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GENDER INTEGRATION IN USAID BUREAU FOR DEMOCRACY, CONFLICT, AND HUMANITARIAN ASSISTANCE OFFICE OF FOOD FOR PEACE OPERATIONS

JANUARY 2011



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ABBREVIATIONS

ADS	Automated Directives System
AIDS	acquired immune deficiency syndrome
BFS	USAID Bureau for Food Security
DCHA	USAID Bureau for Democracy, Conflict, and Humanitarian Assistance
DCHA/FFP	USAID Bureau for Democracy, Conflict, and Humanitarian Assistance Office of Food for Peace
DCHA/FFP/W	USAID Bureau for Democracy, Conflict, and Humanitarian Assistance Office of Food for Peace Washington, DC, Office
EGAT	USAID Bureau for Economic Growth, Agriculture, and Trade
FANTA-2	Food and Nutrition Technical Assistance II Project
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization
FGM	female genital mutilation
FSCF	Food Security Country Framework
GAD	gender and development
GATE	Greater Access to Trade Expansion Project
GBV	gender-based violence
GE	gender equality
HH	household
HIV	human immunodeficiency virus
IP	FFP implementing partner (PVO)
IDP	internally displaced person
IFPRI	International Food Policy Research Institute
IGWG	Interagency Gender Working Group
M&E	monitoring and evaluation
MCHN	maternal and child health and nutrition
PEPFAR	United States President's Emergency Plan for AIDS Relief
P.L.	Public Law
PM2A	Preventing Malnutrition in Children under 2 Approach
PVO	private voluntary organization
SEA	sexual exploitation and abuse
TOPS	Technical and Operational Performance Support
U.N.	United Nations
U.S.	United States
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
WFP	World Food Programme
WHO	World Health Organization
WID	Women in Development

GLOSSARY

TERM	MEANING	SOURCE
Food Access	Having adequate resources to obtain appropriate foods for a nutritious diet, which depends on available income, distribution of income in the household, and food prices.	USAID
Food Availability	Having sufficient quantities of food from household production, other domestic output, commercial imports, or food assistance.	USAID
Food Security	Food security exists when all people at all times have both physical and economic access to sufficient food to meet their dietary needs for a productive and healthy life.	USAID
Food Utilization/ Consumption	Proper biological use of food, requiring a diet with sufficient energy and essential nutrients, potable water and adequate sanitation, as well as knowledge of food storage, processing, basic nutrition and child care and illness management.	USAID
Gender	A social construct that refers to relations between and among the sexes, based on their relative roles. Gender encompasses the economic, political, and socio-cultural attributes, constraints, and opportunities associated with being male or female. As a social construct, gender varies across cultures and is dynamic and open to change over time. Because of the variation in gender across cultures and over time, gender roles should not be assumed but investigated. Note that “gender” is not interchangeable with “women” or “sex.”	ADS 200
Gender Analysis	Examines the different but interdependent roles of men and women and the relations between the sexes. It also involves an examination of the rights and opportunities of men and women, power relations, and access to and control over resources. Gender analysis identifies disparities, investigates why such disparities exist, determines whether they are detrimental, and, if so, looks at how they can be remedied.	Guide to Gender Integration and Analysis, EGAT/WID, 2010 ¹
Gender Equality	A broad concept and a goal for development. Gender equality is achieved when men and women have equal rights, freedoms, conditions, and opportunities for realizing their full potential and for contributing to and benefiting from economic, social, cultural, and political development. It means society values men and women equally for their similarities and differences and the diverse roles they play. It signifies the outcomes that result from gender equity (see below) strategies and processes.	ADS 200
Gender Equity	The process of being fair to women and men. To ensure fairness, measures must often be available to compensate for historical and social disadvantages that prevent women and men from otherwise operating on a level playing field. Equity leads to equality.	ADS 200

¹ See the Appendix to the Guide for Resources for Further Guidance.

TERM	MEANING	SOURCE
Gender Mainstreaming	The process of assessing the implications for women, men, boys, and girls of any planned action, policies, or programs, in all areas and at all levels to ensure that both women’s and men’s concerns and experiences are an integral dimension of the design, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation of policies and programs in all political, economic, and societal spheres—with the goal of achieving gender equality.	U.N. ²
Gender-Sensitive Indicators	Indicators used to measure the extent of gender inequality (e.g., female share of total, ratio between females and males, gender gap).	WFP
Non-Emergency Program	A Title II program that is approved to operate for 3–5 years. Non-emergency programs may be funded with a combination of Title II emergency and multi-year focus resources, or only multiyear focus resources over the life of the award. Non-emergency resources focus on a select number of multiyear countries, proposals for which are submitted to the USAID Bureau for Democracy, Conflict, and Humanitarian Assistance Office of Food for Peace on an annual basis.	DCHA/FFP
Sex	A biological construct that defines males and females according to physical characteristics and reproductive capabilities. For monitoring and reporting purposes, USAID disaggregates data by sex, not by gender.	ADS 200
Emergency Program	A Title II emergency program scheduled to last up to 1 year and funded with Title II emergency resources. On a case-by-case basis, emergency programs may be approved for longer than 1 year, funded through resources other than emergency resources, and/or extended beyond the initial life-of-the-award approval.	DCHA/FFP

² ECOSOC, Conclusion 1997/2. ECOSOC Resolution 1997/2 definition of gender mainstreaming is the strategy promoted by the United Nations (U.N.) to achieve gender equality, reaffirmed by ECOSOC Resolution 2001/4.

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

In 2009, the President of the United States announced the Global Hunger and Food Security Initiative, commonly known as Feed the Future, “addressing the root causes of hunger that limit the potential of millions of people and establishing a lasting foundation for change by aligning our resources with country-owned processes and sustained, multi-stakeholder partnerships.”³ Within this framework, the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) Bureau for Democracy, Conflict, and Humanitarian Assistance Office of Food for Peace (DCHA/FFP) remains one of the principal avenues to address the immediate as well as the longer-term impacts of global food insecurity. The U.S. government has long recognized the role of women in and the constraints of gender inequality to the effective delivery of aid programs: The 1973 Percy Amendment mandated U.S. foreign assistance to give particular attention to women in the economies of developing countries, and, in 1982, gender integration was institutionalized in USAID foreign policy. The importance of gender equality was confirmed again in the statement, “USAID strives to promote gender equality, in which both men and women have equal opportunity to benefit from and contribute to economic, social, cultural, and political development; enjoy socially valued resources and rewards; and realize their human rights” (Automated Directives System [ADS] 201, 2009, Revised 2010, 201.3.9.3, p. 31).

Gender inequality and the specific barriers women face in achieving their full potential in the societies and the communities in which they live have long been recognized as both underlying and direct causes of food insecurity and undernutrition. Overcoming gender inequality is a key element of reducing global hunger. In 2009, DCHA/FFP declared *an enhanced focus on gender* as essential to food security and included the evaluation of “gender equity in the access to and control over resources and benefits” as a review criterion for evaluation of program submissions.

To operationalize this focus on gender, DCHA/FFP requested AED/Food and Nutrition Technical Assistance II Project (FANTA-2) support to identify how to integrate and mainstream gender in all its activities. This occasional paper, developed by FANTA-2, with extensive input from FFP staff in Washington and at Missions, as well as from implementing partners (IPs), recommends various stages and steps to strengthen DCHA/FFP and Title II Awardees’ capacity to integrate and mainstream gender in all DCHA/FFP-funded activities.

It provides a framework on how to mainstream gender, through the various stages of integration. This guidance will enable DCHA/FFP to develop a strategy on how to strengthen its capacity and understanding of gender mainstreaming and identifies milestones to monitor progress and evaluate results. The process of preparing the report had two principal components.

1. **Literature Review.** FANTA-2 reviewed documents produced by USAID and Title II Awardees to assess if gender issues were addressed and considered systematically. FANTA-2 identified gaps and concerns that need to be addressed as a step toward mainstreaming gender. The review of the 2010 non-emergency program applications offered an opportunity to assess the impact of the revised 2010 guidelines (the enhanced focus on gender) and the gender-integrated food security country frameworks (FSCFs). This USAID and DCHA/FFP focus was complemented by a review of food security approaches, guidelines, and policies of other

³ Feed the Future Guide, May 2010, <http://www.feedthefuture.gov/guide.html>.

bilateral and multilateral agencies, as well as of other published research related to food security and its technical sectors.

2. **Consultation with Relevant Stakeholders.** FANTA-2 consulted with relevant stakeholders to understand their perceptions of how gender issues are currently considered in DCHA/FFP-funded activities, and the perceived value in mainstreaming gender. The consultations included face-to-face and telephone interviews with DCHA/FFP and other USAID staff, representatives of Title II Awardees, and USAID technical support partners and network organizations. Efforts were made to canvass globally and to include front-line staff in the collection of information and ideas. In some instances, private voluntary organization (PVO) representatives received input from country-level staff prior to the interview with the consultant. A survey was designed for DCHA/FFP Mission staff. These consultations provided a basis from which to develop and recommend an appropriate framework to mainstream gender.

A majority of respondents during the consultation process considered gender a critical issue to food security within both emergency and non-emergency contexts. However, they felt that, historically, gender integration in DCHA/FFP operations had been inadequate, and DCHA/FFP reporting and documentation was on the whole gender neutral. There was also a perception among a significant portion of the respondents that there was a lack of understanding of what exactly gender meant, in a very basic sense and in the context of food security. There is a clear expectation that DCHA/FFP will continue its leadership on gender integration with a clear articulation by DCHA/FFP on how to better integrate gender in Title II programs. DCHA/FFP guidance accompanied by specific gender requirements for program implementation, monitoring and evaluation (M&E), capacity development and technical assistance, and innovative programming are considered key to successful gender-integrated food security programming with sustainable results.

Four main themes considered essential to the success of gender integration in DCHA/FFP operations emerged from the consultation and review process, and form the basis of the recommendations to DCHA/FFP.

STRONG, CONSISTENT, AND SUSTAINED LEADERSHIP FROM DCHA/FFP

Consensus among those consulted was that strong, consistent, and sustained leadership from DCHA/FFP on gender mainstreaming was essential. Most stakeholders felt that DCHA/FFP needed to play a more proactive role in explicitly outlining gender requirements in all stages of program development and implementation. Stakeholders and DCHA/FFP staff welcomed the 2010 Title II guidelines with its enhanced focus on gender as a clearer articulation of DCHA/FFP expectations on gender integration. The development of gender-integrated 2010 non-emergency food security country frameworks was also seen as a step forward. Effective gender integration in DCHA/FFP operations must be supported by a gender-aware organizational structure and culture. As one informant stated, “In organizations where we see strong leadership support to integrate and ‘mainstream’ gender into the programming, successes are measurable and have impact.”

Key Recommendations:

- Develop a gender mainstreaming action plan as an immediate priority.
- Harmonize Title II policy and guidelines with ADS requirements and definitions to ensure consistency in USAID approaches to gender.
- Require senior managers at headquarters, Regional Bureaus, and Missions to provide leadership and have primary responsibility for and be held accountable to ensure gender mainstreaming in DCHA/FFP operations.
- Seek opportunities for coordination and collaboration on gender integration strategies and key common gender-sensitive indicators (e.g. decision-making, gender-based violence) in USAID and U.S. government food security programs and programs related to Title II technical sectors. In particular, collaboration with USAID Bureau for Food Security (BFS) is crucial.

STRENGTHENED AND EXPLICIT GENDER REQUIREMENTS

Most stakeholders felt that, beyond broad policy guidelines, there is a need to strengthen gender integration in all of DCHA/FFP requirements—M&E and indicators, reporting mechanisms (annual reports, evaluations, checklists, site visit reporting, documentation and dissemination of results, etc.). As one PVO representative stated, “Our programs are donor-driven. I have a hard time convincing my colleagues that gender is important if we don’t have to report on it.”

Key Recommendations:

- Develop a comprehensive framework or guidelines specific to gender and food security for effective M&E of Title II programming.
- Integrate gender into the existing reporting mechanisms (annual reports, evaluations, checklists, site visit reporting, documentation and dissemination of results, etc.).
- Ensure the collection, analysis, and reporting of all individual-level data disaggregated by sex as a primary and overall characteristic. Sex disaggregation should be incorporated into all other disaggregation: age, rural/urban location, ethnicity, youth, children, elderly, etc.
- Revise Title II guidelines to require the inclusion of a gender strategy and completion of a gender assessment within 1 year of the commencement of awards, to identify gaps, constraints, and opportunities for implementation activities, and to establish a baseline to measure and evaluate results and impact.

CAPACITY DEVELOPMENT AND TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE

Many of those consulted expressed the need for more resources and opportunities for skills development on gender and food security that would enable them to operate more effectively. Capacity development needed to go beyond simple awareness. As one informant stated, “We need to accept gender as a technical competency... not just something anyone can do.” Interviewees also identified the need for DCHA/FFP to develop technical guides on gender and food security and to come up with important fundamentals to address gender inequalities, tools for collecting and analyzing data, case studies of positive ways to address gender, and trigger indicators. This is an area that also would benefit from collaboration with other U.S. government agencies, especially BFS.

Key Recommendations:

- Develop and begin implementation of a comprehensive plan to strengthen staff competencies on gender integration in food security and its associated technical sectors.
- Ensure that all Title II training and information sessions for DCHA/FFP staff and partners is gender mainstreamed. That is, all sessions should be gender integrated alongside a specific session dedicated to gender issues on the specific focus of the training, and training can be coordinated with BFS. DCHA/FFP should also hold Awardees accountable for the same.
- Develop a Senior Management Capacity Development Program to strengthen senior manager capacity as leaders in gender mainstreaming in DCHA/FFP operations.
- Develop a series of technical resources and guidance for implementers and procedural guidance for DCHA/FFP and USAID staff on gender integration in cooperation with BFS.

