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*This report has been presented by the technical task team assigned by the Committee on World Food Security (CFS), in preparation for the Forum on Women's Empowerment in the context of food security and nutrition. The task team comprised by technical experts from FAO, WFP, IFAD, the CFS Civil Society Mechanisms, the CFS Private Sector Mechanism, UN SCN, UN Wome supported by the CFS Secretariat. The views expressed therein reflect the various perspectives on the issues discussed on the part of the task team, but they do not necessarily express those of their institutions and mechanisms.*

## INTRODUCTION

Gender equality and women's empowerment are central to achieving the CFS vision to achieve food security for all by raising levels of nutrition, improving agricultural productivity and natural resource management and improving the lives of rural people with full and equitable participation in decision-making. Without gender equality and rural women's economic, social and political empowerment, food security will not be achieved.

The focus on gender equality and women's empowerment is explicit across all the SDGs, both as a stand-alone goal, SDG 5, on gender equality, and as a cross-cutting theme with more than 30 related targets.

Gender equality is a necessary foundation for a fair, peaceful, prosperous and sustainable world, but it is also a fundamental human right. Women's empowerment is a powerful multiplier of well-being and a prerequisite for sustainable development.

Women comprise an average of 43 per cent of the agricultural labour force in developing countries, varying considerably across regions from 20 per cent or less in Latin America to 50 per cent or more in parts of Asia and Africa<sup>1</sup>. Despite the regional and sub-regional variation, women make an essential contribution to agriculture across the developing world. However it is estimated that 60 percent of the world's chronically hungry people are women and girls<sup>2</sup>.

Across all regions, rural women face greater constraints than men in access to land, fertilisers, water for irrigation, seeds, technology, tools, credit, extension services, profitable cash crops, output markets and rural institutions. Women often experience discrimination in rural labour markets and tend to be responsible for the bulk of unpaid care work within their households and communities. All this significantly hampers women's capacity to contribute to agricultural production and rural development.

Research shows that when rural women are empowered to have equal access as men to productive and financial resources, income opportunities, education and services, there is an increase in agricultural output and a significant reduction in the number of poor and hungry people.

In addition to the policy recommendations on "Gender, Food Security and Nutrition" endorsed at CFS 37 in 2011<sup>3</sup>, the Committee's work on gender is reflected in various policy convergence products: the Voluntary Guidelines on the Responsible Governance of Tenure of Land, Fisheries and Forests (VGGT)<sup>4</sup>. In the Principles for Responsible Investment in Agriculture and Food Systems (CFS-RAI)<sup>5</sup>, gender equality and empowerment of women is the third principle, and seeks to ensure that investments in agriculture and

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<sup>1</sup> FAO, 2014 State of Food and Agriculture. <http://www.fao.org/3/a-i4040e.pdf> . p. 35.

<sup>2</sup> WFP, 2015 Gender Policy 2015-2020 <https://www.wfp.org/content/2015-wfp-gender-policy-2015-2020-0>

<sup>3</sup> <http://www.fao.org/3/a-av040e.pdf>

<sup>4</sup> <http://www.fao.org/docrep/016/i2801e/i2801e.pdf>. The VGGT are complemented by a technical guide the "Governing Land for Men and Women", developed by FAO, focusing on gender-equitable land governance: <http://www.fao.org/3/a-i3114e.pdf>

<sup>5</sup> <http://www.fao.org/3/a-au866e.pdf>

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food systems foster gender equality and the empowerment of women. Other policy tools that have included a gender lens are the Framework for Action for Food Security and Nutrition in Protracted Crisis (CFS-FFA)<sup>6</sup>, as well as HLPE reports and CFS policy recommendations on Water for Food Security and Nutrition<sup>7</sup>; Food Losses and Waste in the Context of Sustainable Food Systems<sup>8</sup>; and Sustainable Agricultural Development for Food Security and Nutrition: What Roles for Livestock?<sup>9</sup>.

Following the endorsement of the 2016-2017 Multi-Year Programme of Work (MYPoW), CFS was requested to hold a Forum on Women's empowerment in the context of food security and nutrition *"to discuss the challenges that remain in economic empowerment of women and help promote a shared understanding of how those issues are evolving in the agriculture and agri-food sector"*<sup>10</sup>.

In line with the guidance provided by the MYPoW, as well as additional inputs by the CFS Bureau and Advisory Group, the Forum is expected to lead to the identification of:

- Challenges, gaps and barriers that hinder progress in women's economic empowerment and the achievement of gender equality in the context of food security and nutrition;
- Experiences and good practices in the implementation of existing legal and policy frameworks, strategies and approaches, as well as practical initiatives, that address the gender gaps in the agriculture/agri-food sector and thereby contribute to women's economic empowerment;
- Next steps for CFS to advance women's economic empowerment, women's rights and gender equality in the context of food security and nutrition. In particular, how the outcome of the Forum will be incorporated in the development of future CFS policies taking into account that women's empowerment and gender equality are prerequisites for food and nutrition security for all persons.

The structure of this background document mirrors the above expected outcomes and seeks to support the Forum's discussions by providing a context analysis (Chapter 1), a thematic review of the challenges and examples of how they can be addressed (Chapter 2), key learnings and policy considerations (Chapter 3).

<sup>6</sup> <http://www.fao.org/3/a-bc852e.pdf>

<sup>7</sup> <http://www.fao.org/3/a-av046e.pdf>

<sup>8</sup> <http://www.fao.org/3/a-av037e.pdf>

<sup>9</sup> <http://www.fao.org/3/a-bq854e.pdf>

<sup>10</sup> <http://www.fao.org/3/a-mo317e.pdf> (paras 30-31)

## 1. CONTEXT ANALYSIS: WOMEN'S ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT IN THE AGRICULTURE AND AGRI-FOOD SECTOR

### 1.1 Persistent barriers and emerging challenges to women's economic empowerment

Empowerment in its broadest sense, is the expansion of freedom of choice, action and people's ability to make strategic life choices in a context where this ability was previously denied to them. It means increasing one's authority and control over the resources and decisions that affect one's life. As people exercise real choices, they gain increased control over their lives.

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. The concept is closely related to the one of autonomy, referring to the power and ability of each woman to make her own decisions over her life and the conditions to put this decision into practice.

According to the UN, women's empowerment has five components: women's sense of self-worth; their right to have and to determine choices; their right to have access to opportunities and resources; their right to have the power to control their own lives, both within and outside the home; and their ability to influence the direction of social change to create a more just social and economic order, nationally and internationally. This implies that to be empowered they must not only have equal capabilities (such as education and health) and equal access to resources and opportunities (such as land and employment), but they must also have the agency to use these rights, capabilities, resources and opportunities to make strategic choices and decisions.

Empowerment therefore involves awareness-raising, building self-confidence, expansion of choices, increased access to and control over resources and actions to transform the structures and institutions which reinforce and perpetuate gender discrimination and inequality. Indeed, empowerment is also about changing gender relations in order to enhance women's ability to shape their lives. Furthermore, empowerment of women cannot be achieved in a vacuum; men must be brought along in the process of change. Empowerment should not be seen as a zero-sum game where gains for women automatically imply losses for men.

No one can empower another: only the individual can empower herself or himself to make choices or to speak out. However, institutions can support processes that can nurture self-empowerment of individuals or groups. Measures to promote the empowerment of women should facilitate women's articulation of their needs and priorities and a more active role in promoting these interests and needs.<sup>11</sup>

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<sup>11</sup> Sources consulted:

FAO. Forthcoming. Developing capacities in gender-sensitive rural advisory services. Training of trainers manual.

FAO. 2017. Strengthening Sector Policies for Better Food Security and Nutrition Results. Gender Equality. <http://www.fao.org/3/a-i7218e.pdf>

FAO. 2017. Developing Gender-Sensitive Value Chains. A guiding framework

Kabeer, Naila. 2001. "Reflections on the measurement of women's empowerment." In *Discussing Women's Empowerment-Theory and Practice*. Sida Studies No. 3. Novum Grafiska AB: Stockholm.

Written submission of the CFS Civil Society Mechanism

<http://www.un.org/popin/unfpa/taskforce/guide/iatfwemp.gdl.html>

## Persistent barriers

Across the world, gender inequality persists – including in so-called "developed" countries – undermining progress across the Sustainable Development Goals. Most pertinently, progress in the eradication of hunger and poverty, which lies at the centre of Agenda 2030, is intimately linked to the achievement of gender equality and the empowerment of women.<sup>12</sup> In this context, barriers that women face working in the agri-food and agriculture sectors undermine significantly their human rights, and agricultural productivity globally by an estimated 20 to 30 per cent<sup>13</sup> and adversely impact on the food security and human rights of women. The same barriers contribute to adverse effects at household level as economic disempowerment of women impacts negatively on their health and nutrition and that of their children's<sup>14</sup> and contributes to keeping households trapped in situations of food insecurity and malnourishment.

Gender discriminatory social norms, practices and roles lie at the heart of gender inequality.<sup>15</sup> These norms – often particularly entrenched in rural contexts - shape the gendered distribution of paid and unpaid work (with women often spending a disproportionate amount of their time on unpaid care activities), limit women's access to assets, productive resources and markets, and undermine the self-confidence and leadership potential of women.

