also has consequences for both gender equality and food security. The trend towards urbanization is a global one – today for the first time in human history the majority of people (54 percent) live in urban areas. This is expected to increase, reaching 66 percent in 2050. (UNDESA, 2014). Cities often offer higher wages and better employment options, including for women, as well as a greater availability of services, such as health care and education (Matuschke, 2009). However, the United Nations has recognized that *“the ugly face of urbanization is urban poverty, which often has the most severe impact on women and girls”* (UN WomenWatch, 2009). Urban dwellers are net food buyers and spend a large part of their income on food (Matuschke, 2009). When food prices escalate, it is the urban poor

who are hit the hardest, and in particular urban poor women and female-headed households, which often live at the economic margins within cities.

#### **iv) Implications of gender analysis for policy**

The gender inequalities described in this section reflect entrenched social norms – attitudes, behaviours and beliefs – about the way women and men are and should be. These norms often tend to allocate power, privileges and responsibilities with a male bias. To foster change, such discriminatory norms must be exposed and analysed to understand how they create structural barriers to gender equality.

At a systemic level, legal and policy frameworks need to dismantle gender discrimination and promote and protect the equal rights of women and men. Still today, legal gender differences are widespread; out of 173 economies measured, 155 have at least one discriminatory law impeding women's equal economic opportunities (World Bank, 2016a).

Policies and programmes need to be designed so that the multiple opportunities and constraints that women face in relation to food security and nutrition are addressed in a holistic way. Female farmers need to strengthen their technical and business skills, with better access not only to agricultural information and advisory services but also to secondary and tertiary education. Their access to productive assets, such as land, financial services and agricultural inputs, needs to be increased. Women's membership and leadership in collective rural organizations needs to be strengthened in order to give rural women a stronger voice and greater involvement in agricultural decisions. Public and private sector investment in rural non-farm enterprises can generate more decent work for women.

Even when gender-sensitive laws and policies are in place, there is still

a long way to go to ensure that they are implemented effectively, and that gender-discriminatory attitudes are transformed at the community, family and individual levels. Social institutions can perpetuate gender inequalities while at the same time be pivotal to bringing about transformative change. Families, communities, traditional and religious leaders, public officials and the media must be engaged to support transformation towards greater gender equality.

## Step 2 MAPPING THE GEWE POLICY LANDSCAPE

This step analyses key GEWE policies, objectives, target groups, and the main institutions responsible for the design and implementation of these policies. It is important to consider that gender equality is not a sector in itself, but a human right, a development goal and a cross-cutting issue. As a consequence, it is affected by a wide range of policy measures beyond the domain of the line ministry responsible for gender or women's affairs.

### ■ Relevant international policy frameworks

Several international policy frameworks are important for influencing national policy-making in relation to women's rights and gender equality. Most of these are legally binding, meaning that States must remove any reservations, practices and measures that are inconsistent with their objectives and purposes. The most relevant international policy frameworks for GEWE, and food and nutrition security are described in Annex 1. As a human right, gender equality is enshrined in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, in the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) and in other international human rights treaties. CEDAW is of particular importance for food security and nutrition, as it lays out specific legal obligations for State parties in relation to protecting the right of women and girls to adequate food and nutrition as well as to productive resources and opportunities. It is a helpful entry point and offers guidance for policy-makers. The UN Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination

against Women (CEDAW Committee) has also adopted various General Recommendations, including one focusing on the rights of rural women (General Recommendation 34).<sup>7</sup> These can be used as authoritative resources to influence policy-making, implementation and monitoring with regards to gender equality in food security and nutrition.

Reference to gender discrimination in relation to food appears in the preamble of CEDAW,<sup>8</sup> and it makes specific provisions for adequate nutrition during pregnancy and lactation in its Article 12, and for the rights of rural women to a range of agricultural support in its Article 14. The CEDAW Committee has repeatedly emphasized the rights of women and girls when it comes to food security and nutrition. For example, it has urged State parties to ensure women's equal access to resources and nutritious food by eliminating discriminatory practices and guaranteeing land rights, and it has encouraged States parties to provide for the right to adequate food in national legislation, including at the Constitutional level. The CEDAW Committee has also raised concern about food taboos and discriminatory food practices that disadvantage women and girls.

### ■ National policy landscape

The national policy landscape for GEWE includes everything from constitutional provisions and protections to specific laws and policy measures addressing gender inequality in the main domains of society and the economy, such as education, health, work, family and welfare. Ideally, the GEWE policy landscape should be informed by and aligned with the existing international policy frameworks mentioned in the previous section and Annex 1.

<sup>7</sup> To learn more about the Committee, see <http://www.ohchr.org/EN/HRBodies/CEDAW/Pages/CEDAWIndex.aspx>. To read the GR34 on the rights of rural women, visit [http://tbinternet.ohchr.org/Treaties/CEDAW/Shared%20Documents/1\\_Global/INT\\_CEDAW\\_GEC\\_7933\\_E.pdf](http://tbinternet.ohchr.org/Treaties/CEDAW/Shared%20Documents/1_Global/INT_CEDAW_GEC_7933_E.pdf)

<sup>8</sup> To read the Convention, visit: <http://www.ohchr.org/EN/ProfessionalInterest/Pages/CEDAW.aspx>

## Box 5

## The influence of CEDAW in claiming women's rights to land in Kenya and Central Asia

### Kenya

In Kenya, CEDAW has been used in at least three cases challenging discriminatory customary law. In one case, an unmarried woman disputed her brother's claim that he deserved a greater portion of land from their deceased father. The case challenged Kikuyu customary law, which held that an unmarried woman lacked equal inheritance rights. The Chief Magistrate's Court stated that the customary law was in violation of the Kenyan Constitution and Article 15 of CEDAW, which provides for legal equality between women and men. The appellant and her brother received equal portions of their father's property. In another case, the sons of a deceased man argued before Kenya's Court of Appeals that they deserved a greater share of their father's property than his widow or his sisters because *"According to Keiyo traditions, girls have no right to inheritance of their father's estate"*. The court found that the non-discrimination standard of Kenya's Constitution and human rights agreements, including CEDAW, must prevail.