OPPORTUNITIES AND FLEXIBILITY FOR INNOVATIVE PROGRAMMING

Many respondents expressed the need for greater flexibility and funding for innovative programming. Some expressed this in terms of the flexibility to focus on women’s empowerment and social development activities. Opportunities and funding for operations research was seen as an avenue for accelerating gender integration and increased impact on food security. “Gender is talking about power... this can be challenging and we need to come up with innovative, creative and effective programming.”

Key Recommendations:

- Provide specialized funding, based on competitive application, for:
 - Innovative programming and/or operations research on gender and food security to provide models for good practice.
 - Pilot programs within food security technical sectors that utilize “empowerment of women” models.
 - Pilot programs to engage males constructively in gender equity strategies in food security technical sectors.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR GENDER MAINSTREAMING IN FOOD FOR PEACE OPERATIONS

IMMEDIATE (YEAR 1)	INTERMEDIATE (YEARS 2-3)	LONG-TERM (YEARS 4-5 AND ONGOING)
Strong, Consistent, and Sustained DCHA/FFP Leadership		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Develop a gender mainstreaming (GM) action plan. The plan should include an explicit commitment to the USAID gender equality goal. • Harmonize Title II policy and guidelines with ADS requirements and definitions to ensure consistency in USAID approaches to gender • Identify gender as a threshold issue in the award of Title II programs; with an increasing level of expectation on competency and innovation as DCHA/FFP and IPs gain capacity and experience in the years to come. • Require Senior Managers at HQ, Regional Bureaus and Missions to provide leadership, have primary responsibility for, and be held accountable to ensure gender mainstreaming in DCHA/FFP operations. • Develop a checklist of minimum requirements for Technical Evaluation Committees to assess gender integration in Title II applications. This checklist should be revised as new requirements are phased in according to the gender mainstreaming process. • Establish a dedicated webpage on gender within the DCHA/FFP website, to make readily available DCHA/FFP and USAID requirements on gender integration in Title II programs. • Develop gender guidelines for IP selection and IP accountability mechanisms. These guidelines should also include guidelines for Awardees on selection of consortium partners and sub-contractors. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Finalize and implement the DCHA/FFP GM Plan, with clear benchmarks and gender equality indicators and outcomes. • Seek opportunities for coordination and collaboration on gender integration strategies, and key common gender-sensitive indicators in USAID and U.S. Government food security programs and programs related to Title II technical sectors.⁴ In particular, collaboration with USAID Bureau of Food Security is essential. • Seek increased cooperation with other donors and agencies on gendered food security policies, practices and selection of specific common objectives and indicators that can be analyzed on a more global or regional basis for program outcomes and impacts. • Ensure candidate staff recruitment processes include a requirement/criterion for competence or understanding of gender issues in food security in development and humanitarian situations, corresponding to job description. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Monitor & evaluate the GM Plan, adjusting, revising and re-planning as necessary to achieve desired results. • Update Policy, Guidelines and resources regularly as evidence-based results/impacts are documented. • Gender should continue as a threshold issue, with an increasing level of expectation on competency and innovation as DCHA/FFP and IPs gain capacity and experience • Develop mechanisms to track annual and overall expenditure on % of budget earmarked for gender capacity development and activities related to addressing gender inequity in Title II programs vs. actual expenditure. • Continuation of awards, to be contingent on satisfactory performance on gender integration or adequate explanation of unsatisfactory, or lack of, performance. • Continuation of sub-awards under Title II agreements to be contingent on satisfactory performance on gender integration or adequate explanation of unsatisfactory, or lack of, performance.

⁴ For example, the 2007 Title II and PEPFAR HIV and Food Security Conceptual Framework should be updated to reflect the gender integration in the 2009 Guidance for PEPFAR Partnership Frameworks and Partnership Framework Implementation Plans and the 2009 PEPFAR Next Generation Indicators Reference Guide.

IMMEDIATE (YEAR 1)	INTERMEDIATE (YEARS 2-3)	LONG-TERM (YEARS 4-5 AND ONGOING)
Strengthened and Explicit Gender Requirements		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Develop a comprehensive framework or guidelines specific to gender and food security for effective monitoring and evaluation of Title II programming. • Integrate gender into the existing reporting mechanisms (annual reports, evaluations, checklists, site visit reporting, documentation and dissemination of results, etc.). • Require all individual-level data disaggregated by sex as a primary and overall characteristic. Sex disaggregation should be incorporated into all other disaggregation- age group, rural/urban location, ethnicity, youth, children, elderly, disability etc. • Undertake gender analysis in all levels of operation: planning and implementing, monitoring and evaluation, reporting, documentation and dissemination of outcomes and impact. • Continue provision of gender-integrated food security frameworks for all Title II focus countries, updated as needed. • Require the inclusion of a Gender Strategy and completion of a gender assessment within one year of the commencement of awards- identifying gaps, constraints and opportunities for implementation activities and to establish a baseline to measure and evaluate results and impact. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Develop common gender indicators for technical sectors; with a single crosscutting gender indicator based on meeting strategic gender needs through collaboration with stakeholders. Collaborate with WFP and IPs working in emergency programs (SYAPs) should collaborate on the development of common gender equality indicators in emergency programming. • Monitor and report on results in reducing gender disparities, enhancing women’s empowerment and positive changes in gender-discriminatory male norms and practices. • Include at least one gender indicator in the results framework, and at least one gender indicator in technical sectors other than (or in addition to) MCHN and education. • Track and report on changes in gender norms, roles and related factors that positively or negatively impact project implementation and results. Requirements should include: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ If negative, reporting on revised strategies or measures to mitigate or reduce negative impacts; ○ If positive, reporting on opportunities for further progress on gender equality or for replication of successes; ○ Reporting any new gender constraints or opportunities (unintended consequences). • To facilitate learning on gender and food security, information management and communication, the following are recommended: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Expand DCHA/FFP dedicated gender webpage (see above) to disseminate gender-related food security information, resources, reports, research and other documents and links. ○ Document and disseminate information on gender-integrated and gender equality program successes, including yearly Gender Fact Sheets and should ensure gender issues are reflected in all DCHA/FFP reports, outreach activities and products. ○ Strengthen field practitioner interchange through a DCHA/FFP internal discussion board and the formation of an IGWG on Food Security. ○ Advocate for Regional Bureaus and Missions to establish a webpage on gender within their websites (where they have not already been established) with specific regional and country related information, reports, documents and links 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identify a specific gender issue in Title II programs for specific monitoring and evaluation. This issue would be common to all Title II programs during a specific award year, but additional to other gender issues awardees identify as important to the success of their program. It is recommended that different specific issues be identified in different award years. • Monitor and report on SEA and GBV.

IMMEDIATE (YEAR 1)	INTERMEDIATE (YEARS 2-3)	LONG-TERM (YEARS 4-5 AND ONGOING)
Capacity Development and Technical Assistance		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Develop and begin implementation of a comprehensive plan to strengthen staff competencies on gender integration in food security and its associated technical sectors. • Ensure all Title II training for DCHA/FFP staff and information sessions for partners on Title II is gender mainstreamed. That is, all topics should be gender integrated alongside a specific session dedicated to gender issues on the specific focus of the training. Also hold Awardees accountable for the same. • Develop a Senior Management Capacity Development Program to strengthen their capacity as leaders in gender mainstreaming in DCHA/FFP operations. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Earmark funds for capacity development on gender integration in food security and its technical sectors for Cooperating Sponsors similar to previous programs such as TOPS and ICB. • Develop a series of technical resources and guidance for implementers and procedural guidance for DCHA/FFP and USAID staff on gender integration, such as the following: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Quality standards for gender integrated research methods, data collection, and documentation ○ Evidence-based guidelines for strategies to meet gender-specific food security needs based on availability, access and utilization, within and across technical sectors ○ Guidelines for engaging men constructively in gender equity strategies in food security 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Monitor and evaluate the staff development plan with specific benchmarks, and results indicated with reference to improved gender integration in DCHA/FFP operations.
Opportunities for Flexible and Innovative Programming		
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide specialized funding to IPs, based on competitive application, for innovative programming and/or operations research on gender and food security- Action Learning- to provide models for good practice. • Provide specialized funding to IPs, based on competitive processes, for pilot programs within food security technical sectors that utilize empowerment of women models. • Provide specialized funding to IPs, based on competitive processes, to establish pilot programs to engage males constructively in gender equity strategies in food security technical sectors. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Develop evidence-based guidelines based on innovative programs and operations research undertaken by IPs. • Develop evidence-based guidelines on empowerment of women as a means to strengthen food security outcomes and impact. • Develop evidence-based guidelines on the constructive engagement of males in gender equity strategies in food security.

I. BACKGROUND

In 2009, the United States President announced the Global Hunger and Food Security Initiative, commonly known as Feed the Future, “addressing the root causes of hunger that limit the potential of millions of people and establishing a lasting foundation for change by aligning our resources with country-owned processes and sustained, multi-stakeholder partnerships.”⁵ Within this framework, the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) Bureau for Democracy, Conflict, and Humanitarian Assistance Office of Food for Peace (DCHA/FFP) remains one of the principal avenues to address the immediate and long-term impacts of global food insecurity. Through its Emergency Food Security Program and Non-Emergency Food Aid Program, DCHA/FFP reaches the poorest and most vulnerable women, men, girls, and boys. The DCHA/FFP Title II program uses two primary funding mechanisms: emergency programs and non-emergency programs.⁶

Emergency programs are used for direct distribution of food aid in emergency contexts, generally in response to natural disasters, including drought, conflict and post-conflict situations, and economic crises that severely affect food security. The World Food Programme (WFP) is the main implementer of emergency programs, although some private voluntary organizations (PVOs) are also involved in implementation, either directly or more commonly as WFP IPs. Emergency programs are intended to be short-term food aid programs and are awarded for up to a year in duration. Non-emergency programs are longer term, lasting from 3 to 5 years. They are used to implement development activities targeting chronically food insecure populations and populations transitioning from emergency situations. Non-emergency food security programs, implemented through PVO partners, rely on a combination of DCHA/FFP commodities for direct distribution, local currency generated through monetization, and cash resources to implement development activities that target chronic food insecurity. The bulk of Title II expenditure is on emergency programming—in 2009 almost US\$2 billion (see **Table I**). In 2006, DCHA/FFP reallocated its non-emergency resources to 18 countries identified as having the greatest need, phasing out other country operations as the multiyear programs ended.⁷

The United States (U.S.) government has long recognized the role of women in and the constraints of gender inequality to the effective delivery of aid programs: The 1973 Percy Amendment mandated U.S. foreign assistance to give particular attention to women in the economies of developing countries, and, in 1982, gender integration was institutionalized in USAID foreign policy. The importance of gender equality was confirmed again with the statement, “USAID strives to promote gender equality, in which both men and women have equal opportunity to benefit from and contribute to economic, social, cultural and political development; enjoy socially valued resources and rewards; and realize their human rights” (Automated Directives System [ADS] 200, 2009). In 2009, DCHA/FFP declared an enhanced

⁵ Feed the Future Guide, May 2010, <http://www.feedthefuture.gov/guide.html>.

⁶ Public Law 480, the Agricultural Trade Development and Assistance Act of 1954 was renamed the Food for Peace Act of the Food, Conservation, and Energy Act of 2008. DCHA/FFP is situated in USAID’s DCHA, which provides expertise in democracy and governance, conflict management and mitigation, and humanitarian assistance. DCHA/FFP has four divisions: Emergency Programs, Development Programs, Program Operations, and Policy and Technical. DCHA/FFP is a relatively small office in terms of its size of operation. It works with staff in other USAID Bureaus and Offices to implement its programs, for example, backstop officers in geographic Bureaus, functional Bureaus, and in-country Mission staff.

⁷ DCHA/FFP focus countries are Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Burkina Faso, Chad, Ethiopia, Guatemala, Haiti, Liberia, Madagascar, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Mozambique, Niger, Sierra Leone, Southern Sudan, Uganda, and Zambia. The 20 Feed the Future focus countries are Bangladesh, Cambodia, Ethiopia, Ghana, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Kenya, Liberia, Malawi, Mali, Mozambique, Nepal, Nicaragua, Rwanda, Senegal, Tajikistan, Tanzania, Uganda, and Zambia.

focus on gender as essential to food security. As a significant contributor to and a leader in policy and analysis on approaches to addressing the emergency and non-emergency impacts of global food insecurity, DCHA/FFP is ideally positioned to help ensure comprehensive gender integration in approaches that will help ensure sustainable and effective progress toward enhanced food security. This paper provides an initial step in the development of a comprehensive approach to gender mainstreaming in DCHA/FFP operations.

TABLE I. TITLE II EMERGENCY AND NON-EMERGENCY ACTIVITIES SUMMARY – 2008

	NO. OF COUNTRIES	BENEFICIARIES (000S)	METRIC TONS	TOTAL COST (US\$000S)
Emergency				
Sub-Saharan Africa	22	17,894.5	1,621,670	\$1,616,695.10
Asia & Near East	11	5,286.6	294,200	\$302,025.30
Central Asia	1	590.8	180	\$173.30
Latin America & Caribbean	4	3,472.1	48,780	\$61,847.10
Subtotal	38	27,244.0	1,964,830	\$1,980,740.80
Non-Emergency				
Sub-Saharan Africa	20	1,144.9	187,820	\$206,580.90
Asia	3	782.9	78,050	\$71,189.30
Latin America & Caribbean	5	551.4	75,410	\$76,518.10
Subtotal	28	2,479.2	341,280	\$354,288.30
Total	48*	29,723.2	2,306,110	\$2,335,029.10

Adapted from U.S. International Food Assistance Report 2008.

* The total number of countries is 48, as some countries receive both emergency and non-emergency aid.

The paper is organized in the following manner.

- **Gender and Food Security.** This section examines the relationship between gender and food security and the various technical sectors that comprise the food security sector. Based on the literature review and consultation process, it examines and gives examples of DCHA/FFP and Awardees approaches as well as available research and documentation on the intersection of gender and food availability, access, and utilization. It also describes cross-sector gender inequalities that constrain effective program implementation.
- **Findings.** This section summarizes the findings of the DCHA/FFP document review and the consultation process. It covers the broad themes that emerged from the process and forms the basis for the recommendations on gender mainstreaming in DCHA/FFP operations.
- **Discussion.** This section discusses key principles of gender mainstreaming in food security and offers a framework for integrating gender into food security programs.
- **Recommendations.** The final section recommends actions for gender mainstreaming in DCHA/FFP operations.