Women working in agri-food and agriculture sectors are further disadvantaged by gendered patterns in access to markets, services such as finance (see Box 1), training and maternity protection.<sup>16</sup> Furthermore, opportunities to advocate for their rights are limited by unequal representation in farmers' organizations and in decision-making processes at all levels. Progress has been limited by lack of political commitment to advance the rights of women and all-too-often, limited resource allocations for women groups, organization and movements dedicated to advancing women's rights. This has also contributed to failure to protect women against all forms of violence. Alarming, there is an increase in the criminalization of women leaders working to promote gender equality.<sup>17</sup>

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UN Women online glossary

<https://trainingcentre.unwomen.org/mod/glossary/view.php?id=36&mode=letter&hook=E&sortkey=&sortorder>

<sup>12</sup> World Bank, FAO & IFAD. 2009. Gender and food security. In: Gender in agriculture sourcebook. Washington, D.C., and World Bank. Asian Development Bank. 2013. Gender equality and food security—women's empowerment as a tool against hunger. Mandaluyong City, Philippines: Asian Development Bank.

<sup>13</sup> FAO. 2011. The state of food and agriculture 2010-2011. Rome, FAO.

<sup>14</sup> Van den Bold, M., A.R. Quisumbing & S. Gillespie. 2013. Women's empowerment and nutrition: an evidence review. IFPRI Discussion Paper 01294. Washington D.C., IFPRI.

<sup>15</sup> FAO, IFAD & ILO. 2010. Gender dimensions of agricultural and rural employment: differentiated pathways out of poverty. Rome, FAO.

<sup>16</sup> World Bank. 2007. World Development Report 2008: Agriculture for Development. Washington D.C., World Bank.

<sup>17</sup> The number of killings reported to Front Line Defenders in 2016 represented an increase to the number reported in the previous year. 281 were murdered in 25 countries, four of whom were working to defend land, indigenous and environmental rights.

### **Global trends and emerging challenges for women's empowerment in the agri-food and agriculture sectors**

Urbanization, higher incomes, growing demand for food and expanding private investment in agriculture is creating new economic opportunities for some actors working across agri-food systems. Greater connectivity and dynamism – especially through the growth of intermediate towns as centres for access markets and service provision – is offering new and wider market opportunities for smallholders in local, national and international markets. This might offer new opportunities although in a context of widespread and persisting gender inequalities and discrimination, and in the absence of measures to address these, it is far from clear that women will benefit. At the same time, it is important to recognize that local and largely informal markets continue to be key role in the food security and livelihoods of the majority of women and men small-scale actors in food systems. Given this, it is an unfortunate reality that policies and regulations often discriminate against small-scale actors, many of whom are women.

Women are more likely to carry unpaid work, given gender disparities in the access to formal labour markets and household workload. Likewise, due to gendered patterns at the workplace, they are often subjects of discrimination and exploitation.<sup>18</sup> Notably, there are concerns that some large scale agricultural investments - often resulting in transfer of tenure rights to private actors - have been shown to adversely affect women's livelihoods, their employment opportunities, their access and control over natural resources and food systems, often resulting in forced migration and worsening of their living conditions. Thus, women worldwide have very often lost out in the face of land tenure changes, large-scale rural development schemes, and through classic land titling programmes (see box 1).

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<sup>18</sup> FAO, IFAD & ILO. 2010. Gender dimensions of agricultural and rural employment: differentiated pathways out of poverty. Rome, FAO.

**Box 1: Women's access to and control over natural resources. The case of the Community Council of Palenque Monte Oscuro (Colombia)**

The Community Council of Palenque Monte Oscuro (CCCPMO) located in the town of Puerto Tejada Cauca, Colombia, consists of 50 families of African descent (around 340 persons), who face violations of the right to food due to restrictions of their access to land by big development projects, mainly the expansion of the agro-industrial sugarcane sector. These communities are of a rural tradition with strong roots in the territory – exercised through the collective ownership of land – and productive activity aimed at food self-sustainability, which has become difficult to exercise. In particular the communities' women's right to adequate food and nutrition has been impaired because the women of the CCCPMO do not have safeguards for agricultural production and to grow adequate food with their own seeds, and do not have individual or collective titles for lands. The State does not provide protection to the transfer of traditional knowledge, of which women are the primary holders, and thus, the survival of their culture. Furthermore, women do not have sufficient financial capacity to purchase culturally and nutritionally adequate food and do not enjoy adequate access to drinking water since water sources are heavily polluted by industrial wastes and by-products of spraying.

The CCCPMO has been demanding secure access to their lands since 2004 and has since been attributed small plots of land by state authorities. However, implementation of the decisions has been slow and the families have been repeatedly displaced from some of the lands that were attributed to them. The CCCPMO has used the Voluntary Guidelines on the Responsible Governance of Tenure of Land, Fisheries and Forests in their advocacy and the women of the CCCPMO have presented their case to the UN Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), which has issued recommendations regarding the elimination of barriers for women's access to land and natural resources.

For more information see: <http://www.csm4cfs.org/wp-content/uploads/2017/01/Palenque.pdf>

Greater commercialization, value chain integration and connectivity of smallholders to markets can lead to economic empowerment of women where policies and projects systematically integrate and address gender consideration. However, as has proved to be the case too often, when these conditions are not met, women are frequently excluded from commercial activities, tending to focus their times on traditional roles in own-consumption crops and household activities. Further, where commercial agriculture is focused around larger-scale, industrial models based on extractive and unsustainable models of production, concerns related to employment conditions, health effects and the vulnerability of women to violence can undermine any benefits in terms of potential empowerment of women.

Greater rural-urban connectivity and more dynamic interactions between settlements across the rural-urban continuum is increasing the incidence of various typologies of seasonal, circular, temporary and long-term migration.<sup>19</sup> In the case of male migration, greater autonomy of women left behind, access to productive resources and remittances emerges as potential benefits, though these benefits are balanced against the likelihood of increased workloads and family disunity. The migration of women – who already account for 48 per cent of international migrants<sup>20</sup> – is increasing in many contexts due to availability of jobs in sectors such as domestic care and tourism potentially leads to economic empowerment opportunities through access to generally higher paying urban employment, though the extent to which women migrants are able to benefit from these is constrained by gender biases in labour markets, lower wages, lower levels of literacy, education as well as access to services and earnings in the context of informal enterprises.<sup>21</sup> Vulnerability of women migrants to trafficking, and to violence – in particular in the context of migration and displacement driven by conflicts – continue to be particular concerns. In some countries and regions of the world, persisting challenges are further exacerbated by the impact of protracted crises and climate change on the livelihood strategies of rural populations. As a consequence, rural women might find themselves increasingly vulnerable to conflicts, violence and rapid depletion of natural resources, and thus unable to exercise their rights.

**Box 2 Women's struggle against indebtedness and microfinance companies in Karnataka, India** - This case study documents the experiences of rural women (farmers and farm workers) in the district of Haveri in Karnataka, India as they fight indebtedness exacerbated by drought and harassment from microfinance companies. This experience is not specific to Haveri but is spread out through the State of Karnataka with women from different parts reporting similar experiences. Haveri is taken as one specific case.

For more information, see: <http://www.csm4cfs.org/wp-content/uploads/2017/01/Proposal-for-Case-study-KRRS-LVC.pdf>

## 1.2 Global policy framework for women's empowerment and gender equality

A number of normative policy frameworks at the international level promote gender equality and the empowerment of women. These include legally binding international human rights treaties<sup>22</sup> and other legally binding international conventions<sup>23</sup> which States are bound to respect. States that ratify these

<sup>19</sup> Tacoli, C and Agergaard, J. 2017. Urbanization, rural transformations and food systems: the role of small towns. IIED, London.

<sup>20</sup> United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division. 2016. International migration report 2015: Highlights. New York, United Nations.

<sup>21</sup> Chant, S. 2013. Cities through a gender lens: A golden "urban age" for women in the global south? Environment and Urbanization. 25: 9-29. London: International Institute for Environment and Development.

<sup>22</sup> For the Core International Human Rights Instruments, see <http://www.ohchr.org/EN/ProfessionalInterest/Pages/CoreInstruments.aspx>

<sup>23</sup> For example the ILO conventions. For more information, see <http://ilo.org/global/standards/introduction-to-international-labour-standards/conventions-and-recommendations/lang--en/index.htm>

international treaties, assume obligations and duties under international law to respect, protect and fulfil human rights. To do this, States have to adjust their regulatory frameworks in order to comply with international treaties, this implies removing any reservations, practices, and measure from their domestic policies and laws that are inconsistent with the treaties' objectives or take positive action to facilitate the enjoyment of basic human rights.

Equal rights of men and women are enshrined in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights as fundamental human right. Other international human right treaties, such as the *International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights* (ICESCR) and the *Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women* (CEDAW), set specific provisions to promote the rights of women and specifically those of rural women.

Article 3 and Article 11 of the ICESCR require States to ensure that women have access to, or control over, means of food production, and actively address customary practices under which women are not allowed to eat until the men are fully fed, or are only allowed less nutritious food<sup>24</sup>.