### Kyrgyzstan and Tajikistan

Drawing on Article 16 of the Convention, both countries undertook comprehensive changes to ensure gender equality in land reforms. With support from FAO (in Tajikistan) and the United Nations Development Fund for Women – now the United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women (UN Women) – the government institutions responsible for land reform began to integrate women's needs into planning and budgeting. Local officials' awareness was raised regarding the link between protecting women's rights and improving the effectiveness of services, and rural women and local governments partnered to support women's cooperatives and village-level projects. Individual women were provided with legal advice and practical support in their land claims. The media also became involved, widely broadcasting the message "Land in the Right Hands!" to support women's equal rights. Improvements are continuing, and there is strong evidence that the process is working: between 2002 and 2008, the proportion of women owning family farms in Tajikistan rose from 2 to 14 percent.

Source: FAO (2013).

### ■ Constitution and laws

National constitutions contain the most important rules of a political system, and the principle of equality is commonly found within them.<sup>9</sup> Laws are a precondition for the promotion of equal rights. People must also be made aware of how their equal rights are protected under

national law. For example, in Rwanda, the Matrimonial Regimes, Liberties and Succession Law (2000) for the first time recognized the rights of women and girls to inherit and own land (UN Women/OCHCR, 2013). Following its adoption, the Government allocated 5 million Rwanda Francs to create awareness among women about this new law. However, although formal laws that determine equality are important, alone they will not guarantee change without real and grounded implementation of their measures. This means that the reality of gender inequality must

<sup>9</sup> For gender equality provisions of national constitutions from 195 countries, see the UN Women database at <http://constitutions.unwomen.org/en>

be acknowledged, so that laws address specific gender-related barriers to equal rights rather than reinforcing gender-stereotypical norms. This might also include the implementation of temporary special measures, when necessary, to promote women's empowerment.

## ■ Policies

Most countries have a national gender policy.<sup>10</sup> In different countries, these can be referred to as national strategies or action plans (for example the National Action Plan on Gender Equality of the Kyrgyz Republic<sup>11</sup> or the Five Year Strategic Action Plan for Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment of Cambodia<sup>12</sup>). For the sake of this guidance note, all of these are referred to as gender policy.

Gender policies are based on the premise that historically women have been enjoying fewer rights than men and that the implementation of specific measures is needed to "level the playing field". They highlight the domains in which women face discrimination, providing country-specific information on women's socio-economic status and concrete recommendations on how inequalities can be overcome. Gender policies also outline priorities and mechanisms to integrate gender equality concerns in various policy domains as guidance for the national gender machinery<sup>13</sup> and other relevant institutions.

They generally include measures related to education, employment, citizenship and nationality, marriage and family life, participation in public life and institutions, political participation, health and sexual and reproductive rights, and violence against women. Food security and nutrition or agriculture-related priorities are less often explicitly addressed. In general, these policies focus on women as a homogeneous group. In some cases, reference is made to specific groups of women, highlighting the intersectional discrimination they face – in relation to age, race, or ethnicity, for example. Recently, many more policies include measures that aim to engage with men as partners, in order to raise their awareness about gender inequalities and the cost of these inequalities to society. Very often, however, gender policies do not explicitly differentiate between rural and urban women, and do not address the specific challenges rural women might face or identify specific policy measures to redress them. In addition to specific gender policies, a wide range of policies and policy measures across sectors can affect – positively or negatively – the achievement of gender equality and women's empowerment. Directly or indirectly, all of these measures have an impact on food security and nutrition, as it will be discussed more in detail in Step 3.

In the employment sector, for example, policies that ensure the provision of paid parental leave, flexible work arrangements or public care services are critical for promoting women's equal access to paid work and enabling them to reconcile it with family life. Policy-makers, however, should be aware that career breaks due to maternity leave have unintended consequences on women's opportunities for paid work and on their economic situation at an older age, as their pensions will be lower due to the years they spent out of work. Since women are more likely than men to benefit from long parental leave, employers have a strong incentive to hire men. Policies promoting parental leave to be split between mothers and fathers can help overcome this

<sup>10</sup> Besides the national gender policies, many countries develop a national action plan for the implementation of the CEDAW Committee's recommendation – a comprehensive national plan of action to promote gender equality in the context of the Convention.

<sup>11</sup> To read the Action Plan, visit [http://www.kg.undp.org/content/kyrgyzstan/en/home/library/womens\\_empowerment/follow-your-voice1.html](http://www.kg.undp.org/content/kyrgyzstan/en/home/library/womens_empowerment/follow-your-voice1.html)

<sup>12</sup> To read the policy, visit [http://www.kh.undp.org/content/dam/cambodia/docs/DemoGov/NearyRattanak4/Cambodian%20Gender%20Strategic%20Plan%20-%20Neary%20Rattanak%204\\_Eng.pdf](http://www.kh.undp.org/content/dam/cambodia/docs/DemoGov/NearyRattanak4/Cambodian%20Gender%20Strategic%20Plan%20-%20Neary%20Rattanak%204_Eng.pdf)

<sup>13</sup> Bodies mandated to promote gender equality and support mainstreaming of gender equality into general policies in all areas. They usually consist of the central government body complemented with an inter-ministerial coordinating gender mainstreaming structure and contact persons or focal points responsible for gender mainstreaming in ministries (Source: EIGE Gender Equality Glossary and Thesaurus).

discrimination, thus addressing a major cause of gender inequality in the labour market (Saraceno, 2011).