2. GENDER AND FOOD SECURITY

2.1 WHAT IS GENDER?

The evolution of gender in development and humanitarian contexts began with the discussion of women’s role in economic growth, and was spurred on by the 1970 publication of Ester Boserup’s pioneering work, *Woman’s Role in Economic Growth*, that led to the “women in development” (WID) approach. The early discussions focused on two different concerns: Women either had been excluded from the benefits of development or had been included in ways that had marginalized them. However, WID approaches tended to focus on women only and did not address the systemic structure of inequality between women and men that affected development and economic growth. Development workers and analysts gradually recognized this shortcoming and that the focus on women only did not lead to significant changes in the levels of disparity between women and men. As a result, WID was expanded to also address the systemic structure of inequality between women and men that affected development and economic growth.

GENDER AND USAID

1973: The Percy Amendment mandated that U.S. foreign assistance give particular attention to women in the economies of developing countries.

1982: USAID foreign policy institutionalized the concept of gender integration.

2009: DCHA/FFP declared an **enhanced focus on gender** as essential to food security, and USAID stated gender equality as a goal in foreign assistance.

This led to the Gender and Development (GAD) approach. Gender was seen as a social construct in which the asymmetries of power between women and men affected a whole range of factors including access to and distribution of resources (both within the household and society), decision-making at all levels, and the enjoyment of rights and entitlements. GAD approaches require consideration of not only women but also of men and gender relations, and the institutional structures that sustained gender inequality. Gender methodologies in development were gradually incorporated within the humanitarian assistance framework.

USAID defines gender as “a social construct that refers to relations between and among the sexes, based on their relative roles. It encompasses the economic, political, and socio-cultural attributes, constraints, and opportunities associated with being male or female. As a social construct, gender varies across cultures, is dynamic and open to change over time.”⁸ It is important to remember that “gender” is not the same as “women” or “sex.” “Sex,” according to USAID, is a biological construct that defines males and females according to physical characteristics and reproductive capabilities. Gender relations and roles are context-specific and cannot be assumed; they need to be investigated. Gender roles are embedded in legal (both statutory and customary), social, religious, and cultural institutions and traditions. Challenges to existent gender inequalities can be strongly resisted, as they are often deeply rooted in institutions and tradition. However, they are not immutable. Gender relations and roles can

⁸ USAID ADS 200, ADS Chapter 200, “Introduction to Programming Policy,” p. 62, <http://www.usaid.gov/policy/ads/200/updates/iu2-1004a.pdf>.

and do change over time—sometimes slowly and almost imperceptibly, sometimes rapidly—depending on changing political and socioeconomic conditions or in times of disasters and crises.

Gender-ascribed roles affect both men and women, though not equally. Concepts of femininity and masculinity and associated expectations of behavior and responsibilities are maintained by both males and females. Gender also intersects with other social relations, such as class, ethnicity/race or indigenous group status, religion, and age. Thus, for example, when planning or implementing food security programs, it is essential to note that aggregates such as the elderly or youth are made up of both males and females and, alternatively, that an individual may be doubly affected by gender-ascribed roles and age, ethnicity, disability, economic status, and/or class. The collection and analysis of sex-disaggregated data for all individual-level indicators and targets is a USAID policy requirement.

2.2 WHY ADDRESS GENDER INEQUALITY TO IMPROVE FOOD SECURITY?

Gender inequality and the specific barriers women face in achieving their full potential in the societies and the communities in which they live have long been recognized as both underlying and direct causes of food insecurity and undernutrition. At the HH level, food security is articulated in the members' collective ability to produce and/or purchase the right quality and diversity of food to ensure adequate nutrition for healthy living. In most developing countries, the HH is a gendered unit in which decisions are not made equally and food and other resources are not allocated to all members equitably. Just as the HH is a gendered sphere, so too are the socioeconomic, political, religious, and institutional realities, which support it at community and societal levels, often creating barriers to women's and men's full potential in achieving food security for themselves and their families.

Females are disadvantaged compared to males in all indicators of human development, whatever analytical methodology is used amongst the large number of country-level gender-related indices available.⁹ The 2009 Global Hunger Index analyzed the relationship between gender inequality and hunger using the 2008 Global Gender Gap Index¹⁰ (von Grebmer et al. 2009, and Hausman, K. et al. 2008). A significant correlation was found between hunger and gender inequality: countries with the highest levels of gender inequality had the highest levels of hunger. The statistical correlation of hunger and gender inequality in the Global Hunger Report confirms the significant amount of evidence based on HH and community level data that demonstrates that confronting gender inequality is a key element of reducing global hunger. As shown in **Figure 1**, over 50% of the reduction in child malnutrition between 1970 and 1995 is attributed to improving the status and educational levels of women (Smith and Haddad, 2000). Technical interventions can make a difference in the short term, but long-term interventions to improve the status, education and empowerment of women, along with men's constructive engagement in progress towards gender equality, will provide for more sustainable positive impact on local and global food security and nutrition. Gender-sensitive policy measures and practices

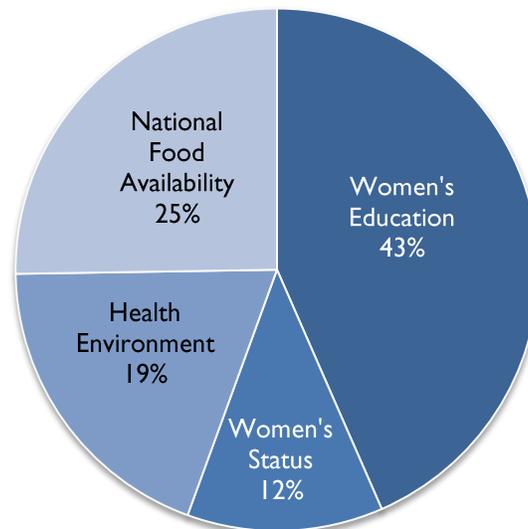
⁹ Indices of gender inequality include the Gender-Related Development Index (GDI) and the Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) United Nations Development Programme; the Global Gender Gap Index, World Economic Forum; the Gender Equity Index, Social Watch; the African Gender Status Index, Economic Commission for Africa; The Women Social Rights Index of the CIRI Human Rights Data Project and the OECD Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI).

¹⁰ The Gender Gap index is a framework that focuses on measuring gaps rather than levels- gaps between males and females in access to resources and opportunities. The index captures outcome variables rather than input variables and measures gender equality rather than women's empowerment.

within food security programs will improve effectiveness, efficiency and sustainability of responses to crises and chronic food insecurity.

In terms of global agricultural production there is sufficient food to feed all of the world's population at the present time, although this may not be true in the future. Food availability at a national level is governed by national agricultural activities, production, access to global markets and foreign exchange earnings, and, in the case of many developing countries, is subject to the risks and realities of economic shocks, climactic changes and environmental degradation, natural disasters and conflict. According to United Nations (UN) Food and Agriculture (FAO) estimates (FAO 2010), more than 925 million people are undernourished, an increase of more than 80 million from the 1990-1992 baseline from which the hunger reduction targets of the World Food Summit and the Millennium Summit are measured. Asia-Pacific has the greatest numbers of undernourished (578 million), mainly in South Asia, followed by Sub-Saharan Africa (239 million). From 1990 to 2006 the proportion (relative to overall population) of undernourished people declined, but the actual number increased in all regions except for Latin America and the Caribbean. Gains in this region were later reversed as well (FAO 2009b). In 2008, the proportion of undernourished increased in the aftermath of the 2007-2008 food price crisis and the current global recession (FAO 2008b). Although 2010 saw a decline in global hunger estimates from the 2009 estimate of 1.2 billion, the number of those currently under-nourished is still higher than before the food and economic crisis of 2008-9: a result of the recession (cut in wages and loss of jobs, HH income decline, decrease in credit availability, and dwindling remittances).

FIGURE 1. CAUSES OF REDUCTION IN CHILD MALNUTRITION, 1970-1995



Gender inequality plays a significant role in the nature of poverty and food insecurity in these regions. **Table 2** identifies the DCHA/FFP focus countries and some hunger-related statistics. It also includes data on selected gender-based inequalities, which affect all components of food security. In terms of estimated earned income, men fare significantly better than women in all of the DCHA/FFP countries. The often-quoted figure that women comprise 70 percent of the world's poor is difficult to substantiate, as there is insufficient gender-specific data (Chant 2007a). However, there is general agreement that

women comprise a large proportion of the 1.3 billion people living in absolute poverty. A comprehensive overview of studies of 60 countries in Latin America, Asia, and Africa concluded that, in two-thirds of the cases, female-headed HHs were poorer than those headed by men (Buvinic and Gupta 1997). However, as Sylvia Chant states, “Women may well be poorer in income terms on their own than as wives or partners in male-headed HHs, for example, but can *feel* better off and, importantly, be less vulnerable, on account of having more autonomy, more control, and/or greater personal security” (Chant 2007b, 44).

TABLE 2. SELECTED DATA RELATED TO GENDER AND FOOD SECURITY

FFP FOCUS COUNTRIES	GLOBAL HUNGER INDEX RANK/121 2009 ^A	GENDER GAP INDEX RANK/134 2009 ^B	FOOD DEFICIT KCAL/PERSON/ DAY FAO 2004-6 ^C	% <5S STUNTED 2001-9 DHS ^D	% <5S WASTE D 2001-9 DHS ^D	ADOLESCENT BIRTHS PER 1000 WOMEN 15-19 (DHS) ^D	% FEMALE HEADED HHSE ^E	% ADULT LITERACY RATE 15 AND ABOVE ^F		RATIO OF ESTIMATED FEMALE TO MALE INCOME \$US ^B
								F	M	
Bangladesh	104	93	290	36	16	126	13	48.0	58.7	0.46
Burkina	94	120	170	39	19	131	9	21.6	36.7	0.66
Chad	117	133	290	41	14	187	20	20.8	43.0	0.65
Ethiopia	116	122	310	46	11	104	23	22.8	50.0	0.6
Guatemala	69	112	210	49	2	N/A ^g	20	68.0	79.0	0.32
Haiti	113	N/A ^g	N/A ^g	23	9	69	44	64.0	60.1	0.52
Liberia	103	N/A ^g	310	34	6	141	31	50.9	60.2	0.5
Madagascar	114	77	260	47	13	148	22	65.3	76.5	0.7
Malawi	85	76	290	48	5	162	25	64.6	79.2	0.73
Mauritania	77	119	130	35	13	83	29	48.3	63.3	0.5
Mozambique	105	26	280	41	4	179	26	33.0	57.2	0.81
Niger	115	N/A ^g	250	50	11	199	19	15.1	42.9	0.57
Sierra	118	N/A ^g	390	33	9	146	N/A ^g	26.8	50.0	0.45
Uganda	75	40	190	32	6	152	20	65.5	81.8	0.7
Zambia	107	107	330	39	5	146	24	60.7	80.8	0.55

^aIFPRI Global Hunger report 2009

^bHuman Development statistics (HDR stats on the web)

^cFAOSTAT – on the web

^dDHS surveys, latest standard DHS for each country [Bangladesh (2007), Burkina Faso (2003), Chad (2004), Ethiopia (2005), Guatemala (1995), Haiti (2005/6), Liberia (2007), Madagascar (2008/9), Malawi (2004), Mauritania (2000/1), Mozambique (2003), Niger (2006), Sierra Leone (2008), Uganda (2006), Zambia (2007)]

^eWorld Bank, Gender Statistics <http://data.worldbank.org/data-catalog/gender-statistics>

^fUNDP Human Development Report 2009

^gN/A – Not Available

2.3 WHAT ARE THE GENDER ISSUES IN FOOD SECURITY?

Gender inequality cuts across each dimension of food security—availability, access, and utilization—and the interactions between women and men that affect gender roles and responsibilities—status, negotiating power and decision making, and time and mobility. These three elements of gender affect and determine men’s and women’s relative access to and control of resources. A gender-integrated approach to food security recognizes that gender disparities and inequalities lie both within and across sectors—demanding interventions that address the same gender issues within contexts that offer different technical solutions. Focusing on gender issues in only one sector does yield results, but focusing on multiple sectors has a multiplying effect, which leads to greater and more sustainable impact for food security. Thus, for example, if decision making is targeted by a gender-equity strategy within a component of a health initiative, greater impact within the community and HH will result if decision making is also targeted in other sectors, such as agriculture or income generation. This section will discuss the three cross-cutting gender issues. The following section will examine men’s and women’s relative access to and control of the resources; the gendered constraints to sustainable food security; and some of the solutions within the frameworks of availability, access, and utilization.

2.3.1 Gender Issues That Cut Across the Three Dimensions of Food Security

Gender Roles and Responsibilities

Socially constructed gender roles and responsibilities are significant contributors to how men and women experience food insecurity and humanitarian crises. Gender roles, responsibilities, and behaviors, ascribed by culture and tradition, and often prescribed by law, whether statutory or customary, are acted out at the HH level. In the rural economies of developing countries, the HH is seen as the basic unit of family well-being, which includes food security. Although HHs are viewed as a unit, their composition can vary across and within nations. HHs can be polygynous, extended laterally or containing several generations; female and male adult-headed; and, increasingly in places affected by HIV/AIDS, such as sub-Saharan Africa, groups of children living together without adult support. Whatever the composition of the HH, there are both interdependent and competing relationships, which affect individual food security, based on a person’s sex, age, and/or status. Gender analysis has identified three roles central to HH survival: reproductive, productive, and community. Mothers implicitly are assumed to have sole responsibility for the reproductive component—family and children’s well-being, health and socialization, and caring roles—although in some cultures this obligation may be mediated by the presence of a mother-in-law (e.g., Bangladesh) or by co-wives in polygynous societies. Men implicitly are assumed to have little or no responsibility for reproductive tasks. The nature of this division of labor within the HH and the amount of time required for domestic responsibilities constrains women’s ability to engage fully in accessing the resources and opportunities to enhance food security; and it constrains men in developing the knowledge and skills (e.g., nutrition and cooking) to contribute to family care, particularly problematic in the case of male-headed HHs.