The CEDAW Convention<sup>25</sup> is particularly relevant for the empowerment of women and improved food security and nutrition. CEDAW, adopted in 1979 by the General Assembly of the United Nations, defines what constitutes discrimination against women and sets up an agenda for national action to end such discrimination. Though all the treaty provisions apply to rural women, it is the only international human rights instrument that includes specific provisions regarding rural women's rights in its Article 14. Besides articulating the responsibility to respect, protect and fulfill women's basic human rights (e.g. education, housing, sanitation and health care), CEDAW specifically calls on States to contribute to the empowerment of rural women through respecting and enforcing their rights as they relate to their productive capacity. These include the right to access agricultural extension services, economic opportunities, productive assets, improved technologies, financial services, and the right to participate individually or collectively in agriculture and rural development planning. States that have ratified the Convention<sup>26</sup> undertake to plan and implement measures to combat discrimination against women in rural areas in order to ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women that they participate in and benefit from rural development. States have the obligation to consider the particular problems faced by rural women and the significant roles they play in the economic survival of their families.

To orient national policy and action, in March 2016 the UN Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW Committee) adopted a *General Recommendation (34) on the rights of rural women*<sup>27</sup>. The General Recommendation 34 (GR 34) recognizes the significant contributions rural women make in reducing poverty, hunger and malnutrition and in promoting social and economic development.

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<sup>24</sup> General Comment No. 16 on the Equal rights of men and women to the enjoyment of all economic, social and cultural rights.  
<http://www2.ohchr.org/english/bodies/cescr/docs/CESCR-GC16-2005.pdf>

<sup>25</sup> For the Convention, visit <http://www.ohchr.org/EN/ProfessionalInterest/Pages/CEDAW.aspx>

<sup>26</sup> 189 states. Last update: 20 June 2016. For more information, visit  
[http://www.ohchr.org/Documents/HRBodies/CEDAW/OHCHR\\_Map\\_CEDAW.pdf](http://www.ohchr.org/Documents/HRBodies/CEDAW/OHCHR_Map_CEDAW.pdf).

<sup>27</sup> For the General Recommendation 34, visit  
[http://tbinternet.ohchr.org/\\_layouts/treatybodyexternal/Download.aspx?symbolno=CEDAW/C/GC/34&Lang=en](http://tbinternet.ohchr.org/_layouts/treatybodyexternal/Download.aspx?symbolno=CEDAW/C/GC/34&Lang=en)

The GR provides strategic and practical guidance to States on their obligations for enhancing rural women's empowerment at policy and programme levels for improved food security and nutrition. It contains many progressive provisions related to the rights of rural women, and places a strong emphasis on their role in achieving food security and reducing poverty, malnutrition and hunger.

Concerning women's empowerment through decent rural and agricultural employment, the *International Labour Organization* (ILO) has four key gender equality *Conventions*<sup>28</sup> (N. 100, N. 111, N. 156 and N. 183) and at least four additional relevant Conventions (see box 2). Although these latter are not gender equality focused, all of them include specific provisions to address the needs, promote the role and ensure the rights of women (see box),.

In 1994, at the Fourth World Conference on Women, 189 countries have unanimously adopted the *Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action*<sup>29</sup>. As a road map for advancing women's rights and defining framework for change, the Platform for Action made comprehensive commitments under 12 critical areas of concern for women's empowerment. It included recommendations for advancing women's food security under the strategic objectives on macroeconomic and development policies (A1), economic resources (A2), vocational training and continuing education (B3), health (C1), economic rights and access to employment (F1), access to resources, employment, markets and trade (F2) and sustainable development (K2). States are called upon to undertake comprehensive national-level reviews of the progress made and challenges encountered in the implementation of the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action.

**Box 2- Relevant ILO conventions**

- Equal Remuneration Convention (No. 100)
- Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention (No. 111)
- Workers with Family Responsibilities Convention (No. 156)
- Maternity Protection Convention (No. 183)
- Right of Association (Agriculture) Convention (No. 11)
- Labour Inspection (Agriculture) Convention (No. 129)
- Rural Workers' Organizations Convention (No. 141)
- Safety and Health in Agriculture Convention

The Madrid International Plan of Action on Ageing(2002)<sup>30</sup>, is the first global agreement which recognizes older people as contributors to the development of their societies, and which commits governments to include ageing in all social and economic development policies, including food security programmes.<sup>31</sup> It stresses that older women in rural areas are particularly vulnerable and calls for action to improve the living conditions and infrastructure in rural areas. Recommendations include giving priority to older

<sup>28</sup> ABC of women workers' rights and gender equality. ILO 2007. Geneva. [http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---dgreports/---gender/documents/publication/wcms\\_087314.pdf](http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---dgreports/---gender/documents/publication/wcms_087314.pdf). Key areas of intervention include: getting rural women into formal employment, improving their labour conditions, reducing the gender pay gap, increasing women's participation in workers' associations and related policy and decision-making processes, and enhancing women's social protection coverage.

<sup>29</sup> To read the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action, visit: <http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/beijing/platform/>

<sup>30</sup> To read the Plan of Action, visit <http://www.un.org/esa/socdev/documents/ageing/MIPAA/political-declaration-en.pdf>

<sup>31</sup> While today the overwhelming proportion of older persons in developed countries live in areas classified as urban, the majority of older persons in developing countries live in rural areas. Trends suggest that in the future in rural areas of many developing countries there will be a larger population of older persons. (Madrid International Plan of Action on Ageing, 2002).

women in rural areas in strengthening their capacity through access to financial and infrastructure services and training for improved farming techniques and technologies as well as income-generating opportunities.

Achieving gender equality and the empowerment of all women and girls has also become a stand-alone goal of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, unanimously adopted by the 193 Member States of the United Nations on 27 September 2015. Target 5.a. of the Sustainable Development Goal 5 (SDG 5) recognizes that reforms are needed to give women equal rights to economic resources, as well as access to ownership and control over land and other forms of property, financial services, inheritance and natural resources. In addition, SDG1 and SDG2 also include targets (targets 1.4 and 2.3) which aim to enhance women's access to productive resources, as a precondition for ending poverty and hunger and achieving food security and improved nutrition. Likewise, SDG 8 focuses on achieving full and productive employment and decent work for all women and men, including equal pay for work of equal value, protection of labour rights and the promotion of safe and secure working environments for all workers that is also women migrants and those in precarious employment. Governments have assumed the primary responsibility for the implementation and review of the SDGs, at the national, regional and global levels, in relation to the progress made in implementing the Goals and targets over the coming fifteen years.

In the context of food security and nutrition, governments also express their support to the achievement of equality between women and men and the empowerment of women through voluntary guidelines, declarations and strategic frameworks for action.<sup>32</sup> These recognize that the full and equal participation of men and women are essential for achieving food security of all and acknowledge the fundamental contribution to food security and nutrition by women. They make specific policy recommendations to promote women's full and equal participation in agriculture and the rural economy through women's empowerment and enhanced access to productive and other socio-economic resources.

### 1.3 Policy implementation gaps

By ratifying international human rights treaties and conventions, governments agree to put into place domestic policy measures, legislation and other actions compatible with treaty obligations and duties to provide the enabling environment for women's empowerment and the principal legal protection of women's rights guaranteed under international law.

Yet, the ratification of a treaty does not guarantee its adequate implementation at the national level. Despite of the international level political commitment to empower women, implementation at national level often lags behind.

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<sup>32</sup> The most relevant are the Voluntary Guidelines on the Responsible Governance of Tenure of Land, Fisheries and Forests in the Context of National Food Security (VGGTs), the Voluntary Guidelines for Securing Sustainable Small-Scale Fisheries in the Context of Food Security and Poverty Eradication (VGSSF), the Voluntary Guidelines to support the progressive realization of the right to adequate food in the context of national food security, the Principles for Responsible Investment in Agriculture and Food Systems of the Committee for World Food Security (CFS) and the CFS Framework for Action for Food Security and Nutrition in Protracted Crises.

The number of countries that ratified the relevant treaties vary to a great extent (see box 3). For example, while CEDAW and ICESCR are nearly universal, several of the relevant ILO Conventions have only been ratified by a small number of states. In the case of the ILO Convention 169 on Indigenous and tribal people, twenty five years since its adoption, only 22 countries have ratified it to date. This means that its provisions currently cover less than 15 per cent of the world's indigenous peoples.<sup>33</sup> Even in ratifying countries, the Convention has not yet generated the auspicated results, and its effective implementation remains a challenge. Indigenous and tribal peoples continue to suffer disproportionately from poverty and human rights violations, including forced and child labour. Major challenges persist in relation to the protection of indigenous peoples' collective rights to land and natural resources. Indigenous women are in particular vulnerable situation, as they suffer simultaneously the effects of both gender and ethnic discrimination. Reasons for the gaps in the implementation of the Convention are manifold. In some ratifying countries, the Convention has very limited visibility, and government officials as well as indigenous representatives are often unaware of its provisions and potential. Often, notwithstanding the emphasis of the Convention on consultation and participation, the ratification has not been complemented by the establishment of effective dialogue and consultation mechanisms: indigenous and tribal peoples therefore were not offered with real opportunities to make their voices heard.<sup>34</sup>

**Box**

International treaty/convention  
**Number of ratifications**

ICESCR	165
CEDAW	189
Equal Remuneration Convention (No. 100)	173
Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention (No. 111)	174
Workers with Family Responsibilities Convention (No. 156)	44
Maternity Protection Convention (No. 183)	32
Labour Inspection (Agriculture) Convention (No. 129)	53
Rural Workers' Organizations Convention (No. 141)	40
Safety and Health in Agriculture Convention (No.184)	16