### ■ Institutions responsible for implementing and monitoring gender policies

The design and implementation of a national gender policy is generally coordinated by the line ministry responsible for gender equality. There are very few countries in the world where a single dedicated ministry for gender equality exists. Examples are Cambodia and Zambia, which have a Ministry of Women's Affairs, and Burkina Faso, which has a Ministry for the Advancement of Women (McBride and Mazur, 2011).

Most of the time, ministries responsible for women's and gender issues manage combined portfolios, including social and family welfare, child development and labour. In these cases, a dedicated unit or department is responsible for gender affairs. For example, Mauritius has a Ministry of Gender Equality, Child Development and Family Welfare. In Kyrgyzstan, a gender unit, which is the main national gender machinery, operates under the Ministry of Labour and Social Development. In Botswana, the Department of Gender Affairs is housed in the Ministry of Labour and Home Affairs. In other cases, as in Guatemala, the women's secretariat (*La Secretaría Presidencial de la Mujer* - Women's Presidential Secretariat) is attached to the presidency (see Box 6). For the sake of this note and ease of reference, we refer to the ministry dealing with gender and women's issues as gender ministry.

In some other countries, there is not even a ministry with a combined portfolio, but only institutions promoting gender issues linked to the centre of government. These are quasi- or semi-governmental advisory institutions often located outside the executive branch of government. In the absence of a ministry of gender issues, it becomes even more challenging to mainstream gender issues into policy and decision-making processes across line ministries (OECD, 2014). For example, the

### Box 6

## Examples of national machinery for the advancement of women's rights and gender equality

In **Guatemala**, there is no Gender Ministry, but a high-level Women's Secretariat attached to the Presidency (*La Secretaría Presidencial de la Mujer*). This is a government entity with ministerial rank that advises and coordinates public policy and promotes the full participation of women in the country's development and equality between women and men, with the overall aim of developing and strengthening democracy. The Secretariat coordinates the implementation of the National Policy for the Promotion and Integral Development of Women 2008-2023, which guarantees women's access to property and tenure, and the use of natural resources.

In **Kyrgyzstan**, the Law on State Guarantees of Equal Rights and Opportunities for Men and Women (2008) established the National Council on Women, Family and Gender Development as the institution responsible for overseeing the implementation of the Law. The Law also mandates that the National Statistical Committee of the Kyrgyz Republic supervises the collection of gender-sensitive statistics in relation to the implementation of the Law. In 2011 responsibility for gender policy was transferred to the then Ministry of Youth, Labour and Employment (now Ministry of Labour and Social Development), the central executive authority entrusted with implementing a unified gender policy pursuant to Government Decision No. 122 of 20 February 2012. According to Government reports, the Ministry has established a gender policy department, the primary tasks of which are to make proposals defining priorities and formulating national gender policy, to conduct analysis of gender issues and to monitor policy implementation.

Sources: World Bank (2013). CEDAW Committee (2013b). SEPREM (Date unspecified).



CEDAW Committee expressed its concern about the fact that the Federation of Cuban Women, designated as the national machinery for the advancement of women, *“has the status of a non-governmental organization and does not receive funding from the State party, which limits its effective functioning in promoting women’s enjoyment of their rights as well as gender equality”* (CEDAW Committee, 2013a).

Similarly, in Uzbekistan, the CEDAW Committee highlighted some limitations of the Women’s Committee as the national mechanism for women’s advancement, including the lack of independent and sufficient budget, lack of institutional status to influence government policy-making, and lack of authority over government bodies (ADB, 2014). Besides the gender ministry or the gender department in the ministry responsible for social affairs, there are other institutions (e.g. human rights commissions, parliamentary committees) that can play a role in protecting women’s rights or in monitoring the implementation of commitments under CEDAW. In Uzbekistan, it is the Authorized Person of the Oliy Majlis of the Republic of Uzbekistan on Human Rights – together with parliamentary committees on labour and social protection and on democratic institutions and civil society – that monitor implementation of CEDAW commitments (ADB, 2014).

As pointed out in the previous section, policies that affect women’s empowerment and gender equality pertain to a wide range of sectors and institutions. However, while gender ministries often establish collaboration with ministries dealing with social issues (such as education or health), it is much less common that such collaboration is in place with ministries responsible for agriculture, rural development or management of natural resources. This is generally due to limited awareness or understanding – both in gender and agriculture-related ministries – about how gender inequalities influence agricultural development and food security and nutrition outcomes.

### Step 3 ANALYSING THE POLICY FRAMEWORK

This step aims to uncover some of the ways in which GEWE and food security and nutrition policies interconnect, and how strengthening the integration of food security and nutrition objectives in the GEWE policies can facilitate policy coherence and cross-sectoral coordination.

Key guiding questions to address at this step include:

- i) What are the intended results of GEWE policies and who is targeted? Do they incorporate food security and nutrition considerations?
- ii) How can GEWE policy measures better contribute to food security and nutrition?

#### i) Analysis of GEWE policies for food security and nutrition considerations

An FAO review of gender policies (FAO, unpublished) shows that, out of the 50 countries assessed, only in seven cases does the national gender policy explicitly recognize rural women’s contribution to agriculture and include *concrete* policy measures to support women’s improved access to productive resources.