Gender norms and their associated inequities are produced and maintained through the power relations and interactions between the sexes. Positive change will come about only through interface, negotiation, and discovery of new balances and accommodations. Women’s empowerment is essential to this process, but so too is the recognition that men are also gendered beings and, while men benefit from

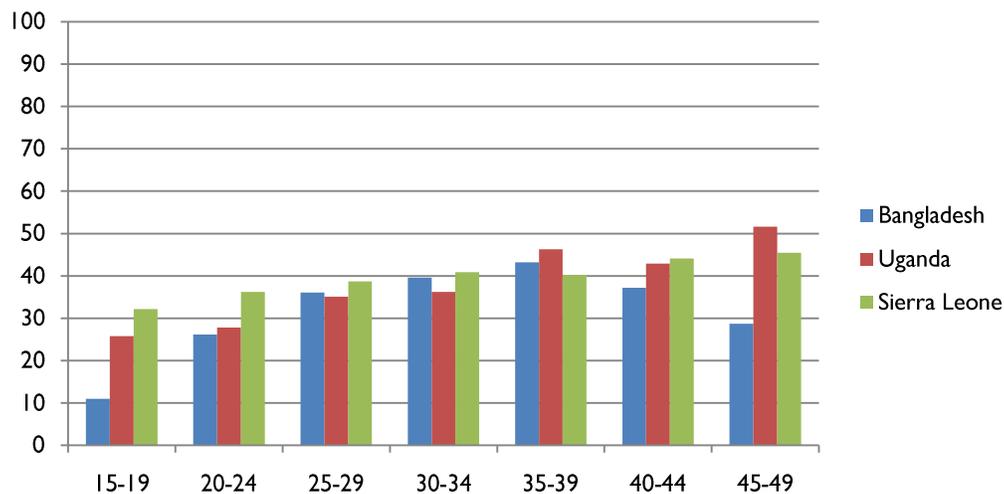
the advantages ascribed to being male, they also suffer disadvantages by some articulations of masculinity. Men, like women, are not a homogeneous group, and specific groups of men may be marginalized by both men and women as a result of ethnic or racial differences, disability, and age, or due to stigma. Men in conflict and post-conflict situations, like women, also have specific needs and/or behaviors that have to be addressed.

Equalizing women's and men's status in South Asia & sub-Saharan Africa could reduce the number of malnourished children by 13.4 million and 1.7 million, respectively.
—Smith et al. 2003

Status, Negotiating Power, and Decision Making

The higher the status of women as a group and of a woman as an individual within the HH, the greater the negotiating and decision-making power to positively affect the food security and nutrition status of the family as a whole and the woman individually. Status, defined as women's power relative to men's power in their HHs and communities, is an important determinant of HH food security. Status is acquired through societal values, education, employment, decision-making, and possession of assets. Women have multiple functions within the HH economy: productive, reproductive, and community. Underlying much of food security work is the view that women's reproductive role is preeminent, allowing for only a minor or supplemental role in the productive economy largely focused on subsistence agriculture or HH gardens and micro-credit programs. Women's community role in participation and decision-making is often relegated to consultation processes that often target and accept male representation. Women's decision-making at HH level can vary dependent on life cycle stage, as shown in the examples from Bangladesh, Uganda and Sierra Leone.

FIGURE 2. WOMEN'S DECISION-MAKING AT VARIOUS LIFE STAGES



Source: Bangladesh DHS survey 2007, Sierra Leone 2008, Uganda 2006

Men also have multiple roles in the HH economy, the predominance of which are seen to be production and community engagement. Although men are assumed to have little responsibility for carrying out reproductive tasks, they have considerable decision-making power with respect to how investment and spending on reproductive tasks are negotiated within the HH. The more assets a woman brings into a

marriage, the greater the negotiating power she will have to make decisions affecting HH and children's health, education, and well-being (Quisumbing and Maluccio 2003). Improvements in HH welfare are correlated to increased income, but more significant is who has access to, and decision-making power over, expenditure of that income. For example, in Côte d'Ivoire, a US\$10 increase in a woman's income is equivalent to a US\$110 increase in a man's income, in terms of expenditure on children's health and nutrition. Women's investment is directed more toward food and education, whereas men tend to spend more on their own needs, including alcohol and tobacco, than their children's needs (Hoddinott and Haddad 1995). A similar gendered expenditure pattern is also common in South Asia (Ramachandran 2006). Thus, the relationship between economic growth at the HH level and improved food security is often dependent on whether males or females make the decisions on expenditures. While female-headed HHs are generally poorer and more food insecure, they can be more independent and able to make decisions that affect food security more than women in non-female-headed HHs.

Time and Mobility

Time is a limited resource. While men are generally able to focus on a single productive role, and play their multiple roles sequentially, women, in contrast, play these roles simultaneously and must balance simultaneous competing claims on limited time for each of them (Blackden and Wodon 2006). Women's time poverty limits their possibilities for engagement and/or full participation in food security related "activities". In addition to food production (which involves planting, seeding, weeding, harvesting, collection and storage of seeds and food, caring for livestock, food preparation, and nutritional planning), women in most of the DCHA/FFP countries are responsible for fuel-wood and water collection, gathering animal forage and wild food collection, caring for children and the elderly, and ensuring the health and educational well-being of children. African women undertake about 80 percent of the work in food storage and transportation, 90 percent of the work of hoeing and weeding, and 60 percent of the work in harvesting and marketing (Quisumbing 1995).

MOBILITY

In Tanzania, 14,000 farmers exchanged local seed varieties suited to local conditions at seed fairs organized by FAO. Owing to constraints on women's mobility, more men than women participated from the surrounding villages, but more women than men from the host villages attended.

—FAO 2009

Women's time poverty often results in trade-offs among activities, which may directly affect individual and family well-being. For example, time allocated to care responsibilities reduces time available for agricultural production and consequently may jeopardize HH food security and compromise child health and nutrition (Blackden and Wodon 2006). In the context of AIDS, women's time poverty escalates as they care for affected family members and/or affected children. Conversely, the seasonal demands of agricultural production often lead to tradeoffs in the amount of time women allocate to care and domestic work. Time for breastfeeding, and timely preparation of nutritious food for children under 2, critically important to tackling child malnutrition, is reduced during periods when women are particularly overburdened with work (World Bank 2006). Time poverty in poor HHs often requires girls and boys to contribute time and labor to both productive and domestic tasks, frequently at the expense of schooling and contributing to intergenerational poverty. When the time burden is too much for women, tasks are taken over by daughters or other women, sometimes even by sons. Men rarely take up

reproductive responsibilities. Girls spend more time on domestic chores than boys, often jeopardizing their educational opportunities (Levine 2008).

Participation in income-generating and food security programs frequently adds extra burdens to women, as the assumption is that women will continue to guarantee their reproductive and caring work. For example, the impact of cash generated in income-generating projects on improved HH well-being depends on the balance between the time taken by the project and time lost to meet other HH needs. The tradeoff between increased workload and income generation affects the likelihood that health care will be accessed promptly, particularly as long waiting queues and long distances to services already constrain timely use (Blackden and Wodon 2006). Research shows that labor-saving technology can save some women some time (for example, granaries and bicycles), but research also shows that these technologies are often appropriated by men when they become profitable (World Bank 2009). Providing child care and paying women to provide it during training courses, offering extension services in local communities, and raising awareness among men and communities of the importance of men in sharing responsibility for reproductive work are a few examples of gender equity strategies to increase women's participation in food security projects while minimizing the negative impacts of time poverty.

HOW "TIME POVERTY" AFFECTS WOMEN

Time poverty is key to understanding gender-specific poverty analysis. Competing claims on women's time often results in disproportionate workloads, due in particular to the unpaid but essential work of caring for children and other family members and ensuring the survival of HHs. In most developing countries, women on the whole work far longer hours than men, combining reproductive household, family, and farm work with income-generating activities in the informal sector. The intensity of the workload for women can lead to tradeoffs among various tasks. The negative impact of these tradeoffs can be observed in various dimensions of poverty, such as food security, child nutrition, health, and education. In HHs that are income poor and that have fewer assets and less available labor, time poverty becomes particularly problematic.

Time poverty also affects mobility for women as HH responsibilities limit the time they have to travel and the types of activities in which they can engage. Backyard or localized micro-enterprises that allow for combining domestic responsibilities with entrepreneurship are common approaches to women's income generation. The economic tradeoff in accessing local markets due to gender constraints on mobility is that markets may be saturated and returns may be lower, particularly if women from an income-generating group are marketing the same goods. The cost of transportation to distant markets to sell goods where returns might be more lucrative is often beyond the ability of women to pay and travel may be less secure for women than men. This constraint on mobility is often reinforced by the perception that women travelling outside their community are more promiscuous (Blackden and Wodon 2006).

Female exclusion from public spaces within some cultures (parts of Bangladesh, for instance) and limited mobility in public and/or distant spaces due to cultural restrictions in other societies constrains women's opportunities for economic sustainability, HH food security enhancement, and gender equality. Women often require permission from male family members to travel beyond their neighborhoods, including

accessing clinic or hospital services. Access to food security programming, such as extension services, may be proscribed to women because of mobility constraints.

2.3.2 Gender Issues within Availability, Access, and Utilization

Gender and Availability

Reliable data on the percentage of women involved in food production, and conversely the percentage of men, is mired in inconsistent and inaccurate statistical collection; differing definitions of labor force participation and economic activities; and the frequent discounting of women's work in subsistence agriculture, HH food production, and the informal economy, which tends to call into question the oft-cited figure of women being the producers of 60–80 percent of the world's food. However, studies in selected countries in Africa show that women contribute more than 60 percent of the total time spent on agricultural activities (Meinzen-Dick 2010). What is clear from the evidence is that if women had the same resources as men agricultural productivity would increase significantly and food security would be noticeably enhanced. In Kenya, for example, a 22 percent increase in yields of maize, beans, and cowpeas could result if women farmers had the same agricultural inputs as men (Quisumbing 1995). “Eliminating gender-based inequalities in education and access to agricultural inputs could result in a one-off increase in as much as 4.3 percentage points of GDP growth, followed by a sustained year-on-year increase of 2.0 to 3.5 percentage points in GDP growth” (World Bank 2007). There are significant gender disparities in access to and/or ownership of productive assets, resources, and services: land; labor; financial services; water; rural infrastructure; technology; agricultural and animal husbandry inputs, including extension services; market opportunities; and opportunities for full participation and decision making in farmers' livestock and water management associations, with women disadvantaged in all categories (World Bank 2007).

Land and Productive Assets

Significantly, more rural men own property than do women, most acquired through patrilineal inheritance laws and practices or through legal conventions that give title to husbands only, when land is purchased. Land reform and resettlement tend to reinforce this bias, and even in the case where women do have the right to ownership alongside their husbands, the right is rarely observed in practice. Daughters who may inherit property under reformed laws are frequently pressured by family and the community to cede their right to their brothers or to other male family members. In many countries of Sub-Saharan Africa, a widow can be and often is forcibly removed from her husband's property at his death and loses any other productive assets that may have been acquired. Land is the source of

FOOD AVAILABILITY

Food availability deals with food that is physically present in the area of concern, through all forms of domestic production, commercial imports, reserves, and food aid. These might be aggregated at the regional, national, district, or community level.

THE GAMBIA

An environmental stabilization program resulted in the loss of traditional use by women of communal gardening plots. Following the intervention, men took over the plots because of the lucrative fruit trees, fenced enclosures, and improved soil. Women lost an important source of income and bargaining power.

—Meinzen-Dick 2010

(relative) wealth in rural areas and labor (that of women and children especially) is necessary to successfully exploit this wealth. The need for labor in many agricultural societies leads to polygynous marriages by men with large holdings, with potential for discrimination by older wives toward younger wives, as well as the inability of large segments of the male population to marry.¹¹ As women do not inherit property and generally do not have the means to purchase land, they often have no choice but to marry, even as a second or third wife, to gain access to a means of livelihood. In polygynous societies, encouraging and supporting women to increase agricultural productivity can work against her and her children's strategic interests, since husbands may appropriate the increased income to "acquire" additional wives.

Land that women have access to or (sometimes) own is frequently smaller, more dispersed, and less desirable for agricultural production. Most women depend on access to land from male family members (husbands or sons) or renting from other (largely) male landowners. A woman's first responsibility in terms of production is to her husband's land, not her own. Labor and agricultural inputs (e.g., fertilizer) are more intensively invested in men's land than in women's plots. The cost of investment in land is also more prohibitive for women, while simultaneously they have less access to financial resources than men do. The simple solutions of providing smaller quantities of fertilizer or the technique of composting with manure and vegetable matter may make inputs more readily available for women and poor men. Women's insecure land tenure may be an underlying cause of lower productivity levels compared to men, although it is difficult to separate out other causes, e.g., lower levels of investment and labor on generally less fertile soil. Social and legal changes in women's land rights, accompanied by awareness campaigns on those rights, have a significant potential to increase productivity and improve HH food security, as women can feel more confident that their time, labor, and investment will not be usurped to their partners' interests (Meinzen-Dick 2010).

BURKINA FASO: Shifting existing resources between women's and men's plots within the same HH could increase output by 10%–20%.

KENYA: Giving women farmers the same level of agricultural inputs and education as men could increase yields obtained by women by more than 20%.

ZAMBIA: if women enjoyed the same overall degree of capital investment in agricultural inputs, including land, as men, output in Zambia could increase by up to 15%.