Sources: OHCHR, [http://www.ohchr.org/Documents/HRBodies/CEDAW/OHCHR\\_Map\\_CEDAW.pdf](http://www.ohchr.org/Documents/HRBodies/CEDAW/OHCHR_Map_CEDAW.pdf) [http://www.ohchr.org/Documents/HRBodies/CESCR/OHCHR\\_Map\\_ICESCR.pdf](http://www.ohchr.org/Documents/HRBodies/CESCR/OHCHR_Map_ICESCR.pdf) and ILO NORMLEX, Information System on International Labour Standards (accessed on 22 May 2017)

Challenges for implementation at country level and incoherence between international and national policies and laws mostly result from:<sup>35</sup>

- lack or limited understanding of women's human rights and the obligations specifically provided by the different treaties,
- limited political will to take action to secure women's rights,

<sup>33</sup> Data on ratifications by Convention are available on the ILO website: [http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=1000:11300:0::NO:11300:P11300\\_INSTRUMENT\\_ID:312314](http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=1000:11300:0::NO:11300:P11300_INSTRUMENT_ID:312314)

<sup>34</sup> Summary of discussions, Seminar on enabling rights-based development for indigenous and tribal peoples: Learning from 25 years' experience of ILO Convention No. 169 Geneva, 27-28 November 2014. Available on line at: [http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed\\_protect/---protrav/---travail/documents/meetingdocument/wcms\\_339137.pdf](http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_protect/---protrav/---travail/documents/meetingdocument/wcms_339137.pdf)

<sup>35</sup> FAO. 2002. ILC 2013. NGO-CEDAW and CAMBOW 2011. OECD No Date. UN Economic and Social Council. 2014. UN Women Asia and the Pacific. No date.

- limited awareness and understanding among national policy-makers of the relevance of gender equality for achieving sustainable development outcomes, such as food security and nutrition
- lack of capacities to implement and monitor the voluntary or legally binding international agreements,
- discriminatory laws and unfavourable institutional structures and processes, and/or gender-blind national development plans and strategies,
- lack of resources to develop and implement national action plans on women's empowerment, or to ensure the set-up or the proper functioning of national institutional setting targeting women;
- weak civil society to support women so that they are able claim their rights.

At the same time, even when gender equitable legislation and policies are in place, their implementation can be hindered by cultural factors. These are deeply rooted social norms and attitudes shaping roles and responsibilities of women and men in family and the society, their access to rights and opportunities, which underline women's disadvantaged position in the public and private spheres.<sup>36</sup> Such cultural factors partly explain the low representation of women in decision-making positions in relevant institutions such as agriculture-related ministries, research and extension, and parliaments.<sup>37</sup>

Numerous countries witnessed in the past two decades an impressive increase of female participation in decision-making bodies. However, despite of the policies and measures adopted at country level to promote women's economic and political empowerment, reforms of formal legislations have not been sufficient in transforming the prevailing socio-cultural norms that undermine female voice and leadership in policy processes or the stereotyped vision of women's subordinated role within society.<sup>38</sup>

Today still 155 countries have at least one law that limits women's economic opportunities, while 100 states put restrictions on the types of jobs women can do and 18 allow husbands to decide whether their wives can work at all (World Bank 2016).<sup>39</sup> However, even in countries where openly gender-discriminatory laws have been formally eliminated, the implementation of such policies is lagging behind due to entrenched stereotypes, social tolerance for discrimination and the lack of explicit anti-discrimination laws to ensure policy enforcement.

Social norms and attitudes regarding roles and responsibilities of women and men are among the reasons why women tend to have even less access than men to agricultural extension and rural advisory services in developing economies. These norms and attitudes define women's time availability, mobility, educational attainment and representation and thus possibility to benefit from these services. Practical implementation problems endure also on the side of service providers, both at the individual and at

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<sup>36</sup> OECD No date. UN Women Asia and the Pacific. No date.

<sup>37</sup> The proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments is 23.3% globally. Source: Inter-Parliamentary Union. 2017.

<sup>38</sup> Economic Commission for Africa. 2014. Twenty-Year Review of the Implementation of the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (BPfA) + 20. Africa Regional Review Summary Report.

<sup>39</sup> World Bank. 2016. Women, Business and the Law. Getting to Equal.

institutional level. At individual level, the fact that service providers often don't consider women as farmers and therefore as their legitimate clients, result in women being underserved by advisory services. In addition, service providers too often lack the knowledge and capacities needed to target women effectively with relevant information. At the institutional level, the factors that impede the implementation of relevant international treaties (e.g. CEDAW Article 14, paragraph 2 (d)), include a gender-blind or gender-discriminatory organizational culture which results in biased decisions-making, targeting, employment of staff and service delivery models and content (Petrics et al. 2015).

Considering land governance, over the past decades, national laws have increasingly aligned with international standards to support gender equality in.<sup>40</sup> Yet, major gaps still persist. Problems may endure at the institutional level even when statutory reforms are passed. Law reform processes may be incomplete, either because statutory frameworks are not followed-up with well-drafted implementing regulations, or because the reforms may only target one sector, failing to address discrimination in other areas of the legal framework (for instance, laws on the family, marriage, property and personal status and land registration) leading to incoherence and ambiguity when it comes to implementation by land officials. Further, progressive legal reforms are not always followed up by the long-term and continuous efforts needed to ensure implementation and enforcement.<sup>41</sup> One principal impediment is the low understanding of legal reforms among land officials and populations, as well as traditional practices and norms which contradict progressive legal provisions. Other important factors impeding the implementation of progressive land laws include low levels of knowledge and access to justice for women to claim their land rights, women's lack of involvement in decision-making processes around land and wider gender discrimination in sociocultural and political relations. An additional and critical barrier is the ongoing lack of adequate financial and human resources to implement progressive law reforms.<sup>42</sup>

Regarding women's access to financial resources, constrains that impede policy implementation include both socio-cultural norms and legal barriers. Norms that create time and mobility constraints for women, the fact that in some countries women are required to provide specific permissions or documentation that can be challenging to obtain, the prejudice among financial institutions that leads to view women as less attractive clients than men and the limited physical outreach of financial institutions in rural areas,

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<sup>40</sup> For example, only two countries, out of the 25 that have undertaken the FAO Legal Assessment Tool (LAT) do not have the indicator "The law recognizes gender equality in the right to own or control property regardless of the type of marriage" in their In the legal and policy framework. [http://www.fao.org/gender-landrights-database/legislation-assessment-tool/indicators/en/?sta\\_id=960](http://www.fao.org/gender-landrights-database/legislation-assessment-tool/indicators/en/?sta_id=960) See also Helle Ravnborg, Rachel Spichiger, Rikke Brandt Broegaard and Ramsmus Hundsbaek Pedersen "Land Governance, Gender Equality and Development: Past Achievements and Remaining Challenges" 28 *Journal of International Development* (2016) 412-426. Examining in-detail gender equality in land governance for 15 countries, they noted that 13 of the 15 considered have, over the past decades, passed legislation, which contains provision for equal opportunities for men and women in terms of land rights.

<sup>41</sup> Helle Ravnborg, Rachel Spichiger, Rikke Brandt Broegaard and Ramsmus Hundsbaek Pedersen "Land Governance, Gender Equality and Development: Past Achievements and Remaining Challenges" 28 *Journal of International Development* (2016) 412-426.

<sup>42</sup> IB Karikari, J Stilwell and S Carver "The application of GIS in the lands sector of a developing country: challenges facing land administrators in Ghana." *International Journal of Geographical Information Science*, 19(5) (2005), 343-362; RH Pedersen and S Haule, "Women, donors and land administration: the Tanzania case." Danish Institute for International Studies, Working Paper 19 (2013). Further, in Uganda, many of the land administration and land dispute settlement institutions prescribed by the Land Act do not even exist: M Rugadya "Escalating land conflicts in Uganda. A review of evidence from recent studies and surveys." *The International Republican Institute and The Uganda Round Table Foundation* (2009).

limit women's opportunities for interaction with formal financial institutions. (Hernandez et al. forthcoming). Legal barriers that discriminate against women in terms of ownership and inheritance rights, limit women's access to land or property and results in a lack of acceptable assets that could be used as collateral (Hernandez et al. forthcoming).

Laws should also explicitly provide adequate and effective **maternity protection** coverage to frequently excluded categories of workers, including workers in agriculture, in the informal economy and in small and medium-sized enterprises and self-employed workers (including contributing family workers) (ILO 2016). Discriminatory legislation, e.g. national labour code, that excludes men from having the right to leave for caring for a child<sup>43</sup>, perpetuates traditional gender roles and makes it difficult to increase men's engagement in family responsibilities, which would lighten women's unpaid work load and thus give women more chance to invest in their own training, education or to engage in income-generating activities.

In other cases, the gap of implementation is due to the lack of adequate approaches and policy measures for example in the case of the **gender wage gap**.<sup>44</sup> The main reasons behind the gender wage gap include sectoral and occupational segregation, women's overrepresentation in low-wage jobs and in part-time workers, long working hours and the expectation of long working hours and the motherhood penalty and fatherhood bonus. These are all gender-specific barriers and therefore require policy interventions beyond those aimed to promote economic growth and the efficiency of labour markets. (ILO 2016)

In other instances, national employment policies generally do not address explicitly the main challenges related to female employment (segregation, pay gap, lack of access to pension systems or caretaking services) nor are complemented by interventions and policy measures to enable women to reconcile paid work and unpaid care responsibilities<sup>45</sup>. Unpaid care work, though essential to sustaining society and economic development, remains too often invisible and unrecognized in national policy framework. Women are responsible for most unpaid care work which includes all non-remunerated activities, such as caring for the household, cooking, cleaning, collecting water and firewood as well as caring for the ill, elderly and children. The invisibility of women's unpaid care work, and thus women's poverty is perpetuated by excluding it from national accounts, gross domestic products and failing to prioritize public services that could help reduce and redistribute unpaid care responsibilities.