Most of the times, in fact, the policies do not reference each other, and objectives and actions are not harmonized. Even when the gender policy makes reference to food security and nutrition, no concrete action is foreseen in the implementation plan. This contributes to the disconnect between the two policy domains, preventing gender equality dimensions (and related institutions) to be meaningfully considered when it comes to set out the food security and nutrition policy agenda.

In those cases where GEWE and food and nutrition security links are made, the focus is often limited to the specific requirements of pregnant or lactating women, or mothers with children under five years old. These types of policy measures, which limit their focus to women’s reproductive role, fail to fully address unequal gender power relationships or to integrate opportunities for women’s economic empowerment, both of which can have a long-term impact on food and nutrition security.



There are cases where synergy exists between national gender policies and food and nutrition security policies, such as in Cambodia and Rwanda (see Box 7).

## ii) Options for enhancing policy coherence between GEWE and food security and nutrition policies

There are several ways to build upon the existing GEWE policy framework and design interventions that can improve gender equality for food security and nutrition. These include making sure that awareness is raised about how gender equality measures affect food security and nutrition outcomes among all institutions involved, including gender and other line ministries. Some specific ways to ensure that GEWE measures better contribute to food security and nutrition are described in Table 1.

Most of the policy measures outlined in Table 1 do not fall under the exclusive responsibility of the ministry of gender or of any other single ministry. This disconnect between the gender ministry (or equivalent) and the ministries whose mandate is more directly related to food and nutrition must be improved. Achieving gender equality for food security and nutrition will require collaboration and coordination between multiple institutions and stakeholders in, for example, education, employment, agriculture and social affairs. This type of collaboration will raise awareness among non-gender experts about the role of gender inequalities in perpetuating food and nutrition insecurity. Policy measures in different sectors must be combined and complement each other, based on common objectives. Policy officers must make special efforts to establish an effective working relationship with the gender unit of the ministry of agriculture and other relevant ministries.

Promising practices exist in this regard. For example, there are some school feeding programmes that source local raw materials that are cooked

### Box 7

## Food security and nutrition considerations in the gender policies of Cambodia and Rwanda

**Cambodia's** *National Strategic Plan for Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment, Neary Rattanak IV*, recognizes women's role in agriculture and aims to support women's access to agricultural resources and services. It specifically promotes women's access to and control over land rights through gender mainstreaming in the land reform programmes. The plan also aims to strengthen the capacities, resources and commitment of sector ministries for gender mainstreaming in the agricultural sector.

In **Rwanda**, the *National Gender Policy* prioritizes a goal to increase women's as well as men's productivity in order to improve national food security. The policy recognizes the specific needs of rural women and the constraints they face, and foresees specific measures within its strategic approach to address them. It also includes a set of priorities for the economic empowerment of rural women and the care economy, including enhancing access to safe and clean water, information and technology as well as appropriate rural infrastructure and transportation.

#### Sources:

Cambodia's *National Strategic Plan for Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment*. Available at: [http://www.kh.undp.org/content/dam/cambodia/docs/DemoGov/NearyRattanak4/Cambodian%20Gender%20Strategic%20Plan%20-%20Neary%20Rattanak%204\\_Eng.pdf](http://www.kh.undp.org/content/dam/cambodia/docs/DemoGov/NearyRattanak4/Cambodian%20Gender%20Strategic%20Plan%20-%20Neary%20Rattanak%204_Eng.pdf)  
Rwanda's *National Gender Policy*. Available at: <https://www.ilo.org/dyn/natlex/docs/ELECTRONIC/94009/110188/F-1576743982/RWA-94009.pdf>

by poor local women in school mid-day meal schemes. These programmes improve girls' school enrolment, support access to markets by small-scale farmers, and employ local women with few other sources of income. Such programmes benefit from coordination between sectors.

TABLE 1. Gender dimensions of selected policy measures and their impact on food security and nutrition

Gender equality-focused policy or law	Gender dimension in relation to food security and nutrition	Desired policy change for food security and nutrition	Responsible institutions
Family law that provides equal rights in <b>marriage and family relations</b> , including equal rights to marital property upon divorce or death of the spouse	The livelihoods of poor rural women and men are based on secure and equitable access to and control over land. However, women landholders are significantly fewer than male landholders, and they generally have smaller and lower-quality plots and less secure rights. Women suffer discrimination in access to and ownership of land where customary marriage and inheritance rules perpetuate gender inequalities in land relations, or where land reforms do not take into account family laws. Marriage law regulates ownership of property, including land, acquired and owned by the wife and the husband through the duration of marriage.	Land tenure reforms to follow rules on inheritance and matrimonial property to ensure, for example, joint titling, requiring the wife's consent for the sale or mortgage of jointly owned land or for engaging in financial deals linked to the land. Formal recognition and revision of indigenous laws, traditions, and customary laws and land tenure systems with the aim of eliminating provisions that discriminate against women.	Ministry of Justice Ministry of Agriculture/Land Ministry of Gender
<b>Social protection</b> measures (cash transfers, social pension, public works programmes) that take into account women's specific employment situation	Social protection can provide alternative sources of income and ensure economic access to food. The majority of rural women tend to work part-time, seasonal, low-paid or unpaid jobs and perform subsistence farming. They are also disproportionately represented in the informal sector and thus uncovered by social protection.	Policies that ensure that rural women engaged in unpaid and/or informal sector work have access to non-contributory social protection. Gender-responsive social protection floors that ensure that all rural women have access to income security. Appropriately designed cash transfers to help women farmers acquire productive assets, thus improving their productive capacities, or to help women gain better access to credit, thus increasing their financial inclusion.	Ministry of Social Development Ministry of Gender Ministry of Agriculture

(cont.)