—World Bank 2001

Formal property rights give women increased status. Women with formal property rights also tend to be more active in communities and associations. With land rights women have the potential for increased access to credit (using their land as collateral) for capital investment and greater opportunities for market involvement and cash crop production, traditionally seen as male-dominated spheres. Both men and women work as subsistence and commercial farmers, producing food for consumption and for markets, whether crops or livestock. The major difference is that generally women are limited in commercial sales to surplus from their activities (if these become successful income-generation operations, they are often taken over by men), and men commonly control the labor and inputs and the sale of cash products that are linked more formally to established markets. Products in formal market

¹¹ For example, in Burkina Faso, more than 50 percent of rural women are in polygynous marriages with more than one-third of adolescent girls married as second or third wives of older men (Mathys 2009). Advocacy and campaigns to end the practice of polygyny frequently neglect advancing arguments based on the disadvantage that a significant proportion of males would then face.

systems are often collected at the farm gate, whereas surplus subsistence crops need to be transported from grower to market—in Africa, generally by women carrying goods on their heads. Studies have shown “that women transport 26 metric ton kilometers per year compared to less than 7 for men . . . [accounting for an estimated] two-thirds of rural transport in sub-Saharan Africa” (World Bank 2009, 18). Investment in transportation and rural infrastructure, as well as in security improvement, is important to increase women’s access to markets and reduce the time burden they have in marketing.

Extension Services and Access to Information

Extension services are key to increased food availability and to the adoption of improved farming practices, yet extension services are also gendered, giving men advantages over women. Access to extension services, whether agricultural or livestock, are “statistically and significantly in the majority of cases” higher for men than women. Eighty-five percent of the world’s extension agents are men and in the main they provide services for men (FAO 2009a): in Malawi 81 percent; 8–19 percent of female-headed HHs versus 29 percent of male-headed HHs in Karnataka, India; in Ghana, 0–2 percent among female-headed HHs and 0.5–2.0 percent of female spouses are visited by extension agents compared to 11–12 percent of male-headed HHs. Underlying assumptions that lead to gaps in agricultural and livestock services for women include the belief that “women are not farmers,” that any information conveyed to men will filter down to women, and that extension workers prefer to deal with landowners and decision makers (Meinzen-Dick 2010). Women farmers often prefer female extension workers, and, in societies with strong gender segregation, they may be absolutely necessary. Until such time as the gender gap in the numbers of extension agents is closed, other methods can be effective, including support from (female) food security program implementers and working with women-only groups and mixed groups.

WORKING ACROSS SECTORS

World Vision International situates demonstration farms next to health centers, using a cross-sectoral approach to agriculture, health, and gender equality. Women can access health services and learn new farming techniques at the same visit, and health care workers can use the opportunity of men’s presence at the farm to engage men on health care issues.

—Interview with World Vision representative

Gender asymmetries in the dissemination of information (women are often less literate than men; have less access to information technology, such as radios and mobile phones; and have different social networks and ways of accessing information) require multiple and different strategies to reach both men and women. Avenues of communication need to address gender realities: Men do not regularly pass on information received, while women may have different priorities from men for the kind of information they need or want. Women’s social networks, such as religious organizations, parent-teachers associations, and mothers’ clubs are often highly effective mechanisms for dissemination of agricultural, market, and nutritional information.

There can also be gendered differences in the type of extension services, products, and information that women and men require. For example, both men and women in seed selection for crop diversification select for agronomic characteristics, seed size, freedom from pests, and market value. Women additionally weigh consumption criteria, including cooking qualities and taste (FAO 2008b). Different

strategies may be used in natural resource management projects with respect to women and men's gendered roles. For example, the impact of improved water management in the reduction of water-borne and other diseases, such as malaria, which has a high impact on the morbidity and mortality of women and children, may attract the active participation of women more readily than the potential for improved irrigation methods that might be more attractive to men's interests. However, it is important to recognize that women's and men's interests may be in competition, and careful negotiation on these diverse interests may be necessary to avoid harmful gender impacts.

Gender and Access

While food availability is important to food security, in terms of HH survival the ability to generate income or otherwise gain access to food is key, as most of the rural poor are net food buyers rather than food sellers. Women's roles and responsibilities again are critical in terms of access to food and here, too, gender barriers and gaps limit women's opportunities. Men's wages for agricultural work are in some cases (e.g., South Asia) more than twice that for female workers. The work is usually seasonal and in times of downsizing or crop failure, women will be the first to go. Women tend to find work more locally, or perform labor on their husband's behalf and are not paid directly. In times of serious economic crisis, women will assemble at the gates of large agro-enterprises offering to work for food only. Women's work in the productive economy is largely still seen as peripheral, supplementary to that undertaken by males who are expected to be the main providers. Where there is no male provider, for example, in female-headed HH, the low wages can be a severe hindrance to HH food security.

FOOD ACCESS

Having adequate resources to obtain appropriate foods for a nutritious diet, which depends on available income, distribution of income in the household and food prices.

Public Works Programs

Public works programs are short-term interventions that provide employment at low wages (Cash for Work) or food (Food for Work) for unskilled and semi-skilled workers on labor-intensive projects such as road construction and maintenance, irrigation infrastructure, reforestation, and soil conservation. They have been used throughout DCHA/FFP programs as a social safety net for the very poor and as a means to create assets for much-needed infrastructure. In Bolivia, for example, a Food for Work program paved the streets of El Alto and 9 days of work was compensated by a 50-pound ration. The value of this was US\$31, equivalent to 60 percent of the wage for unskilled labor. The evaluation report¹² (Van Haeften 2009) states that, at this wage equivalency rate, the vast majority of the workers were female, as the compensation was insufficient to attract men. While a large number of women benefited from the program and some even were able to gain further employment as a result of the skills learned, the program also risked strengthening prevailing gender norms on lower wages for working women. In many infrastructure projects, skilled and semi-skilled laborers are mostly male and paid in wages rather than in-kind. Unskilled labor is mainly female and frequently paid in-kind or expected to be voluntary. For example, in the water and sanitation sector, labor equality issues are common, with men most often having paid functions and jobs while women are expected to volunteer their labor (World Bank 2009). An examination of social safety net programs in Bangladesh that looked

¹² This report and DCHA/FFP evaluation reports and other reporting mechanisms in general contain insufficient sex-disaggregated information to undertake a gender analysis of results and impact.

at cash, food transfers, and a mixture of both concluded that cash wages to women involved in public works programs were the most effective in improving women's ability to make decisions and mobilize HH assets. The study also found that programs that combined food or cash transfers with access to credit or saving requirements had the greatest impact on women's empowerment and sustained poverty relief (Ahmed 2009).

Microfinance/Credit

Microfinance is a common strategy to access income for food security largely targeted toward women, frequently done through group associations, which also encourage savings and in-group lending. Microfinance offers empowerment for women, empowerment normally characterized as the ability to (further) provide care for their families, with a resultant sense of accomplishment. An underlying assumption is that women prefer to be self-employed in the informal market, an avenue that, except for a few, presents a survival strategy rather than a long-term solution to poverty. Women's time poverty generally means that children help take up the domestic workload or work on the microenterprise. This increase in child labor is often to the detriment of schoolwork and school retention (CIDA 2007). In many instances, this adversely affects girls more than boys (Arora and Meenu 2010; Islam and Choe 2009; and Hazarika and Sarangi 2008). Women are frequently pressured to give control of funds to male relatives, although they retain responsibility for repayment; this is especially true in societies in which women's mobility is restricted. When women have additional access to cash, there is risk that men will reduce their contribution to HH well-being and spend more on their own personal needs. Involvement of men in a supportive role may mitigate some of these risks. If the income and savings generated begin to provide greater autonomy and opportunities for non-HH directed expenditure or investment, empowerment, men may appropriate the profits or take over the business (Mayoux 2000). Women's ability to maintain control of their projects and decision making on expenditure is dependent on pre-intervention levels of negotiating powers within the HH and the ability of men to adapt to changing circumstances, including the increasing autonomy of their wives. Female heads of HHs, although frequently poorer, may have greater opportunities for autonomy and empowerment in microfinance projects. Without gender analysis and gender equity strategies for implementation, there are potential risks for exacerbating gender inequalities.¹³

Within DCHA/FFP and other food security programs, the strengthening of existing associations and the formation of new associations offer opportunities for agricultural improvement and income generation through a variety of agricultural-based activities, including agro-processing, processing of livestock products, accessing forest resources, and production of crafts and other manufactured goods (baskets, weaving mats, clothing). Traditionally agricultural or livestock associations are male dominated, in some instances male only, largely a result of a combination of admission requirements (land or stock ownership,) relatively high membership fees, and/or cultural/gender restrictions. Breaking gender barriers in male-dominated associations can be advantageous for women, even if difficult with limited opportunity for leadership or executive positions, as they may benefit from the external networks and services to which their male colleagues have access.

Woman-only associations are appropriate in contexts with restrictions on the mixing of women and men or may be appropriate for women's first ventures when the need for confidence building or "safe"

¹³ For good analysis on the benefits and risks associated with microfinance, see *Microfinance and Gender: New Contributions to an Old Issue*, ADA 2007.

space for shared interests and concerns is greatest. It is important to identify what training women might need when introducing new techniques, crops, or livestock that have been traditionally male dominated. Gender appropriate training programs and techniques should be developed according to level of skills and knowledge, as well as literacy levels, which may vary between males and females. Women tend to be segregated in low-level agro-processing activities (making of jams and preserves and craft production, plant nurseries), which are generally low return, have limited marketing value, and can suffer from market saturation when groups of women offer their goods for sale simultaneously.

Understanding gender issues in value chains can prevent the exacerbation of gender disparities, which characterizes much of the commercialization of agriculture, expansion into export markets, and development of niche marketing (e.g., roses in Kenya; growing peppers for export in Rwanda, Kenya, and elsewhere). For example, as urban demand for vegetables increases, women's gardens, which supply food for the HH, with any surplus sold in local markets, are often taken over by men to establish commercial enterprises (see, for example, FAO 2009b), with men usually serving as managers and recipients of the income and women providing most of the labor. The case study below illustrates gender disparities in market economies. Had production not fallen after the first year, it is unlikely that monitoring of differential impacts on women and men would have been undertaken and the exploitation of women's labor would have continued.

LINKING CREDIT WITH FOOD SECURITY AFRICARE

A DCHA/FFP program implemented by Africare in Burkina Faso identified livestock production as an important component of HH food security and livelihoods. Seventy-three percent of HHs headed by women in Zondoma province were in the most food insecure category, compared to 45 percent for male-headed HHs. However, lack of financial resources was identified as one of the major constraints limiting participation of women in livestock development. To overcome this constraint, Africare linked its livestock program to a microfinance institution, which provided credit for the livestock purchases, while the project continued to provide technical assistance as needed. In addition, the project supported poor households that could not afford the 10 percent loan down payment required by the village banks. In 2008, a total of 4,902 persons (99 percent women) were supported and received a total of US\$440,405 through the project's microcredit activities. About 43 percent of the loan beneficiaries implemented livestock activities, such as raising poultry, sheep fattening, and small ruminants breeding.

—USAID/DCHA/FFP/W 2009

Africare received the Government of Burkina Faso's highest honor, the *Chevalier de l'Ordre National* for the Zondoma Food Security Initiative.

—USAID 2008

At face value, the pound of sugar seems inadequate recompense for women's labor. Aside from the lack of nutritional value of sugar, proffering goods only to women for their work (men were paid in currency) denies women the autonomy that a cash disbursement would have achieved. It also does not guarantee that husbands will contribute more to the HH economy and they may even feel able to contribute less. A more gender-equitable approach would have been to discuss the proposed venture

with both women and men, and either sign contracts with the women farmers or pay a designated portion of the income directly to women.

Gender and Utilization

Food availability and access to food are not themselves sufficient to ensure an end to hunger and malnutrition; individual health and ability to absorb and metabolize nutrients is crucial. Undernutrition has a number of causes in addition to inadequate dietary intake: insufficient dietary diversity and absence of important micronutrients; infectious diseases, including HIV, resulting in malabsorption of food; and lack of access to safe water and sanitation and/or poor hygiene that lead to exposure to repeated enteric infections (e.g., diarrhea, intestinal parasites) and/or malaria. A major barrier to optimum food utilization is gender discrimination—when HH have scarce resources, or even where resources are sufficient priority is given to males. An individual’s nutritional status is often determined by status, sex, and age. Women and girls who are mothers bear the responsibility for the nutritional welfare of the family and HH and the time-cost in obtaining health, educational, and training services that may ensure that welfare. It will remain so until there is general understanding that children’s well-being is a **parental** responsibility and the welfare of the HH is the responsibility of all adult members. A number of Title II programs are addressing this issue through exploratory initiatives to involve fathers in maternal and child health programs.

FOOD UTILIZATION/CONSUMPTION

Proper biological use of food, requiring a diet with sufficient energy and essential nutrients, potable water and adequate sanitation, as well as knowledge of food storage, processing, basic nutrition and child care and illness management.

AN ADEQUATE RETURN FOR WOMEN’S LABOR?

In Eldoret, Kenya, Mace Foods processes African Bird’s Eye chili for sale in Kenyan and European markets. Smallholder farms provide Mace Foods with raw material. Women cultivate the chilies in small gardens, while men deliver the crop to the processing plant and collect payment. Shortly after the purchase of the first crop, decreasing supplies led Mace Foods to investigate the reason. It found that married women farmers had abandoned chili production because they were not receiving returns for their labor; spouses were often retaining the proceeds and using them for personal expenses. Gendered patterns of household labor and resource distribution jeopardized Mace Foods’ ability to meet the buyer’s demand. To increase incentives for women to produce chili, Mace Foods, with the USAID Kenya Horticulture Development Program, designed a payment system that included both cash and non-cash rewards. Mace Foods distributed a pound of sugar, a desirable household commodity, along with the cash payments.