#### 1.4 Conditions for the implementation of policy and legal frameworks

Concerns over the lack of application of agreed international frameworks into national policy are not without justification in many contexts. In addition to the need for greater political will at national and local levels, greater engagement of international debates and frameworks with local contexts, including provision of tools to enable implementation of relevant international policies by national actors, is a

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<sup>43</sup> ILO 2012.

<sup>44</sup> While in some countries the gender wage gap has decreased over time, it is estimated that, worldwide, women's wages are approximately 77 per cent of those earned by men (ILO 2016).

<sup>45</sup> UN Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean. 2015. Regional review and appraisal of implementation of the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action and the outcome of the twenty-third special session of the General Assembly (2000) in Latin American and Caribbean countries.

precondition for the successful implementation of international policy frameworks promoting economic empowerment, and realization of the rights of women.

Even where constructive policies are in place enshrining gender equity in laws and regulations, implementation requires that social attitudes, norms and beliefs do not contribute to gendered barriers in terms of accessing rights and opportunities in practice. In some contexts, for example, even where women enjoy the same rights as men in terms of inheritance and land ownership, in practice outcomes are deeply gender biased as a result of prevailing socio-cultural norms.<sup>46</sup>

Transformative approaches must be grounded in institutional mechanisms and require horizontal and vertical coordination in order to change societal wide norms, practices and outcomes in relation to gender equality. The existence of an adequately resourced institutional setting targeting women at the national level is a critical implementation condition. In the context of the Beijing +20 review all countries reported the existence of some sort of national gender machinery (gender stand-alone ministries, gender and equality commissions, focal points in relevant ministries). Obviously, their mere existence is not sufficient: gender-related institutional mechanisms also have to be equipped with adequate financial and human resources, and be vested with authority and a clear mandate to be able to influence relevant policy and decision-making processes. Ensuring that national women's ministries or other mechanisms are located at the highest possible level of government, for example, can be crucial to mobilize political will and obtain support from the rest of government<sup>47</sup>

In this respect, cross-sectoral and inter-ministerial collaboration to raise the profile of gender equality in food security and nutrition policies and strategies is imperative. So too is gender resourcing including budgeting, and systematic gender awareness and capacity building among government officers and key stakeholders influencing national policy agendas. Generating and disseminating evidence about the gender gap in agriculture, and how addressing it could contribute to achieve food security and nutrition can also help raise the profile of gender and expand the opportunity for policy change. Equally important, on the legal side, there is a need for strengthening of the legal and quasi-legal complaint and recourse mechanisms for the effective protection of women's rights.

Engagement of women working in agri-food and agriculture in policy and planning process at all levels will be essential to facilitate gender equitable outcomes in policy and practice.<sup>48</sup> As such, support to women's groups and associations to organize and more effectively negotiate in decision-making processes is a priority. To enable women leaders to fulfill this role, more needs to be done to engage and strengthen women's associations at local, national and regional level feminist movements, grass-root organizations in national policy processes and dialogue. This means working with women and men at all levels, from national down to local and household level, to facilitate awareness of the importance of women's voices

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<sup>46</sup> World Bank, FAO & IFAD. 2009. Gender issues in land policy and administration. In: Gender in agriculture sourcebook. Washington, D.C., World Bank.

<sup>47</sup> UN Women. 2015. The Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action turns 20. New York.

<sup>48</sup> World Bank, FAO & IFAD. 2009. Gender and agricultural livelihoods: strengthening governance. In: Gender in agriculture sourcebook. Washington, D.C., World Bank.

and their work. Transformative change – supported by shifts away from gender unequal and discriminatory norms - needs both change at the highest levels of government as well as at the lowest, local and household, levels.

## 2. ADDRESSING THE CHALLENGES

This section provides a more in depth overview of the challenges to women's empowerment with respect to four main thematic areas identified as highly relevant in the context of the agriculture and agri-food sectors: 1. Women's participation in decision-making, public policies, partnerships, leadership roles; 2. Women's access to and control over land, natural resources, inputs, productive tools; 3. Women's access to decent working conditions and adequate wages; 4. Women's capacities to access markets.

Experiences and case studies were submitted and selected by the members of the Technical Task Team on the basis of their pertinence to the range of issues covered by CEDAW General recommendation No. 34 (2016) on the rights of rural women.

### 2.1. Women's participation in decision-making, public policies, partnerships, leadership roles

It is problematic to promote economic empowerment of women working in agri-food and agriculture sectors in a context where rural women are largely absent from decision making-process at all levels of society.

At a household level, this means key decisions on the distribution of household work, access to productive resources, and engagement in income-generating activities are often solely the domain of male household heads. In a context of often segmented livelihood strategies within households, this has serious implications for the type of work women are involved in and the distribution of economic benefits associated with household activities generally. At higher community, local and national levels of governance, the absence of rural women's voices from planning and decision-making processes is an impediment to the design and implementation of policies geared at addressing the gendered challenges this group faces.

The engagement of producer organizations and farmer cooperatives in development initiatives and policy processes has broadly been identified as an important avenue for the economic empowerment of farmers broadly. Yet it is still the case that women are too often either absent from these groups or included in such a manner that they have limited opportunities to influence decision-making processes. Along with the related lack of access to assets and productive resources, this limits women's potential to engage in commercial partnerships and to influence the conditions of those partnerships in which they are involved.

Given these realities, the absence of a strong women's rights civil society movements in some countries – and marginalization and criminalization of those advocating for women's rights – is particularly worrisome. Certainly, these organizations would need to be engaged and empowered in order to bring



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about gender transformative changes - including in underlying socio-cultural norms which strongly contribute to many of the constraints to women's empowerment in agri-food and agriculture sectors. Women's enhanced participation and leadership in public and private life is central to addressing key challenges related to food security and nutrition, in particular of children and infants, as well as to gendered patterns of exploitation and violence that are often prevalent in traditional rural societies.

Addressing these issues and galvanizing women's voice and leadership to promote change requires coordinated action across multiple fronts and levels. This includes transforming cultural norms and attitudes, providing relevant training to women and their organizations, engaging women in producer organizations and creating safe spaces in policy processes for women to advocate for the realization of their rights.

### **Examples**

## 1. Household Methodologies

Household methodologies are participatory methodologies that enable family members to work together to improve relations and decision-making, and to achieve more equitable workloads. Their purpose is to strengthen the overall well-being of the household and empower all its members to realize their development potential and create stronger, more resilient and sustainable smallholder farming and rural livelihoods systems.

Household methodologies build on a growing understanding that in many parts of the world households are not cohesive units with shared needs, resources, benefits and goals. Rather, women and men in the same household often pursue separate livelihoods and are responsible for different production and consumption activities. Women usually have fewer productive assets than men and are less able to make independent economic decisions about their enterprises and the use of income they generate. They are often overburdened with productive work, domestic chores and caring tasks, while men often feel burdened by their responsibility as heads of household. These inequalities hinder the general motivation of household members and their ability to make productivity gains and the development of good businesses, which adversely affect their ability to achieve food, nutrition and income security.

The household methodologies work within the “black box” of a household. They enable all household members to identify and overcome obstacles and to make the most of the available opportunities in order to improve their lives. The way these methodologies work is to get household members to sit together – husband, wife, children – to come up with a common vision: what are they trying to achieve and where would they like to be in three or five years’ time? Then they analyze where they are now. Why are they not at their vision?

As part of this process, household members realize that inequalities in gender roles and relations can be part of the reason they stay poor. The vision motivates family members to work together for a common future, and the unpacking of where they are at present becomes the means by which they can then understand how to move towards the future and achieve their common goals. Hence, a household’s ability to understand the causes of their current situation – and their willingness to act upon the findings – is crucial for unlocking a household’s potential.

For more information, see: [https://www.ifad.org/topic/household\\_methodologies/overview/tags/knowledge\\_notes](https://www.ifad.org/topic/household_methodologies/overview/tags/knowledge_notes)

## 2. Empowering women through producer organizations

An analysis by Twin - an NGO working with producer organizations across Latin America, Asia and Africa - on the role played by women farmers in coffee, cocoa and nut value chains documents innovative initiatives to address gender imbalances in access to economic opportunities.