Table 1 (cont.)

Gender equality-focused policy or law	Gender dimension in relation to food security and nutrition	Desired policy change for food security and nutrition	Responsible institutions
Policies that ensure that quality <b>education and training</b> are accessible and affordable to all girls and women	Closing the gender gap in education has a strong impact on women's socio-economic status, by improving their access to employment and earning opportunities (which in turn will improve their capacities to access food). Women's education level has a positive correlation with children's improved health and nutrition. However, worldwide, rural women and girls have lower levels of literacy and are disadvantaged when it comes to accessing education and training.	Policies that ensure that on-the-job training is tailored and targeted to rural women's needs, and that women have equal access to technical and vocational education, including on sustainable farming practices. Policies that ensure that agricultural extension and rural advisory services become accessible and relevant to rural women, addressing their key needs and concerns, and make a special effort to reach out to them, particularly as they may have time and mobility constraints.	Ministry of Education Ministry of Agriculture (Department of agricultural extension and rural advisory services) Ministry of Gender
Policies that promote access to <b>care services</b>	Across all regions, due to prevailing socio-cultural norms, women are overwhelmingly responsible for care work in the home. This adds to their work burden and limits their opportunities to engage in paid work.	Policies to ensure that quality child and other care services are available in rural areas, including through solidarity and community-based care services, in order to alleviate women's burden of unpaid care work, thus facilitating their engagement in paid work.	Ministry of Social Development Ministry of the Economy Ministry of Gender Ministry of Agriculture
Policies that promote women's <b>participation in public life</b>	Women's participation in public life on an equal basis with men, including in rural development planning, is important to ensure that the specific concerns and priorities of women are taken into account. However, women are most often inadequately represented in public life, including as elected officials and civil servants, and in rural extension services, cooperatives and other rural organizations.	Policies that establish quotas and targets for women's representation in decision-making positions in governance bodies, including in land, forestry, fisheries and water governance bodies, producer organizations and cooperatives. Policies that ensure women's participation in the elaboration, budgeting, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of agricultural and rural development and food security and nutrition programmes.	Ministry of Gender Ministry of Agriculture/ Land/ Livestock/Fisheries/ Forestry Ministry of Local/Regional Development

## Step 4 UNDERSTANDING THE POLITICAL ECONOMY

The political economy refers to the ways in which politics, laws and economics are connected. It requires taking a “big picture” view of the political and economic environment in which the policy framework exists, looking for the best ways to influence the GEWE and food security and nutrition policy agendas. While policy analysis can yield various options for policy adjustments that are technically viable, these may be politically unfeasible. Therefore, it is important to understand the political economy behind public policy-making and implementation that affects decision-making related to gender equality, women’s empowerment and food security and nutrition.

The following guiding questions can be helpful to assess the political economy in relation to gender equality:

- i) Who are the key stakeholders who can influence the debate and the agenda on gender equality and women’s empowerment in relation to food security and nutrition?
- ii) What are the main obstacles to policy change when it comes to gender equality and food security and nutrition? How can they be addressed?

### i) Key stakeholders

#### ■ Gender ministries

The gender ministry (or equivalent) is a key stakeholder in setting and influencing the gender policy agenda at country level. Gender units or gender focal points in ministries with mandates that relate to food security and nutrition (e.g. in the ministry of agriculture) can help reinforce the national gender machinery and support the mainstreaming of gender equality dimensions in sectoral policies that have an impact on food security and nutrition. However, while

the existence of these gender units or focal points is a necessary first step towards ensuring that gender issues receive attention, it might not be sufficient if these are not powerful actors. Many times gender focal points are young and low-grade female officials who may have a solid background but limited decision-making power and influence. To be able to influence policy-making processes, it is important that the gender unit has a clearly defined mandate and mission that are unambiguous. It should be adequately resourced, placed at a sufficiently high level in the hierarchy of a given ministry and thus appear in the organigramme.

The gender unit of the Ministry of Agriculture, Livestock and Food in Guatemala consists of highly specialized technical staff. As a demonstration of its commitment to promote gender equality and women’s empowerment, the Ministry issued a ministerial decree in June 2016 whereby it secured the gender unit’s existence for the forthcoming ten years. It also instructed that the gender unit must be attached to Minister’s office and report directly to the Vice-Minister.

#### ■ Presidential or constitutional commissions and legislators

Other governmental bodies with a gender equality mandate can also play a role in pushing the agenda forward. These may be presidential or constitutional commissions, which seek to advance gender equality goals and also have an oversight and monitoring function. For example, in Kenya the National Gender Equality Commission is a constitutional commission that was established by an Act of Parliament in August 2011. Its mandate is to contribute to the reduction of gender inequalities and discrimination on the basis of sex, age, ability and ethnicity. The Commission is responsible for monitoring, facilitating and advising on the integration of the principles of equality and freedom from discrimination in national and county policies, laws

and administrative regulations for all institutions. It also acts as the principal organ of the State in ensuring compliance with all treaties and conventions ratified by Kenya relating to issues of equality and freedom from discrimination. Legislators also play a critical role in advancing gender equality by developing the legal and institutional framework in which GEWE policies are set.