—Adapted from Rubin 2008

Maternal and Child Health and Nutrition

Women’s education, status, age, empowerment, and decision-making capacity relative to men’s are significant determinants of maternal and child health and nutrition. Poor maternal health and nutrition in many developing countries is itself symptomatic of pervasive gender inequality. Maternal mortality and morbidity are extremely high in developing countries, the result of a combination of factors, including inadequate nutrition; early marriage and early pregnancy; poor or no access to health care, including ante- and postnatal care; lack of control over sexuality and reproductive rights; and gender-based violence (GBV). Maternal health can be compromised by gendered cultural norms regarding food intake-

intra-HH food allocation often gives preference to males with females eating less or leftovers. For example, in a HH survey in Bangladesh, 54.3 percent of women reported not eating meat compared to 38 percent of men. Almost 71 percent of women reported eating less food than their husbands compared to 24 percent of men who said they ate less than their wives (Coates 2010). In some societies in Africa, there are taboos that restrict women and children from eating specific foods, usually high protein foods, such as eggs, meat, and fish. Gender disparities in food allocation, both in quantity and quality, however, are only part of the picture. Access to health care is also determined in part by sex; women must often get permission from a male family member to go to a health center and to cover any resulting costs.

Early marriage is a widespread practice in many developing countries, and families largely decide when and to whom a girl should get married. As a result, young maternal age at first birth is very common in these countries and is linked to frequent pregnancies with short birth intervals, higher risk of pregnancy complications, and increased risk of death or long-term malnutrition for the mothers. Many young girls are malnourished upon marriage, continuing the intergenerational cycle of malnutrition.

Numerous studies have shown that, independent of other factors, the greater a woman's decision-making power, the greater the positive effect on maternal and child health. Health services are accessed two to three times higher in female-headed HHs or in HHs where women have decision-making power (Gill 2007). Adolescent married girls have the least decision-making power and are the most vulnerable—subject to decisions made by usually older husbands, mothers-in-law, or co-wives. The level of education a girl/woman achieves is correlated to improved health of women and children. An educated woman is more likely to ensure her children are immunized. In Africa, children of mothers who have been educated for 5 years in primary school are more likely to survive to 5 years of age (DfID 2007); educated women are less likely to die in childbirth, and tend to have fewer children (Black 2008); and non-educated women are less likely to access antenatal care (Gill 2007).

Key gender issues that undermine child nutrition in particular include women's lack of access to and control over resources, little decision-making power, their work burden and time poverty, fewer employment opportunities, and lower wages. Poor working women especially face a tradeoff between their employment and child care; research suggests that poor women having to work increases the risk of malnutrition for their children. Men's lack of knowledge of infant and young child nutrition is also a significant factor. Including men and fathers in health education to raise awareness on women's, girls', and boys' health needs as well as initiatives focusing on gender inequalities in decision making is essential. Equalizing men's and women's status in South Asia and sub-Saharan Africa would reduce the number of malnourished children under 3 by 13.4 million and 1.7 million, respectively (Smith and Haddad 2000). Inclusion of fathers in an immunization campaign in Ghana resulted in them taking greater responsibility for children's health and led to increased rates of immunization (Sen and Östlin, 2007).

Gender-Based Violence

Intimate partner violence or domestic violence (including sexual assault) is one of the most common forms of gender-based violence. In Bangladesh 24 percent of married women reported experience of either physical or sexual violence by husbands in the previous twelve months, and 53 percent reported experiencing domestic violence as some point in the past (Van Haeften 2009). In Liberia, 38 percent of women experienced domestic violence in the past twelve months, and 50 percent experienced domestic violence at some point in the past; 59 percent of women accepted that men had the right to beat their wives. In Burkina Faso 71 percent and in Sierra Leone 85 percent of women accepted that men had the right to beat their wives (Sutter, Mathys, Woldt). 'Only' 44 percent of men in Burkina Faso believed husbands had the right to beat their wives (Mathys). Domestic violence increases the risk of maternal mortality and morbidity, spontaneous abortion, and fetal, infant and child mortality. It also increases the risk of pre-term birth and low birth weight. Women who suffer violence are significantly more at risk of a terminated pregnancy or stillbirth; and are less likely to access antenatal care until late in the pregnancy and have a 33 percent increase in obstetric complications (Gill 2008). In addition, domestic violence is associated with increased malnutrition among young children who live in violent homes, and shortens the period of exclusive breastfeeding. Women who experience domestic violence can also experience severe restrictions on their mobility and their ability to participate in the workforce or in farming, and men's controlling behavior in these contexts leaves women with little control over or ability to contribute to HH food security.

Another form of GBV, female genital mutilation (FGM), is a significant factor in maternal mortality and morbidity with consequent results for HH food security.¹⁴ FGM compounds the risk of obstructed labor and infection; young girls who undergo FGM (usually between the ages of 7 and 10) are twice as likely to die during childbirth and more likely to give birth to a stillborn child. When the mother dies, the infant's risk of death is high, more so for female children (Gill 2007); there is also a greater impact on the nutritional status of other children in the HH.

PEPFAR CROSS-CUTTING GENDER STRATEGIES

- Increasing gender equity in HIV/AIDS programs and services
- Reducing violence and coercion
- Addressing male norms and behaviors
- Increasing women's legal protection
- Increasing women's access to income and productive resources

PRINCIPLES UNDERLYING USAID'S GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE FRAMEWORK

- Respect survivors' safety, rights, and confidentiality
- Support multisectoral interventions for enhanced effectiveness
- Encourage coordination and partnership at all levels
- Include development and human rights perspectives
- Include monitoring and evaluation as an essential component of GBV programs

¹⁴ In the 2010 non-emergency countries, the prevalence of FGM is as follows: Burkina Faso >60%; Liberia 58%; Sierra Leone >90% (Mathys 2009; Sutter 2009; Woldt 2009); and Sudan 89.2% (WHO 2008).

HIV

In the context of HIV, gender and food security interact in complex ways. Gender inequality is one of the reasons that women are consistently at increased risk of contracting HIV: They lack control over their sexuality and reproductive rights. In addition, women's access to land for farming or productive assets is often gained through marriage from their husband's family. In the HIV context, when men die of AIDS, their wives may lose access to land and productive assets that belong to their husbands' family. This leaves women at increased risk of food insecurity. In this context, women also play a significant role as primary caregivers to those who become sick as a result of HIV/AIDS; this reduces their work and farming capacity, reducing both women's income and food production. As women take on responsibility for care, girls are often forced to take on more domestic responsibilities, frequently dropping out of school to do so. The United States President's Emergency Plan for AIDS Relief (PEPFAR) and DCHA/FFP recognized the need for collaboration and coordination on the impact of food insecurity on the health of people living with HIV and vice versa and collaborated to produce the "HIV and Food Security Conceptual Framework" (DCHA/FFP/PEPFAR 2007). In 2009, PEPFAR introduced a comprehensive 5-year strategy (2010–2014), which identified gender issues as essential in reducing the vulnerability of women and men to HIV infection.

2.3.3 Gender, Risk, and Vulnerability

Gender inequalities in disaster situations are a part of the continuum of male and female experiences, needs, opportunities, and capacities that exist in communities and HHs. Gender analysis is essential to disaster preparedness and disaster risk reduction, as risks to men and women and their respective vulnerabilities are varied and increase during disasters (Enarson and Chakrabarty 2009). According to FAO (2010), there are currently 33 countries facing a food security crisis, 14 of which have been ongoing for more than 10 years and some for longer than 20. The most intractable are predominantly related to armed conflict and have differential impacts on males and females. "Men are more likely to die during conflicts, whereas women die more often of indirect causes after the conflict is over" (Ormhaug 2009, 3). When both direct and indirect consequences are considered, women are more adversely affected than men are. When civil wars are also ethnic wars, particularly in failed states, the adverse effects on women are even more pronounced (Plümper and Neumayer 2006). Natural disasters and their effects, on average, result in more female fatalities than male fatalities. There is a significant gender gap in life expectancy favoring males, and it is "the socially constructed gender-specific vulnerability of females built into everyday socio-economic patterns that lead to the relatively higher female disaster mortality rates" (Neumayer and Plümper 2007).

Conflict disrupts agricultural production and access to food; health, educational, and other service structures are destroyed, and, in armed conflict, are frequently specifically targeted, as are the men and women who work in them. Armed conflict creates large numbers of refugees and internally displaced persons (IDPs), with ethnic conflicts likely to create higher population flows as result of ethnic cleansing. The predominance of male national and international humanitarian workers in emergency responses and the presence of military, paramilitary, and peacekeeping forces in conflict contexts often reinforce or exacerbate gender inequities and pose a major risk to women's and girls' sexual and physical safety (Plümper and Neumayer 2006). Sexual assault, sexual exploitation and abuse (SEA), and human trafficking are endemic in displacement settings and often become "normalized" with lasting effects during recovery and reconstruction (Hynes 2004).

Women's caring role for children and the elderly, restrictive dress codes, and behavioral constraints on relocation without male permission are barriers to women's survival in natural disasters (Neumayer and Plümper 2007). A disproportionate number of women died in the 1991 cyclone in Bangladesh because of cultural norms restricting their mobility outside the HH. More women than men died in the tsunami in Sri Lanka because women did not know how to swim or climb trees. Many women who drowned in the tsunami were looking for their children (Tsunami, Gender and Recovery 2005).

The gendered role of men as protectors of females in their families can result in increased control of women's and girls' behavior (including early marriages for daughters) during emergencies. Males often feel that emergency situations benefit women more than men, because they see women taking on more public roles in society than previously, or feel their masculinity threatened, because they are not able to fulfill their perceived duties as men. With the presence of international responders, women's movements can emerge or be strengthened. Increased awareness of GBV, rights of sexual minorities (including men who have sex with men), and rights of minority groups can be seen to threaten existent male majority group entitlements. Negative behaviors, such as increased alcohol and drug abuse and a rise in domestic violence, are often consequences of male trauma and feelings of inadequacy in emergency situations (Neumayer and Plümper 2007). Any of these gendered reactions, or all of them combined, pose risks for food security, productive livelihoods, and healthy relationships between males and females.

3. FINDINGS

3.1 PROCESS

DCHA/FFP requested support from the Food and Nutrition Technical Assistance II Project (FANTA-2)¹⁵ to identify how to integrate and mainstream gender in all its activities. Mainstreaming gender has been an agency requirement for some time, but the extent to which this is operationalized agency-wide varies considerably. Existing and past DCHA/FFP-funded activities were reviewed to determine whether gender had been integrated in any activities and to what extent. This review identifies various stages and steps to strengthen DCHA/FFP and Title II Awardees' capacity to better integrate and mainstream gender in all DCHA/FFP-funded activities. The review also provides a framework on how to mainstream gender, through the various stages of integration. This guidance will enable DCHA/FFP to develop a strategy on how to strengthen its capacity and understanding of gender mainstreaming, and identifies milestones to monitor progress and evaluate results. The process had two principal components.

1. **Literature Review.** FANTA-2 reviewed documents produced by USAID and Title II Awardees to assess if gender issues were addressed and considered systematically. The documents reviewed included DCHA/FFP operational strategy, Title II guidelines, non-emergency program applications and reports, Food Security Country Frameworks (FSCFs), USAID and IPs documents and reports related to food security and relevant technical sectors, food security approaches, guidelines and policies by bilateral and multilateral agencies, and published research related to food security and its technical sectors. FANTA-2 identified gaps and concerns that should be addressed as a step toward mainstreaming gender.

The review of the 2010 non-emergency program applications offered an opportunity to assess the impact of the revised 2010 guidelines (the enhanced focus on gender) and the gender-integrated FSCFs, discussed below.

2. **Consultation with Relevant Stakeholders.** FANTA-2 consulted with relevant stakeholders to understand their perceptions of how gender issues are currently considered in DCHA/FFP-funded activities, and the perceived value in mainstreaming gender. The consultations included face-to-face and telephone interviews with DCHA/FFP and other USAID staff, representatives of Title II emergency and non-emergency IPs, DCHA/FFP, and USAID technical support partners and network organizations. Although the original remit of the review was Washington focused, efforts were made to canvass more widely and to include front-line staff in the collection of information and ideas. In some instances, representatives of IPs received input from country-level staff prior to the interview with the consultant. A survey was designed for DCHA/FFP Mission staff, using SurveyMonkey, drawing a response rate of close to 50 percent. The survey garnered information on both organizational and individual practices and capacity to undertake gender-integrated programming and also solicited recommendations for improvement. The results are discussed below. The consultation process also included follow-up interviews and review of documents and

¹⁵ FANTA-2 operates under a cooperative agreement between USAID and AED to provide technical assistance on food security and nutrition to USAID and its partners, including host country governments, international multilateral organizations, and nongovernmental organization IPs.

resources sent by the informants. These consultations provided a basis from which to develop and recommend an appropriate framework to mainstream gender.

3.2 GENERAL FINDINGS

It is clear from evaluations of gender-mainstreaming processes in bilateral and multilateral organizations that a number of common factors are necessary for success:

- Leadership and commitment at the highest levels
- A systematic approach and institutionalized structure with benchmarks and performance standards
- Clearly defined goals and dedicated resources
- Staff with the skills and knowledge to support the work and understand the links between work on gender equality and organizational objectives
- Incentives and accountability structures to ensure systematic integration of gender equality outcomes into program deliverables

An overwhelming majority of respondents during the consultation process considered gender a critical issue to food security within both development and emergency contexts, but felt that, historically, gender integration in DCHA/FFP operations had been inadequate, and DCHA/FFP reporting and documentation was, on the whole, gender neutral. There was also a perception among a significant portion of the respondents (both DCHA/FFP and partners) that there was a lack of understanding of what exactly gender meant, in a very basic sense and in the context of food security. Gender integration in DCHA/FFP programs is seen as generally weak and in most cases utilizes the WID approach rather than the gender and development approach. The most common “gender approach” is focused on the numbers of women whose practical needs are met, primarily focused on maternal child health and nutrition (MCHN) and secondarily on education. As one informant wrote, “There is still a misunderstanding that if a program focuses on women beneficiaries, [it is] addressing gender.” There is seen to be a significant gap in the practical application of gender theory in program planning and implementation. DCHA/FFP food security activities are implemented in a range of sectors: MCHN, agriculture, natural resource management, infrastructure, livelihoods, education, health, disaster preparedness and disaster risk management. Comprehensive strategies for gender integration within these sectors, and across the sectors (i.e., creating a multiplier effect), are largely absent in Title II programming. Some PVO respondents felt that, in the past, there was no real incentive to invest in gender (staff and resources) as DCHA/FFP didn’t take it seriously, “If you don’t do [gender], [DCHA/FFP] won’t turn you down; they don’t think it is critical.”