Twin highlights that, owing to the significant (and often under-appreciated) role of women within agri-food and agricultural activities, any business sourcing agricultural ingredients from smallholder producers will owe a huge debt to women. There is potential for business play a transformative role in strengthening gender justice within their value chains, while themselves benefiting from such targeted interventions. In this regard, producer organizations represent a strategic entry point. Partnerships between producer organizations, development agencies, private actors and governments should prioritize the advancement of gender justice through:

- Developing and implementing gender policies that formalise producer organisations' commitment to gender justice and have the potential to generate transformational change in gender relations – for example, introducing an explicit commitment to gender justice in the producer organisation constitution, or engaging in communications activities that increase the visibility of women's work both on the farm and in the household.
- Enabling more women to become members of producer organizations in their own right by reviewing membership policy and/or encouraging men to share or gift ownership of land to their wives and other female family members.
- Establishing spaces to act as 'incubators' for women's leadership and to allow both men and women to learn about gender and consider ideas about identity. Inclusion of women's committees in the producer organisation governance structure also enables women leaders to have more influence over decision-making and access to financial resources, helping to place a greater emphasis on women's priorities in organisational strategy.
- Creating opportunities for women to get involved in selling products—for example as purchasing clerks or running small businesses— both to provide an additional source of income and to give women a greater understanding of market dynamics.
- Promoting access to affordable credit for women and/or campaigning for subsidised credit to be offered by the government or other local actors.
- Investing in adult literacy programmes to enable women to engage more effectively in democratic processes such as leadership elections and increase their awareness of and ability to access rights over land ownership.
- Supporting 'Made by Women' initiatives which add value to women's produce, generating additional resources that can be used to finance further women's empowerment initiatives and enable increased investment by women in their farms and families.

For more information, see: <http://www.twin.org.uk/assets/Twin-reports/Empowering-Women-Farmers-in-Agricultural-Value-Chains-1.pdf>

### 3. The situation of indigenous women in Panama

Indigenous women are confronted with a dual challenge as individuals and as indigenous collective. This case study offers a general overview of the numerous challenges faced by the Indigenous Women of Panama from the following ethnic groups: Ngäbe, Buglé, Emberá, Wounaan, Guna, Naso-Tjerdi y Bribri. Through this overview the case shows how women's collective engagement and support can contribute to women's access to policy-decision making spaces both within the Indigenous local authorities and in the national context. It also shows how indigenous women are not only the ones traditionally in charge of the reproductive and cultural roles of their communities but are those carrying out the burden of the household and often the burden of the struggles for the defence of their territories and right to self-determination against big infrastructure projects such as dams or mines. Their skill to negotiate and move forward the struggle for the entire community allowed them, to be elected for instance, as "Cacique" (high counsellor) of its own Ngäbe indigenous community council (a role normally reserved only to men). The same applies to the Guna women that together created a cooperative of artisan craft to address their main activity in the Guna territory not in an isolated manner but in a community manner, making understand as well to men its importance. While in urban context indigenous women must face as well multiple challenges, it also allow to strength their skills by interacting and participating in other organisations that are non-indigenous or mixed, enabling them in some cases to do advocacy work on national institutions.

For more information, see: <http://www.csm4cfs.org/wp-content/uploads/2017/01/SITUACION-INDIGENA-DORIS-BILL.pdf>

#### 2.2. Women's access to and control over land, natural resources, inputs, productive tools

Women continue to experience discrimination in access to and control over land – tenure, use, and transfer – due to legal barriers and customs. Men are still prioritised in inheritance; there is male privilege in marriage; male bias in state programmes of distribution of land, and gender bias in the land market. Women-led farms are on average smaller in size, and have worst conditions to produce and commercialise. A similar situation arises inside family farms, where women are usually responsible for small areas in the backyard garden or on a part of the plot, and they have little influence over joint management. They often complement their activities with the collection of firewood, animal herding, and gathering of fruits and medicinal plants from the commons. The large transfer of tenure rights to the private sector, and armed conflicts, exert pressure on communal areas, traditional community areas, and on peasant farmers, and they increase and recreate forms of exclusion of women.

In those territories where water and socio-biodiversity abound, there is pressure on land. Large infrastructure projects, such as the building of dams, affect populations that live along and are dependent on watercourses. The great majority of women in fisheries are employed in post-harvest making significant contribution to food security, livelihoods and household incomes. Despite their contribution,

women fish processors and traders often remain marginalized in the sector especially in the institutional decision making processes that develop the policies which determine the conditions under which they work and engage in business. One of the reason is that often, women who process fish are not viewed as fishers, which is why their conditions are not taken into account in policies to strengthen or restore artisanal fisheries. Lack of access to credit, low levels of literacy, low bargaining power due partly to weak organization, little access to and impeded management of the fishery resources, are just some of the effects of the marginalization of women in the sector.

Women need to have the right to equally access, control and use land and other natural resources, irrespective of their marriage status and particular tenure systems. Women should benefit from equal or priority treatment within the framework of agrarian reform and property as well as resettlement plans. Women are particularly vulnerable when formalization occurs. Individual titling often leads to households males becoming the sole legal owners of the land and places communal land in the hands of customary elites, so joint titling or community tenure should be considered as well. Rights to land, seeds and natural resources are a prerequisite for food sovereignty.

More knowledge on women's access to, use and management of territories is needed in order to tackle the manifold discriminations. The World Programme for the Census of Agriculture 2020 (WCA 2020) recommends that censuses go beyond identifying the sex of the person in charge of the farm, property or plot (which still needs to be considered in many countries). The recommendations include, for example, questions to identify the distribution of decision-making inside the home regarding management and property of assets. It is also pertinent that women themselves produce information.

Access to better production conditions starts with the recognition that there is a variety of ways to produce food, and that women, especially those who are members of traditional communities, possess vast knowledge about practices that are adapted to their natural environment, and to the culture that they wish to strengthen. Moreover, they are permanently experimenting and therefore innovating. A recognition and exchange of knowledges is necessary, including those knowledges that are systemized by teaching and research centres. The purpose is to favour the increase of production without adding to the work burden, in such a way as to increase women's economic autonomy and communities' food sovereignty, as well as resilience to climate change and pollution from the industrial agricultural model (i.e. pesticides, GMOs, etc.). Much of this collective process of building knowledge, rooted in experience, takes place within agroecology. It is important to consider those practices and tools that allow for a break away from the gender-specific division of labour, in such a way as to open up new possibilities to women's creativity and other family and labour arrangements. When women are included in all stages of endogenous development of new technologies and practices, they can take ownership, become autonomous and constantly improve.

## Examples

**1. Katosi Women Development Trust (KWDT) – World Forum of Fish Harvester and Fish Workers, WFF (Uganda)**

The case illustrates how an action-based research project on large scale land acquisitions in the district of Mukono (Lake Victoria) was able to build capacity of the community members, both to understand and to take progressive steps in addressing land grabbing challenges in their communities. As a result, a land pressure group was formed and comprises of volunteers selected from each landing site, with an aim of making concerted efforts to possibly resist exploitation and illegal displacements. The Mukono district has 73.4% of its area covered by open water<sup>49</sup> (Lake Victoria especially), making it very attractive for both local and foreign investors, and suitable for various kinds of investments such as tourism, large scale fish farming and agriculture activities, among others. Large scale land acquisition is increasingly leading to the restricting of fisherfolks to only certain parts of the lake, squeezing community members to occupy only limited space on the landing site. Women are the most disadvantaged and affected by the ongoing displacements from the land due to their limited opportunities to enter alternative sources of livelihoods and yet they represent the majority in the fisher landing sites. The community members involved in the action-based project are both fisherfolks and smallholders and family farmers, underlining the strong inter-linkages between water and land.

For more information, see: <http://www.csm4cfs.org/wp-content/uploads/2017/01/Case-of-Katosi-Women-Development-Trust.compressed.pdf>

**2. Women Pastoralists challenges in Chad – World Alliance of Mobile Indigenous People, WAMIP (Chad)**

This case informs on how women nomadic pastoralists were able to generate information through a participatory cartography on traditional knowledge. The intention behind the project described in the case was to use the experience, materials and outputs to develop a pledge to the Nairobi Work Programme to provide African state parties with resources on how to integrate traditional oral knowledge into their national adaptation plans and platforms. The case shows how: a) evidence is provided by pastoralists and meteorologists as to how different climate and natural resource predictive knowledge systems can be used synergistically in national adaptation policy making; b) awareness of regionally influential climate policy bodies is raised regarding the need and availability of participatory methods for integrating science and traditional knowledge in national adaptation policy processes and procedures; c) staff from Francophone African conservation and meteorological agencies, NGOs and indigenous activists are trained in P3DM in relation to pastoralist land use and adaptation as an example of participatory methodology in integrating traditional knowledge into adaptation policy making in Africa.

For more information, see: [http://www.csm4cfs.org/wp-content/uploads/2017/01/ChadReport\\_Nov2012.compressed.pdf](http://www.csm4cfs.org/wp-content/uploads/2017/01/ChadReport_Nov2012.compressed.pdf)

### 3. **Women and access to new technologies - Tunisia mastic oil extraction story: enhancing women's access to labour saving technology**

By introducing new technologies for the grinding, churning and pressing of the Pistacia lentiscus fruits, the project aimed at significantly reducing women's work burden and increasing their income from this product. It was highly successful in doing so; thanks to the introduction of electric grinders and hydraulic presses the project managed to make the extraction of mastic tree oil far less time consuming, while contributing significantly to a better yield and quality of oil.

For more information, see: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=1jw1202vaKE>

#### 2.3. Women's access to decent working conditions and adequate wages

Women make up 43 per cent of the agricultural workforce. They are employed in all agricultural sectors. They work as day labourers, as seasonal workers, as migrant workers, on plantations and in pack-houses, in glasshouses and cold store, although the percentage of the workforce that they constitute varies and job classification are often gender defined. In the tea sector which globally employs millions of workers, women are the largest part of the tea plucking workforce. In the banana industry they are mainly confined to pack houses while women's role in sugar cane harvesting varies enormously – in Africa women do not generally cut cane whereas in the Caribbean they do. In newer crops like cut flowers and export horticulture women make up a majority of the workforce both in harvesting and packing.