#### ■ **Ministries dealing with agriculture and natural resources management**

Agricultural advisory and extension offices that support local farmers may have special knowledge of the specific challenges faced by women farmers, which can help to inform policy-making. In most cases, however, gender equality does not represent a top priority for agricultural policies: it is often a politically and culturally sensitive issue or it is dismissed as “women’s affairs”. Key stakeholders with a real interest in promoting women’s rights and advancing gender equality are often not the most powerful players in the policy arena. Gender also competes with other cross-cutting issues, such as climate change, which divert attention and public resources from gender-equality-specific actions. Women’s limited participation and leadership in agricultural institutions, organizations and decision-making processes reduces their opportunities to discuss gender-related issues in relevant fora and bring them forward with policy- and decision-makers. For example, in Uzbekistan, policy-making bodies concerning agriculture and natural resources are male-dominated. Women are underrepresented in government bodies concerned with agriculture reform, and there are no women among the leadership of the Ministry of Agriculture and Water Resources, even though they make up almost half (48.3 percent) of those formally employed in agriculture and forestry. Also, in local government, where decisions about water

management are made, few women occupy leadership roles. As a consequence, the priorities and interests of women may not be given adequate consideration in formal decision-making about agriculture and natural resources (ADB, 2014).

#### ■ **International organizations**

The gender policy agenda is informed by international policy frameworks and processes, such as CEDAW, the Beijing Platform of Action, the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) (in particular Goal 5) and other development agendas. In this respect, through facilitating the implementation of these frameworks, the European Union and

#### Box 8

### **Partnerships between civil society and the government in Guatemala**

In order to ensure coordination and participation of all relevant stakeholders in implementing CEDAW Article 14 on rural women’s rights, in 2014 FAO promoted partnerships between the Government and civil society organizations. This included the establishment of a multi-stakeholder working group on rural development with a special focus on rural women and indigenous people. The working group comprises the gender units of the various line ministries, representatives of the Presidential Women’s Secretariat, academia and civil society organizations working on women’s rights issues. Since its formation, the working group has been supporting policy-making and facilitating the coordination and participation of the various institutions at central and decentralized levels.

*Source: FAO (2016b).*

international agencies, including FAO, WFP, IFAD and UN Women, can play a major role in generating evidence on the gender gap in agriculture and food security, thus raising awareness on the relevance of gender in agriculture and food security and nutrition. They usually advocate for and assist in formulating and implementing gender-responsive policies and programmes in these domains.

### ■ **Civil society organizations**

Civil society organizations can be instrumental in promoting GEWE, in particular women's rights groups. However, they are often barred from participating in high-level policy-making processes, even though their involvement is an often-cited policy commitment. This may be because they are not sufficiently strong or organized to participate, or they may not represent the interests of different groups of women. One good practice example comes from Guatemala (see Box 8).

In the sectors of agriculture and natural resources management, rural organizations, such as producer associations, cooperatives or farmers groups, offer great potential to empower rural women by raising their profile, voice and confidence through collective action, and by increasing their access to productive resources (for example, accessing loans). National, regional and continental farmers' organizations have, to varying degrees, taken steps to empower women through collective organization. For example, the regional African organizations such as the Network of Peasant Organizations and Agricultural Producers in West Africa (ROPPA) and the Subregional Platform of Farmers' Organizations of Central Africa (PROPAC) have set up a women's college with the objective of providing a platform for voicing women's concerns and promoting women's decision-making status in regional and national farmers' organizations.

However, there are few women in leadership positions because rural

women face multiple barriers such as socio-cultural norms and gender perceptions; women's double burden and triple roles; women's status, age and previous membership in an organization; access to assets and resources; organizations' rules of entry; legal and policy environment; and women's education, training and access to information (Kaaria et al. 2016). Adequate spaces and mechanisms need to be established for women and women's rights advocates to participate meaningfully.

### ii) **Key obstacles to policy change related to gender equality and food security and nutrition**

Challenging gender-based discrimination can be difficult, as it is fundamentally about re-negotiating gender roles and relations, which, as discussed throughout the note, are deep-rooted in social and cultural norms and engrained in people's mind-set. Eliminating gender inequality is about redistributing resources and decision-making power between women and men. Transformative approaches can therefore be politically and culturally sensitive, as they may sound threatening to the power and privileges of policy-makers themselves. Even in cases where policy-makers are supportive, they may lack expertise and knowledge about the implications of gender inequalities and the differentiated impacts that policies – even those which are apparently “neutral” – can have on women and men.

### ■ **Gender blindness and lack of awareness**

Gender neutrality does not necessarily imply gender equality. Many policies risk unintentionally discriminating against women by not taking into account the different impact that the policies may have on women and men (OECD, 2014). It is also important to bear in mind that policies are filtered through social institutions – health and education systems, families and communities, markets – that are entrenched

in prevailing social norms and assumptions about gender, which in turn shape the way women's rights and interests are reflected in and addressed by law and policy-making.

Fostering policy change requires unveiling all these implications, making evident to policy-makers to what extent and how gender equality is crucial to achieving sustainable development outcomes, including on food security and nutrition. As pointed out, an obstacle to policy change is in fact the general and persisting lack of awareness and understanding about these linkages and interrelations. Gender equality tends to be considered as "soft policy" and is rarely perceived as relevant by policy-makers who are dealing with technical issues, such as agriculture, water management, trade and value chain development.

Generating and disseminating knowledge about the gender gap in agriculture can also help raise the profile of gender in food security and nutrition, creating a convincing "business case" for gender equality and a window of opportunity for policy change. To do so, it is important to advocate for and invest in improving the availability of sex-disaggregated data and the establishment of gender-sensitive indicators on food security and nutrition in national censuses, health surveys, and other data collection methods. These data and indicators should specifically reveal the challenges faced by women and men in relation to food security and nutrition, and address issues such as: levels of food insecurity; differentiated impacts of local eating habits and culinary practices; overall access to land, property and other productive resources and rural extension and advisory services; farm productivity; intra-household division of labour; rates of hunger and malnutrition; and prevalence of nutrient deficiencies.