The distinction between donor agency and implementing agency is important to note in establishing gender mainstreaming in DCHA/FFP operations. Respondents recognized a partnership between DCHA/FFP and grantees, or awardees, with different but complementary roles. PVO respondents also pointed to the multiplicity of funding sources and the different reporting requirements that implementers receive from other U.S. government agencies, multilateral and bilateral institutions, and their own private sources, in addition to DCHA/FFP obligations. They felt that greater coordination was needed among offices within USAID particularly, as well as with other U.S. government agencies and outside donors.

Echoing experiences of other organizations with gender mainstreaming, four main themes emerged from the consultation process that respondents considered essential to ensure the success of gender integration in DCHA/FFP programs to improve overall results on food security:

1. Strong, consistent, and sustained DCHA/FFP leadership
2. Strengthened and explicit gender requirements
3. Capacity development and technical assistance
4. Opportunities and flexibility for innovative programming

3.3 SPECIFIC FINDINGS

3.3.1 Strong, Consistent, and Sustained DCHA/FFP Leadership

Consensus among those consulted was that strong, consistent, and sustained leadership from DCHA/FFP on gender mainstreaming was essential. Most stakeholders felt that DCHA/FFP needed to play a more proactive role in explicitly outlining gender requirements in all stages of program development and implementation. That is, gender should be seen as more than an “**add-on**,” satisfied by a paragraph or two promising sex disaggregation and the “**standard gender statement**.” A comprehensive gender strategy was considered to be essential, although there were differences in opinion as to the approach. Some felt that a gender strategy should be included as part of the application, in response to specific gender issues identified by DCHA/FFP in country-specific guidelines or in country gender assessments and gender-integrated FSCFs. Others felt that a gender strategy should be developed within the first year of operations after a gender assessment of the specific project areas was completed. One informant suggested that, at a minimum, a “do no harm” strategy on gender equality should be mandatory. PVO representatives also felt that space limitations in the application format limited their ability to outline an effective strategy; some suggested an annex on gender with guidelines from DCHA/FFP as to what a strategy should/could contain, while others felt an annex would continue the marginalization of gender. Several respondents pointed out that staff with expertise on gender in food security was largely absent within DCHA/FFP and PVOs and that gender, as a competency, if it was seen as necessary, was most often rolled into the monitoring and evaluation (M&E) function. While gender-integrated M&E is important, gender expertise is critical in the planning and design stages of food security programs.

Both DCHA/FFP staff and IPs welcomed the 2010 Title II guidelines, with their enhanced focus on gender as a clearer articulation of DCHA/FFP expectations on gender integration. Some expressed an optimism that under the current administration the on-again/off-again approach would be abandoned and long-term and sustained policies and practices on gender could be engaged. The specific role of DCHA/FFP, as distinct from that of implementing agencies, is important to recognize; as one IP representative stated, “When they talk, we listen.” Another IP representative stated that although he had a gender advisor on staff for more than 3 years, 2010 was the first time the advisor had been part of the non-emergency program application development team, a result of the new DCHA/FFP gender guidelines. The development of gender-integrated non-emergency 2010 FSCFs was also seen as a step forward. As one informant said, “When [gender] is all over the guidelines—and the [food security] framework—less advocacy is required within the organization.”

The review of the 2010 Title II applications revealed an increase in the gender issues highlighted in the FSCFs and an emphasis on these issues in the strategic planning of some PVOs. Although some

applications included an annex with an **explicit** gender strategy, the most common “gender approach” remained **implicit**, focused on the numbers of women whose practical gender needs would be met. The majority of applications had at least minimal coverage of gender issues, but more detailed analysis and discussion is necessary for effective programming. Gender analysis and implementation strategies were minimal across sectors or strategic objectives, and, in many cases, gender analysis was to be conducted after program start-up, anytime from Year 1 to Year 3. There still seems to be some confusion or lack of understanding of the distinction between “sex” and “gender,” e.g., in data collection, and limited understanding of how addressing gender can affect outcomes. Male involvement in gender issues, if included, is still generally focused on MCHN and social and behavior change communication approaches, but there is limited explanation or analysis of how this will contribute to gender equality or to have a positive impact on food security outcomes. Specific gender activities generally focused on sensitization and M&E strategies and usually evidenced little or no gender integration. Including gender indicators and gender trigger indicators and monitoring for negative gender impacts need to be significantly improved in future applications. Although the new guidelines required the identification of gender expertise in key personnel, this was actually done in only a few cases and in most of the proposed management or organizational structures gender expertise was largely absent. Nevertheless, the advances made in the 2010 applications is a good beginning, and it is important to recognize that the process of gender integration will take time, experience, sustained effort, and the continued leadership of DCHA/FFP.

Effective gender integration in DCHA/FFP operations must be supported by a gender-aware organizational structure and culture. As one informant stated, “In organizations where we see strong leadership support to integrate and ‘mainstream’ gender into the programming, successes are measurable and have ‘impact.’” In response to the Mission survey question, “Does DCHA/FFP/W provide adequate guidance and information on gender integration in Title II programming,” only 36 percent of the respondents felt it was adequate. Twenty-nine percent of respondents reported institutional support for gender integration through the presence of a Mission gender strategy or action plan, an Interagency Gender Working Group (IGWG), or a gender committee. Management leadership is essential to create opportunities to strengthen formal and informal avenues for learning and guidance on gender and to create a gender-aware organizational culture.

3.3.2 Strengthened and Explicit Gender Requirements

Most stakeholders felt that, beyond broad policy guidelines, there is a need to strengthen gender integration in all DCHA/FFP requirements—M&E and indicators, reporting mechanisms (annual reports, evaluations, checklists, site visit reporting, documentation and dissemination of results, etc.)—and a need to improve gender and gender-integrated technical assistance to Missions and IPs. The specific role of DCHA/FFP, as distinct from that of IPs, is important to recognize. As one representative stated, “Our programs are donor-driven. I have a hard time convincing my colleagues that gender is important if we don’t have to report on it.” Significant work on gender and its interaction with food security currently undertaken by implementers generally remains field-level information only, due to a lack of explicit reporting requirements on gender.

Eighty percent of Mission survey respondents stated that gender was not integrated into the Title II training they received.

To date there has been no general evaluation or review of gender impact in Title II programs, and specific reporting and evaluation on gender is not included in reporting requirements for individual emergency or non-emergency programs. Assessment of program results with respect to addressing gender constraints and gaps and their relationship to food security is hindered by the absence of gender integration in M&E strategies, including gender indicators and explicit gender reporting requirements. There was general agreement among informants that the current system of M&E provided only numbers disaggregated by sex and indicators that did not measure changes/improvements in gender roles and relations.

DCHA/FFP has a number of mechanisms for reporting and evaluation that have evolved over time to assess the impact of Title II programming, using a range of staff, including USAID backstop officers and Mission staff, DCHA/FFP officers in the field, IPs, contractors, and FANTA-2 staff. DCHA/FFP does not have its own integrated M&E guidelines, since it is working within USAID structures and currently relies on the newly reestablished (2008) USAID Center for Development Information and Evaluation (GAO 2009) for overall guidance. The prospect for effective and comprehensive evaluation of gender impact within USAID and DCHA/FFP programs is limited, as the jointly developed U.S. Department of State/USAID “Evaluation Guidelines for Foreign Assistance” and “Evaluation Standards” (March 2009) include only a reference to “Gender Mix and Gender Analysis,” referring to the need for representation on evaluation teams and the capacity to undertake gender analysis and data disaggregation by sex if and when necessary. The additional resources on evaluation have very limited or no integration of gender issues or gender methodology and frameworks.¹⁶

3.3.3 Capacity Development and Technical Assistance

Gender mainstreaming in many institutions operates under the assumption that simply being male or female (perhaps combined with a 1-hour session on gender as part of a 3-day training covering many other topics) offers the insight and competence to plan, implement, and/or oversee gender-integrated programs in complex and largely unfamiliar contexts. Gender mainstreaming in practice is often reduced to a women’s program within an institutional culture that treats gender and women’s rights as “soft” issues, requiring no particular expertise. As one informant stated, “We need to accept gender as a technical competency ... not just something anyone can do.”

Without capacity development on gender, gender mainstreaming will not lead to the transformation of gender inequalities that exacerbate food insecurity, poverty, and underdevelopment.

Without capacity development on gender, gender mainstreaming will not lead to the transformation of gender inequalities that exacerbate food insecurity, poverty, and underdevelopment. Many of those consulted expressed the need for more resources and opportunities for skills development on gender and food security that would enable them to operate more effectively. Capacity development needed to go beyond simple awareness. “Technical staff needs to have a better understanding of the role gender relations play in program activities. There should be a clear understanding of what the gender objectives are in a given program, as well as how these

¹⁶ https://communities.usaidallnet.gov/fa/system/files/FA+Evaluation+Guidelines_March+25_09.pdf and https://communities.usaidallnet.gov/fa/system/files/FA+Evaluation+Standards_March+25_09.pdf, respectively.

objectives are to be met.” The good news is that 60 percent of Mission staff surveyed had received some sort of gender training, although most was outside of USAID or DCHA/FFP. Only 20 percent of those surveyed at the Mission level stated that the Title II training they received was gender integrated, slightly more than 50 percent had confidence to integrate gender in their work, and less than 50 percent had confidence to advise others on gender integration. More than 70 percent of Mission staff expressed the need for additional training and resources on the impact of gender on development and humanitarian issues, and more than 80 percent of surveyed Mission staff indicated the need for training and resources on commonly used tools and techniques for integrating gender in evaluations and developing gender-sensitive indicators. Beyond the options offered in the survey, other needs were also expressed by Mission staff, including a directory or list of individual and organizational gender and food security specialists and success stories of gender integration in DCHA/FFP programs.

Stakeholders expressed much concern about the constructive engagement of males in gender issues in the food security sector. Respondents felt that involving men in the renegotiation of gender relations and in the dismantling of rigid concepts of femininity and masculinity is important to ensure sustainability of the necessary efforts to improve women’s status as part of a food security strategy and sustainability of outcomes. Just as it is important to engage men in programs that target women as beneficiaries (e.g., MCHN or income-generating projects), it is also important to engage women in initiatives targeting male attitude and behavior change, both at the planning stage and especially in M&E. The perception was that gender-equity strategies targeting boys and men should be approached more systematically with more objective measurement of outcomes or impact than self-reporting and anecdotal information.

Interviewed representatives stated that building capacity on gender issues is a major issue. Few PVOs had gender experts within their organizations and many respondents pointed out that they operate with many in-country staff “living in a culture of gender bias.” Interviewees said that increased funding for capacity building is critical to capacity development, as is signaling the importance of gender to country offices. Continuation of such programs as the new Technical and Operational Performance Support (TOPS) and other forms of institutional capacity building were highlighted as ways that DCHA/FFP could encourage and support gender capacity development. As one respondent said, “FFP should not just expect IPs to leverage different funding resources.”

The consultation process also elicited the need for DCHA/FFP to develop technical guides on gender and food security, and to come up with important fundamentals to address gender inequalities, tools for collecting and analyzing data, case studies of positive ways to address gender, and trigger indicators. “Tools would clearly help PVOs know what the expectations are with respect to gender integration.” There were several suggestions that Technical Reference Materials could be focused on gender. Operations research, such as the research undertaken in the development of the Preventing Malnutrition in Children under 2 Approach (PM2A), could offer several models of good practice in gender-integrated food security (and its technical sectors) adaptable to varying contexts. Strong connections between gender and food security could be evidenced through DCHA/FFP-sponsored research. “Connections made overtly by donors are hugely important.”

ADDITIONAL RESOURCES AND/OR TRAINING RECOMMENDED BY MISSION SURVEY RESPONDENTS

• Gender Integration in Food Security Planning and Implementation	86%
• Gender Integration in Food Security Evaluation and Gender Indicators	86%
• Impact of Gender on Development Issues	79%
• Impact of Gender on Humanitarian Issues	79%
• How to Conduct a Gender Audit	79%
• USAID Policy, ADS, and DCHA/FFP Gender Requirements	71%
• Definitions of Gender and Related Concepts	43%

3.3.4 Opportunities and Flexibility for Innovative Programming

To date, much of the gender programming is seen by stakeholders as formulaic and predictable, at best accommodating gender norms, rather than focusing on efforts to transform gender inequality. The “nurturing” role of women remains the defining factor for women’s involvement in food security, although the parameters are expanded to include the environment, natural resource management, and peace and security—adding burdens and responsibilities to already overburdened women, who ultimately do not have the actual power to achieve these objectives. “Gender is talking about power... this can be challenging and we need to come up with innovative, creative and effective programming when it comes to power. Human rights are the key.” Although it seems to contradict the stated need for explicit gender requirements and guidelines, many respondents expressed the need for greater flexibility and funding for innovative programming. Some expressed this in terms of the flexibility to focus on women’s empowerment and social development activities. Opportunities and funding for operations research was seen as an avenue for accelerating gender integration and increased impact on food security.

More research and practice on the involvement of men in gender equality and food security was also seen as important, as many felt that male involvement in some sectors was merely add-on, rather than substantive and transformative. Models of male involvement with direct relationship to food security and its technical sectors needed to be carefully planned and implemented with women and with specific gender-equality indicators, rather than anecdotal or testimonial reporting.