The agricultural sector is regrettably characterized by significant decent work deficits for both women and men. Agricultural workers are often denied access to even the basic of rights covered in the ILO's core conventions in particular to freedom of association and the right to bargain collectively. Agriculture is also one of the sectors in which safety and health conditions at work are the worse It also has one of the higher rates of fatal accidents and many millions of workers get injured or ill through workplace accidents and exposure to pesticides.

Sexual harassment is widespread especially when women are on temporary contracts or piece rates..

For women in agriculture, as in other sectors, there still remains a significant pay gap between men's and women's earnings. This affects women's access to incomes, moreover taking into account the low salaries that characterise agriculture.

On maternity rights - although ILO Conventions on maternity rights cover all workers, it is difficult in practice for women workers in agriculture to exercise these rights. Employers often keep women workers

on short term contracts, employing them on few months contracts cycles with a few day's break in-between contracts. This practice specifically aims at avoiding women gaining entitlement to maternity benefits. In some companies women have to take pregnancy tests before they can be employed.

The ILO's supervisory bodies have adverted on working conditions related problems, including the exclusion or non-coverage of women in the agricultural sector with respect to maternity leave, as well as the lack of statistical data on coverage in this sector.

The gendered division of labor within the family and the huge burden of unpaid care work prevent women from having enough time for education, productive work especially productive farming, off-farm paid work, leadership participation, and entertainment. The reduction of unpaid care work contributes to women's ability to do more paid work and agricultural productivity. Women who can send their children to childcare centres freed their time for participating in other activities such as farming, marketing and other economic, social and political activities. In some countries, the state and public resource allocations for agriculture do not invest in childcare centres, seeing it as outside their mandate and more of a private activity.

The way to address these decent work deficits for rural women must start with government ensuring that agricultural workers can really exercise their right to belong to a trade union and to be represented by a trade union; for employers to recognise that mature systems of industrial relations bring benefits and productivity.

#### Examples:

#### **1 - Promoting labour rights through collective bargaining - Maternity rights are food rights –(West Bengal/Pakistan), and Food workers' access to right to food security and nutrition through permanent jobs (Indonesia/Pakistan) – International Union of Food and Agricultural Workers, IUF**

Women's rights in the workplace should be guaranteed by the right to collective bargaining. Breastfeeding is a right protected under maternity rights. Maternity rights are the food rights for the children. Day care facility is an enabling right to ensure right to food (CFS Global Strategic Framework). In tea plantations in West Bengal, where women form more than 60% of the workforce, IUF affiliated independent union Progressive Plantation workers' Union secured maternity rights through collective bargaining for all workers including mobile crèche facility, which enabled workers to be in close proximity of their children to provide for their nutritional needs by breastfeeding. At the Coca-Cola and Unilever factories in Pakistan, the unions negotiated onsite day care facilities in safe environment including potable water. The union took the position that infant feeding is a part of right to food.

At food processing plant of Unilever in Indonesia, for the first time the union had collectively bargained permanent work for more than 600 workers, including 126 women that for the first time had permanent work which gave them certainty to provide food for their families. At Coco-Cola plant in Pakistan, the

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union intervened to ensure gender based hiring in permanent jobs. Women had precarious jobs with unstable income and weren't given the same jobs as men. For the first time women workers were given training and they now operate forklifts at Coca-Cola plant in Pakistan. The union negotiated the hiring of more women and placement in all job positions without discrimination.

Right to collectively bargain wage ensure that wages rise in real terms to keep pace with rising food prices.

For more information, see: [http://www.csm4cfs.org/wp-content/uploads/2017/01/IUF-CFS\\_role-of-women\\_case-studies.pdf](http://www.csm4cfs.org/wp-content/uploads/2017/01/IUF-CFS_role-of-women_case-studies.pdf)

3. **Pesticide regulation in Georgia** - the case illustrates how strengthening data collection on the use of pesticides and related poisoning incidents at field level helps to inform decision-makers, such as pesticide registrars, enabling them to manage resources more effectively. Targets for the region include developing a series of national and regional initiatives to promote a more sustainable approach to food production and to increase the uptake of schemes including Integrated Pest Management (IPM), which emphasises sustainable management of pests and diseases.

For more information, see:

<http://www.brsmeas.org/?tabid=5441>

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=sFw9H9wurnM>

4. **Recognition Redistribution and Reduction of unpaid care work** - *Thematic Report on Economic Activity for Ministry of Gender and Family Promotion – ActionAid Rwanda (Rwanda)*

Relevant evidence on unpaid care work through time diaries and baseline survey collected by women farmers in two Districts of Rwanda, Nyanza and Gisagara, were shared with the Ministry of Gender and Family Promotion revising the Family Policy in 2013. A multi-faceted approach was used including community sensitization and direct community engagement with Ministries, national leaders and parliamentarians to advocate for the more recognition and redistribution of women's burden of unpaid care work as well as more support for their farming activities.

As a result of ongoing advocacy, and the shared success with the ministry on child care centers indicating how much these centers had freed women's time, increased their production and reduced violence between men and women, the Ministry pledged to include similar low cost interventions and committed to implement a similar approach called home-based childcare centers. The Executive Secretary of Southern Province called for local leaders to include plans in their annual performance contracts that reduce women unpaid care work. Local government also availed rooms at public schools to serve as childcare centers and government has availed land parcels free of charge for women farmers groups in Nyanza and Gisagara Early Childhood Development Policy was developed and approved by cabinet

pledging the implementation of community child care centers in the near future.

<http://www.actionaid.org/sites/files/actionaid/full20report20final20public20281129.pdf> [http://www.actionaid.org/sites/files/actionaid/making\\_care\\_visible.pdf](http://www.actionaid.org/sites/files/actionaid/making_care_visible.pdf)

#### 2.4 Women's capacities to access markets

Although the contributions women make to global food security and improved nutrition outcomes are essential as food growers, sellers and nutrition providers to their families, in many contexts they are constrained by the inability to leverage their full potential due to lack of access to capacity-strengthening services. These services include financial, social protection, and extension services. Developing and implementing innovative and effective approaches to increase the coverage of both soft and hard infrastructure and service provision networks to equip women with the skills and resources they need is therefore a key component in furthering women's empowerment for food security and nutrition (Box 1: Enhancing Women's Entrepreneurship Capacities, India). In order to identify the most effective ways of achieving women's access to financial, social protection and extension services, it is necessary to strengthen gender-informed data collection to inform new market-based and gender-responsive approaches to value chain development. This includes collecting data that makes women's overlooked labour contributions visible, as well as recognising the socioeconomic value of reproductive work, and of production for donation, exchange, or self-consumption.

One of the most salient challenges faced by women farmers is the lack of access to extension services (including horizontal extension), training, education, and other learning opportunities, particularly on topics related to commerce, marketing, accounting, business administration, and agronomy. The lack of access to extension services is due to several factors, which can include religious and socio-cultural pressures related to gender norms, exclusion from rural organizations which often act as vectors of training opportunities, and "gender-blind" extension programmes that fail to take into account the particular needs of women with regards to their agricultural activities. They tend to be focused on specific and distinct crops and technologies. There is clear evidence that allowing women to access training regimens informed by their needs leads to improved earning opportunities and economic empowerment (Box 1: Enhancing Women's Entrepreneurship Capacities, India) (Box 2: Integrated dairy schemes in Afghanistan).

Another challenge concerns access to financial services. These services are necessary in order to improve women's capacities to produce food in the most effective and appropriate manner, to market their production and to broaden the economic opportunities available to them (Box 3: Enhancing Women's Access to Institutional Finance, Bangladesh). Obstacles to accessing financial services include: barriers to ownership of assets that may be used as collateral due to biased legal frameworks, lower levels of literacy, and a lack of financial products specifically tailored to the activities and needs of women. One successful approach has been to develop innovative financial schemes that are able to provide contextually-appropriate and gender-sensitive solutions to empower women to make use of the most suitable production techniques and inputs for a given environment.

The third challenge to building capacities in the context of women's empowerment is access to social protection services, such as: transfers of cash and food, insurance schemes, public works programmes, and input and food price subsidies. Social protection programmes have enormous potential to promote the economic empowerment of women and reduce gender inequalities, but only when they adopt a gender-sensitive approach during both design and implementation phases (Box 4: Women's Empowerment through Social Protection, Rwanda). These three broad elements of capacity-strengthening are all key to improving women's fair access to markets. This topic has also already been substantially covered by the CFS recommendations on connecting smallholders to markets, endorsed at CFS42.

## Examples

### 1. Enhancing Women's Entrepreneurship Capacities, India

An Indian NGO, Self Employed Women's Association (SEWA), has established Rural Urban Development Initiative (RUDI) processing centres to help women in India secure employment opportunities, empowering them to be self-reliant with supportive services.

The centres will process the agricultural produce for cleaning, packaging, branding and coding. With this initiative, farmers can generate additional income of approximately 20 percent more than the market price.

Under the program SEWA members will provide training to empower the centres' workforce with necessary skill sets as per the needs and demands of the market. As more women are trained to run the centres, they will become entrepreneurs, retailing in the neighboring areas, thereby sustaining the business activities of the centres. SEWA members are treated as entrepreneurs and participate as shareholders in the trust. Each center has about 100 SEWA members working it permanently.