### ■ **Lack of collaboration**

Another crucial obstacle is the disconnect and the lack of collaboration between the gender ministry (or equivalent) and the ministries whose mandate is more directly related to food security and nutrition. One reason can be that the gender ministry staff may not be aware that there are important gender dimensions relevant to agriculture and food security and nutrition; as a consequence these sectors may remain excluded or only marginally addressed in gender policies. If this is the case and the national gender policy does not include provisions to improve the status of rural women and end gender-based discrimination in agriculture and rural development, the role of the ministry of agriculture in implementing the policy objectives can be entirely undermined.

In addition, the gender ministry is usually not considered a typical partner for the ministry of agriculture or other line ministries dealing with food security and nutrition. The ministry of agriculture staff might not be familiar with the national gender policy and how its implementation can contribute to achieving the ministry's mandate. Line ministries dealing with technical issues (such as agriculture, land, water, energy, forestry, fisheries and trade) may also not be sufficiently knowledgeable about the gender dimensions relevant to their sectors in their policy- or strategy-making. They are often focused on technical programmes and solutions, and sometimes struggle to recognize the social dimensions in their areas of work. Gender equality dimensions are often completely missing in background studies which aim to assess food security and nutrition-related challenges. Therefore, policies continue to be formulated without the essential evidence and knowledge base about how gender inequalities affect food security



and nutrition, and what measures would be more efficient to achieve both gender equality and food security and nutrition objectives at the same time. In this sense, it is essential that policy officers make special efforts to establish an effective working relationship with the gender unit of the ministry of agriculture, the gender ministry and other relevant ministries. With support of FAO's and the EU's representation, they can also advocate and support the creation of such gender units, if they are not already in place.

#### ■ **Limited resources**

Another obstacle to policy change obviously relates to the limited resources available for gender-related work at country level and for implementing measures targeting women's – particularly rural women's – needs and constraints. At national as well as global levels, most gender machinery was created with limited budget and power, so it has not always been as effective as necessary. Even gender-responsive policies and plans fail to improve gender equality and empower women if insufficient resources are allocated to implement them. While taxes are a key source of financing for such initiatives, tax reforms can increase the tax burden on the poorest women, and at the same time fail to generate enough revenue to fund programmes needed to improve their lives. Gender-responsive planning and budgeting help to ensure that fiscal resources are generated and allocated in a way that affects women and men equitably, and thus should be promoted (see Box 9).

#### Box 9

#### Gender-responsive budgeting

Budgets are the most important policy tools available to a government and reflect its political priorities. Gender-responsive budgeting is an approach that aims to integrate gender perspectives into all stages of the budget cycle. As discussed in this note, policies (and their budgets) are never gender-neutral. On the contrary, policies tend to affect women and men differently, if not unequally.

Developing gender-sensitive budgeting includes proposals to re-prioritize expenditures and revenues, taking into account the different needs and priorities of women and men. Depending on the country-specific context, other factors of inequality may also be focused on, such as age, religious or ethnic affiliation, or the place of residence (urban/rural). Therefore, a gender-responsive budget is not a separate budget for women, but rather a tool that analyses budget allocations, public spending and taxation from a gender perspective and can be subsequently used to advocate for reallocation of budget line items to better respond to women's priorities as well as men's, making budgets, as the name suggests, gender-responsive.

For sources and further information, see:

- GTZ, "Manual for Training on Gender-Responsive Budgeting" (2006).
- Council of Europe, "Gender Budgeting: Practical Implementation. Handbook" (2009).
- International Monetary Fund Working Paper, "Gender Budgeting: Fiscal Context and Current Outcomes" (2016).

## Concluding remarks

This guidance note outlines the steps necessary to understand the gender policy landscape in relation to food security and nutrition. From this, three key policy reform implications have emerged.

(i) GEWE and food and nutrition security policies have an important role to play in advancing food security and nutrition for all. There is a strong need to enhance coordination, collaboration and consistency of objectives and implementation strategies between the GEWE and food security and nutrition policy domains. Policy-makers have a critical role in ensuring that the essential interrelationships between the two policy domains are not overlooked or dismissed, but rather translated into synergies and mutually reinforcing actions.

(ii) To do this, working relations must be established among those institutions and stakeholders – at all levels across government and civil society – identified in this policy note, many of which do not usually engage in dialogue at the policy level.

(iii) Such collaboration can be supported by greater awareness among policy-makers of the strong links between GEWE and food security and nutrition so they can play an important role in promoting change through policy reform. More consistent and better quality data generation, as evidence of gender inequalities in the food and nutrition security sector, will support this awareness raising.

## International policy frameworks that are relevant for GEWE and food security and nutrition

International framework	Relevant content for GEWE and food security and nutrition
Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948)	Enshrines gender equality as a human right.
International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) (1976)	<p><b>General Comment No. 12 on the Right to Food.</b> Protection of women against discrimination in access to food, including full and equal access to economic resources.</p> <p><b>General Comment No. 16 on the Equal Rights of Men and Women to the Enjoyment of All Economic, Social and Cultural Rights.</b> Address the ways in which gender roles affect access to determinants of health, including food security. Women have an equal right to own, use or control housing, land and property. Women have access to, or control over, means of food production. Customary practices under which women are not allowed to eat until the men are fully fed, or are only allowed less nutritious food, must be addressed.</p>
Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) (1981)	<p><b>Article 12.</b> Specific provisions for adequate nutrition during pregnancy and lactation.</p> <p><b>Article 14.</b> Specific provisions for the rights of rural women to a range of agricultural support.</p> <p><b>General Recommendation No. 34 on the Rights of Rural Women.</b> Ensure the right to food and nutrition for rural women, ensure that rural women have the authority to manage and control their natural resources, and put in place effective policies ensuring rural women have access to adequate food and nutrition.</p> <p><b>General Recommendation No. 24 on Women and Health.</b> Facilitate physical and economic access to productive resources especially for rural women, and ensure that the special nutritional needs of all women within their jurisdiction are met.</p>

International framework	Relevant content for GEWE and food security and nutrition
The Rome Declaration on World Food Security (1996)	Recognizes that <i>“the full and equal participation of men and women are essential for achieving sustainable food security for all”</i> and acknowledges <i>“the fundamental contribution to food security by women”</i> .
Voluntary Guidelines to Support the Progressive Realization of the Right to Adequate Food in the Context of National Food Security (2004)	Includes recommendations to promote women’s full and equal participation in the economy and to implement gender-sensitive legislation providing women with the right to inherit and possess land and other property.
Global Strategic Framework on Food Security and Nutrition (2012)	Makes a range of gender-sensitive policy recommendations aimed at improving food security for women and improving women’s roles in agriculture.
Voluntary Guidelines on the Responsible Governance of Tenure of Land, Fisheries and Forests in the Context of National Food Security (2012)	Includes a principle on gender equality aimed at ensuring equal tenure rights and access to land, fisheries and forests, independent of women’s civil and marital status.
Rome Declaration on Nutrition and the Framework for Action (2014)	States that nutrition and other related policies should pay special attention to women (particularly in relation to micronutrient deficiencies and nutritional needs during pregnancy and lactation) and empower women and girls, thereby contributing to women’s full and equal access to social protection and resources.
Voluntary Guidelines for Securing Sustainable Small-Scale Fisheries in the Context of Food Security and Poverty Eradication (2015)	Recommends that States secure women’s equal participation in decision-making processes for policies directed towards small-scale fisheries and adopt specific measures to address discrimination against women, in particular for women fish workers and their organizations.

## International framework

Addis Ababa Action Agenda of the Third International Conference on Financing for Development (2015)

## Relevant content for GEWE and food security and nutrition

Includes a stand-alone and transformative goal on achieving gender equality and women's empowerment and provides a strong foundation to hold all stakeholders accountable. Commits the international community to strengthen efforts to: enhance food security and nutrition and focus efforts on smallholders and women farmers; promote women's and girls' equal rights and opportunities in decision-making and resource allocation; and remove any barriers that prevent women from being full participants in the economy.

Agenda 2030 for Sustainable Development (2015)

### SDG 2

#### **End hunger, achieve food security and improved nutrition and promote sustainable agriculture**

- Address the nutritional needs of adolescent girls and pregnant and lactating women.
- Double the agricultural productivity and incomes of small-scale producers, in particular women, including through secure and equal access to land and other productive resources and inputs, knowledge, financial services, markets and opportunities for value addition and non-farm employment.

### SDG 5

#### **Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls**

- Value unpaid care work through public services, infrastructure and social protection policies.
- Ensure women's participation and equal opportunities for leadership in decision-making.
- Ensure equal rights for women to economic resources, ownership and control of land and other property, financial services, inheritance and natural resources.
- Enhance the use of technology to promote the empowerment of women.

## International framework

Agenda 2030 for Sustainable Development  
(2015)

## Relevant content for GEWE and food security and nutrition

### SDG 6

#### **Ensure availability and sustainable management of water and sanitation for all**

- By 2030, achieve access to adequate and equitable sanitation and hygiene for all and end open defecation, paying special attention to the needs of women and girls and those in vulnerable situations.

### SDG 8

#### **Promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all**

- Ensure full and productive employment and decent work for women and men and equal pay for work of equal value.

### SDG 10

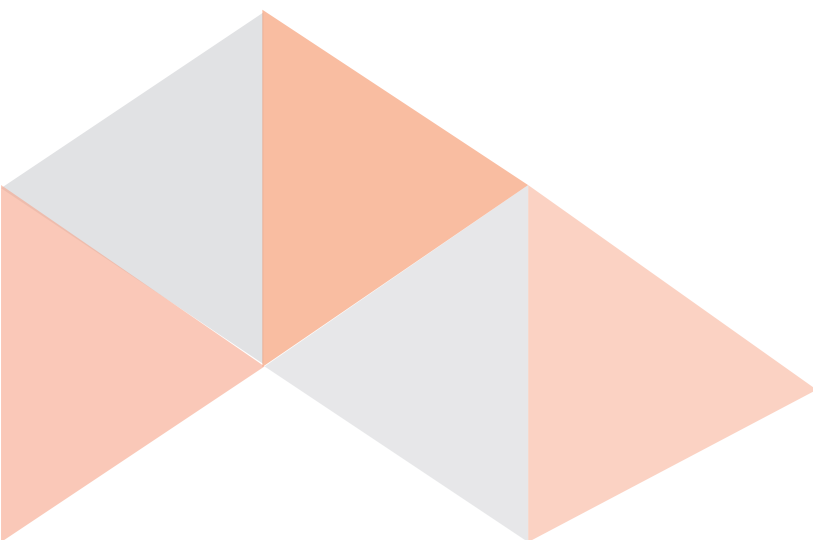
#### **Reduce inequality within and among countries**

- Ensure equal opportunity and reduce inequalities of outcome, including by eliminating discriminatory laws, policies and practices and promoting appropriate legislation, policies and action.

### SDG 16

#### **Promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all and build effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels**

- Promote the rule of law at the national and international levels and ensure equal access to justice for all.
- Ensure responsive, inclusive, participatory and representative decision-making at all levels.
- Promote and enforce non-discriminatory laws and policies for sustainable development.



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