The initiative ensures fair return to the small farmers, generates employment opportunity and ensures food security to the rural women and their households. By providing the necessary infrastructure for value-added activities, as well as training and extension services, the initiative helps women in India realize their economic potential as entrepreneurs. By empowering women with financial skills and life skills, they will be able earn a livelihood, and help better the lives of their family and the community they live in.

In addition, many of these centres are the products of cross-sectoral partnerships. For example, the centre established near Vadodara in Gujarat was set up through a partnership with Mastercard, and will allow approximately 2,000 farmers and 400 SEWA members to sell their agricultural produce to the processing centre and collect money for their goods immediately.

For more information, see:

- <http://newsroom.mastercard.com/press-releases/mastercard-and-sewa-enable-womens-empowerment-in-india/>
- [http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed\\_emp/---emp\\_policy/documents/publication/wcms\\_234890.pdf](http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_emp/---emp_policy/documents/publication/wcms_234890.pdf)
- <http://www.fao.org/docrep/018/i3488e/i3488e.pdf>

## 2. Integrated dairy schemes in Afghanistan

The IDS model consists of a dairy value chain – managed by the union as an enterprise – that encompasses milk production, collection, processing and marketing of pasteurized milk and dairy products, while providing training for women dairy farmers. In Afghanistan, women participate in the dairy value chain almost exclusively at the first stage, as milk producers, while men play different roles along all the links of the value chain. Thanks to the IDS training and extension services, farmers improve their cattle breeds and feeding and increase the number of milk cows they own, substantially raising their incomes.

Cattle owners participating in IDS produce between 5 and 20 litres of milk/day compared with the average 3.2 litres produced by small-scale dairy farmers in Afghanistan. A woman who sells 15 litres/day at the Balkh Livestock Development Union (BLDU), for example, can generate a monthly income of US\$140, a significant income in rural Afghanistan. An additional benefit to women is that better-fed cattle produce more dung, which is used as fertilizer on crops and, most important, as a replacement for firewood, reducing the pressure on wood consumption and the workload and risks for women.

Training under IDS is crucial to women's empowerment since, in addition to improved cattle management, they learn valuable skills that enable them to take care of themselves and their families better. Consequently, their bargaining power in the household and the community has improved, as has their ability to spend money on what they consider priority needs, such as more education for girls and boys, improved nutrition and access to health services for the family. Thanks to training, women also improved their social standing and their freedom of movement; some of them participated in exchange visits organized by IDS to other cooperatives, thus widening their horizons. Furthermore, some women participate in the public sphere and some are even involved in politics at village and district level. This may have a strong long-term impact, leading in time to rural communities with more balanced gender roles and gender dynamics.

For more information, see: <http://www.fao.org/3/a-i4585e.pdf>

## 3. Enhancing Women's Access to Institutional Finance, Bangladesh

The Small and Medium-Sized Enterprise Development Project supported the development and expansion of small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) in Bangladesh from 2009 to 2013. In specific pilot districts, the number of women-owned SMEs increased by over 10%. The training of women SME owners in business development, accounting, loan application rules and processes, and in the regulations governing businesses facilitated their improved access to institutional finance. The formation of advocacy groups and membership in different associations enhanced the confidence of women SME owners and their ability to lobby for policy changes. Dialogue and relation building between participating financial institutions and women's SME associations helped foster mutual understanding and cooperation, leading to better outcomes for women-owned SMEs. Participating financial institution policies and products require further adaptation to meet the needs and circumstances of women owned SMEs.

Overall, factors that contributed to the project's gender equality results were (i) inclusion of a technical assistance (TA) element that specifically focused on women entrepreneurs; (ii) single-source selection of

the Bangladesh Women Chamber of Commerce and Industry (BWCCI) as the implementing agency for the TA; (iii) proactive role of the Asian Development Bank (ADB) in managing the project; and (iv) rapport established between the Ministry of Finance, the Bangladesh Bank, ADB, and the BWCCI. The project also led to unexpected positive results, especially in the area of policy changes favoring women-owned SMEs. The project epitomizes a successful public–private partnership in TA through the joint and complementary working relationship among the Ministry of Finance, the Bangladesh Bank, and the BWCCI.

For more information,

see: <file:///C:/Users/ben/AppData/Local/Microsoft/Windows/INetCache/Content.Outlook/PGUDGT36/Bangladesh%20Gender%20Finance%20Case%20Study.pdf>

#### 4. Women's Empowerment through Social Protection, Rwanda

VUP is a large-scale social protection programme owned and led by the Rwandan government, consisting of four components: public works, direct support, financial services and sensitization. The design of the programme also envisages “gender parity” in the selection of VUP public works participants where at least 50 percent should be females.

The study found that participation in VUP public works positively enables female beneficiaries to access wage labour and earn cash. For many the wages serve as a catalyst for small investments in economic activities, particularly in petty trading, brewing and selling local beer or renting a small plot of land to expand household agricultural production. This is due to their newly acquired ability to earn additional cash and control it and to their increased access to credit sources.

Women's VUP participation was widely considered as setting a good example for other women in the village, demonstrating their economic potential, ability to earn income for the household and capabilities beyond domestic and agricultural traditional roles. The provision of temporary employment to women through the VUP can therefore be seen as contributing to changing perceptions of women's economic roles.

For more information, see: <http://www.fao.org/3/a-i5430e.pdf>

### 3. LEARNINGS AND POLICY CONSIDERATIONS

Through a compendium of international instruments, countries have committed to achieving gender equality and women's empowerment, both as standalone goals and as prerequisites for sustainable development. The conventions and guidelines exist and have been ratified by Member States, binding them to assume their responsibility to act, including by removing any domestic policies or laws that are inconsistent with the treaties' objectives. What is needed now is for decision makers to have strong political will to stand behind what has been committed and translate the global commitments into policies and programmes at the national level.

For rural women to be empowered, they must have the ability to make informed decisions, supported by access to information, and have possession of knowledge and skills. Women's groups and associations

can assist in awareness raising and training to help women meaningfully engage in the policy and planning process at all levels. This will help to ensure that gender equitable outcomes are achieved in policy and practice.

Rural women must also have access to and control over productive and financial resources. In cases where this exists, there has been an increase in agricultural output. This also works to enable the full realization of human rights, has a positive impact on women's health and nutrition, and on that of their families. More gender disaggregated data and research are essential to shed light on gender disparities. Job creation opportunities for women in rural areas might present a better option for women's economic empowerment than low-paid jobs in cities. Schemes to promote investment are sometimes well established at the grassroots level but policy approaches to incorporate them at a larger scale are required.

Yet, as has been outlined in this paper, rural women encounter a range of obstacles to being economically empowered. Some of the barriers cited include discriminatory socio-cultural norms and practices, and structural inequalities, that limit education and training; hinder mobility and presence in the public sphere; assign women (and girls) primary responsibility for unpaid care and domestic work; deny the right to inherit and/or own property; subject women and girls to multiple forms of violence; restrict their engagement in value chains and limit access to markets; fail to provide essential services; and prescribe employment and income generating opportunities.

As demonstrated through the case studies, however, actions can be taken to help overcome these obstacles. Key elements to creating enabling environments for gender equality include (a) comprehensive, cross-sectoral and coordinated normative frameworks; (b) applied accountability mechanisms, that apply to all actors; (c) effective national institutional setting targeting women; (d) gender-responsive planning and budgeting; (e) programmes and services that directly address the particular situations, needs and priorities of rural women, in their diversity; (f) access to decent work; (g) equal right and ability to command resources; (h) elimination of violence against women and girls; (i) sensitization, for all stakeholders, as to gender equality and rights, inclusive of sexual and reproductive health and rights; (j) capacity strengthening, encompassing formal education, tailored training, extension services; (k) access to all economic resources and social services; and (l) the promotion of women's leadership and equal participation in decision-making at all levels. While this paper does not exhaustively address all issues pertaining to the empowerment of rural women, and their food and nutrition security, the information suggests various issues for discussion.

The CFS Evaluation notes that *"The committee has integrated gender equality and the empowerment of women to a great extent. It has produced policy recommendations on gender, but the extent to which these have been taken up by countries and regions is unknown."*<sup>51</sup> Therefore, Forum participants may wish to contemplate the following questions, which may also be considered within the context of the discussions on the CFS Plan of Action in response to the CFS independent evaluation:

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<sup>51</sup> Evaluation of the Committee on World Food Security. page viii.

[http://www.fao.org/fileadmin/templates/cfs/Docs1617/Evaluation/CFS\\_Evaluation\\_Draft\\_Report\\_version5\\_31Jan2017-clean.pdf](http://www.fao.org/fileadmin/templates/cfs/Docs1617/Evaluation/CFS_Evaluation_Draft_Report_version5_31Jan2017-clean.pdf)

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- (i) Are CFS policy outcomes adequately promoting women's empowerment, women's rights and gender equality as a pre-requisite for food security and nutrition? What actions could be taken to strengthen their uptake?
- (ii) Taking into account its mandate as a policy convergence body, what concrete steps can CFS take to further advance women's empowerment, women's rights and gender equality throughout its workstreams?
- (iii) What can CFS constituencies do to ensure better application and monitoring of CFS policy recommendations, specifically on gender?
- (iv) What actions are required by whom to strengthen the content and implementation of national and international normative frameworks for women's empowerment?
- (v) Knowing the challenges and possibilities, what can be done now, by CFS – in 2017, and into 2018 – to produce a tangible shift towards gender equality?