4. DISCUSSION

4.1 HOW TO INTEGRATE GENDER IN FOOD SECURITY PROGRAMS

The findings outlined above suggest the expectations among most stakeholders of greater DCHA/FFP leadership and a clearer articulation by DCHA/FFP on how to integrate gender in Title II programs. DCHA/FFP direction, accompanied by specific gender requirements for program implementation, careful M&E, capacity development and technical assistance, and innovative programming, are the keys to successful gender-integrated food security programming with sustainable results. Underlying these recommendations, however, is the necessity for a consensus on a common approach and a common vocabulary on what is meant by gender integration and gender mainstreaming in the food security context. ADS requirements and definitions provide some guidance, but DCHA/FFP needs to adapt this to the language of food security, to provide relevant examples, and to suggest a framework for analysis of gender issues in food security. This section proposes a framework that incorporates the elements needed to integrate gender into food security programs and the aspects that are critical to gender mainstreaming

To ensure sustainable food security, it is necessary to address both *practical* gender needs (inadequacies in immediate necessities, such as access to water, health care, and employment) and *strategic* gender needs (structural and social changes that challenge women's subordinate position in society and that will lead to improved food security). For example, addressing practical gender needs in Title II programming includes maternal health and nutrition programming that addresses the need of pregnant women for increased caloric intake, tetanus immunization, and iron supplementation. Addressing strategic gender needs includes tackling the issue of domestic violence that puts pregnant women at risk by husbands, communities, and authorities that believe that men have the right to "discipline" their wives. Much Title II programming remains focused on meeting the practical gender needs of women, that is, taking a WID approach, rather than addressing gender disparities in strategic areas that would lead to gender equality and more sustainable food security results. This section begins with a discussion of gender mainstreaming, the principle of equal participation in the context of food security, and an explanation in the context of food security of the USAID Continuum of Gender Approaches. After laying this groundwork, a framework for mainstreaming gender in food security programs is presented.

4.1.1 Gender Mainstreaming

Gender mainstreaming is not a goal in itself, but a strategy to achieve gender equality. It is based on the recognition that the particular needs of and disparities among women and men, girls and boys may adversely affect the goal of gender equality, but also other goals, such as improved food security. Gender mainstreaming as a strategy is aimed at both an organization itself and the work the organization is undertaking. Gender-focused initiatives and promoting the equal participation of women and men, boys and girls in food security programming are essential components of gender mainstreaming.

Gender Awareness Initiatives

Gender initiatives in the food security sector focus on enhancing the sector’s awareness of and response to the different experiences, needs, and roles of women, men, girls, and boys.

Examples

- Integrating gender issues into core training for agricultural extension workers
- Including a gender expert as part of an assessment or evaluation team
- Initiating a gender budget analysis of food security expenditures to ensure that funds are equitably allocated
- Supporting and monitoring a code of conduct for staff and partners that explicitly prohibits and sanctions SEA and GBV

GENDER MAINSTREAMING

The process of assessing the implications for women, men, boys, and girls of any planned action, policies, or programs, in all areas and at all levels to ensure that both women’s and men’s concerns and experiences are an integral dimension of the design, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation of policies and programs in all political, economic, and societal spheres—with the goal of achieving gender equality.

Group-Specific Initiatives

Women-, men-, boy-, and girl-specific initiatives in the food security sector are designed to deal with the particular needs of each group that are the result of gender inequalities and barriers to achieving food security.

Examples

- Food for education programs that target enrollment and retention of girls in contexts of significant female school under-enrollment
- Assessments to establish risk mitigation strategies on security risks for women and girls in the collection of food, water, and firewood
- Awareness training for males on issues in maternal health and family planning
- Training of female facilitators on conservation farming to reach out to female farmers and women’s farmer groups

Equal Participation

Equal participation of women and men recognizes men’s and women’s rights to participate in decision-making on food security and in society generally. It recognizes that gender barriers may require equitable, targeted approaches to ensure equality of participation and ultimately equality in outcomes. Gender balance is also an element of equal participation. This is often expressed in the need to increase representation of women in sectors that are male dominated and vice versa. For example, an increase in the number

CAUTION

Being a woman does not necessarily make one a “gender expert” and increasing the number of women does not guarantee gender integration in programs. However, in many cases, having both female and male personnel is an operational necessity, and a gender balance increases the possibilities for identifying and addressing gender differential impacts of policy and programming.

—Vasalek 2008

of female extension workers should lead to a greater participation of women in agricultural programs. However, an increase in numbers of female extension workers, or conversely an increase in the number of men as health visitors, does not necessarily lead to gender equality or improved food security in the absence of complementary gender equity strategies.

Examples

- Reviewing a scope of work for policy and program positions to ensure that they are not discriminatory
- Including separate focus groups for women and girls, men and boys in food security assessments and evaluations
- Supporting local disaster risk management committees that include representatives from women's organizations or women representatives
- Developing gender-responsive and family friendly human resources policies within country-level operations to increase the recruitment and retention of female staff

Continuum of Gender Approaches

Program planning and implementation in gender-integrated food security, both development and humanitarian, fall into a continuum of gender approaches. Strategies that ignore gender inequalities in pursuit of project objectives frequently exacerbate gender disparities or even create new inequalities, which might (and often do) have a detrimental effect on HH food security. **Figure 3** defines and elaborates on the various gender approaches in project implementation.

4.1.2 A Framework for Gender Mainstreaming in Title II Programs

As discussed above, there are a number of complex, interrelated issues regarding gender and food security, some cross-cutting and some specific to availability, access, utilization, and the various technical sectors thereof. Addressing gender inequalities and the consequent constraints are critical to improved food security and ultimately to gender equality. This section presents a framework to form a basis for addressing the practical and strategic gender disparities that create constraints and barriers to effective implementation of food security programs. **Figure 4** and **Table 3** work together to illustrate how to identify the relevant gender issues, which will affect program delivery, and how to implement a gender-integrated program.

Mapping Gender Relations and Roles in Food Security and Its Technical Sectors

Ideally, mapping the relations and roles of gender into food security should be done at the application stage, but if this is not possible, it should be part of the baseline study and development of a gender strategy in the first year of operation of Title II programs. Gender equality commitments, however, should be made at the application stage. There are two primary methods of gathering information to map gender relations and roles in project communities. The first is to utilize all official sources to collect data and statistical information on a national basis and information that is available specific to the geographic location where the intervention is to take place. The second source of information is from project participants, equally and equitably represented. **Table 3** outlines some of the questions that should be asked to accurately map out gender relations.

FIGURE 3. CONTINUUM OF GENDER APPROACHES



EXPLOITATIVE	ACCOMMODATING	TRANSFORMATIVE
<p>Definition: Gender exploitative approaches take advantage of rigid gender norms and existing imbalances in power to achieve program objectives. May seem expeditious in the short run, it is unlikely to be sustainable and can, in the long run, result in harmful consequences and undermine the program’s intended objective. It is an unacceptable approach for integrating gender.</p> <p>Example: A Cash for Work program paid men to build a road for market access. Women from the community provided food for the men and the supervising staff, but were not paid. The women were “volunteers”—the community contribution to the project.</p> <p>Outcome: The project was deemed a success as the road was completed and provided increased access to markets. However, in gender equality terms, gender stereotypes were reinforced as women’s work was devalued. In addition, there were negative outcomes as women had less time for HH food production, risking increased food insecurity. Special measures were not considered to ensure that the new (men’s) income would support the HH economy, and reports were received of increasing HH tensions and a rise in the incidence and severity of domestic violence.</p>	<p>Definition: Gender accommodating approaches acknowledge the role of gender norms and inequities and seek to develop actions that adjust to and often compensate for them. Such projects do not actively seek to change the norms and inequities, but they strive to limit any harmful impact on gender relations. May be considered a missed opportunity because it does not address underlying structures and norms that perpetuate gender inequities. However, in situations where gender inequities are deeply entrenched and pervasive in a society, these approaches often provide a sensible first step to gender integration. As unequal power dynamics and rigid gender norms are recognized and addressed through programs, a gradual shift towards challenging such inequities may take place.</p> <p>Example: Women anti-FGM activists in Somaliland and Puntland encountered much resistance from men who saw FGM as essential to ensure the sexual purity of their daughters before marriage. The activists changed strategy and turned to traditional male leaders. Explaining the devastating effect it had on girls and women’s health, activists encouraged debate as to whether the practice was cultural or religious.</p> <p>Outcome: The men appreciated that their authority was recognized, whereas previously they had felt insulted and aggrieved. Through the debates, a number of religious leaders concluded that FGM was not required by Islam and began to council against it in the mosques. The subordination of women to men continued, but the objective was achieved: the number of girls undergoing severe FGM was reduced.</p>	<p>Definition: Gender transformative approaches actively strive to examine, question, and change rigid gender norms and imbalance of power <i>as a means</i> of reaching development objectives. Gender transformative approaches encourage critical awareness among men and women of gender roles and norms; promote the position of women; challenge the distribution of resources and allocation of duties between men and women; and/or address the power relationships between women and others in the community.</p> <p>Example: A civil society component supporting food security focused on achieving land use rights for women farmers in a context where women traditionally and legally had no right to co-ownership with husbands.</p> <p>Outcome: The project was deemed a success because reform of the land law resulted in the joint ownership of land use certificates, with both wife’s and husband’s name registered. Women were now able to access credit using land as collateral. Without the fear of losing their land due to divorce or inheritance practices, women had greater incentive to invest in agricultural production on their land, thus ensuring increased food security.</p>

Identifying Gender-Based Constraints and Gender Equality Objectives Needed to Strengthen Program Results

Having mapped out the gender relations and roles, the next stage is to identify cross-cutting and specific gender inequalities and to assess the linkages between these and the technical sectors, and the implications for successfully achieving project goals. What practical and strategic gender needs should be focused on? What gender equality goals would help achieve or improve food security results and impacts?

Identifying Gender Equity Strategies to Address Constraints and Achieve Program Results

Having identified the gender constraints, it is important now to identify the opportunities and entry points for addressing these constraints. Are there existing organizations at the grassroots level already working on gender equality, and, if so, would they be useful to the project goals? What is the host country approach to gender equality, or that of the various ministries that may be partners? What approaches or methodologies will be used? It is important to recognize that not all gender issues can be tackled at once, or that solving a single constraint may be too complex to eradicate within a single program cycle. Ensure that the gender equality goals are realistic and achievable.

Implementing a Gender-Integrated Program

Gender equality commitments or objectives made during the application stage may need to be adjusted for the implementation phase of the program. If the mapping of gender roles and development of a gender strategy have taken place during the first year of the program, implementation will have already begun and major changes may be needed. Have the necessary resources (human and financial) been built in to allow for this modification? What gender approaches and methodologies need to be changed or added to achieve the gender equality goals that have been formulated? Have staff and partners already received sufficient training and resources to integrate gender in the program?

Monitoring and Evaluating the Results and Impacts of Strategies on Food Security and Gender Equality

A gender-integrated M&E strategy can be developed at the application stage. It is not dependent on specific objectives, but requires an approach and methodology that ensures equal participation, flexibility for program adjustments, and space for the collection of additional data and information. Based on the baseline study and mapping of gender relations and roles, M&E should identify the gender gaps reduced or closed, new opportunities that emerged, and negative impacts that may have occurred. Finally, lessons for both positive and negative results should be documented and disseminated for future learning.

FIGURE 4. THE PROCESS OF INTEGRATING GENDER IN TITLE II PROGRAM PLANNING

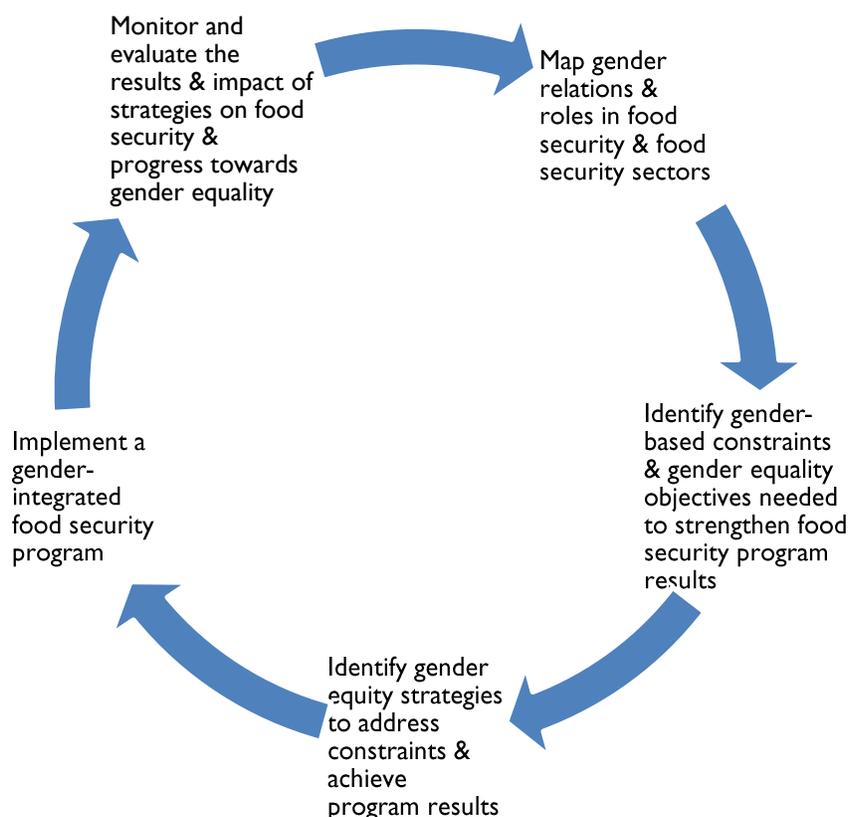


TABLE 3. GENDER-INTEGRATED TITLE II PROGRAM PLANNING (CONTINUED ON NEXT PAGE)

STEP	SOME QUESTIONS TO ASK
Map gender relations and roles in food security technical sectors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How will the stakeholders and different groups of women and men be consulted? • Do representative organizations truly reflect the voices of women and men expected to benefit from the program? If not, what is the strategy for reaching them? • What other information other than disaggregation by sex is needed to understand the issues? • How can data and statistical information be collected by sex, ethnicity, disability, age, religion, and sexual orientation? • What do men and women do (productive roles, reproductive roles, community participation/voluntary work, community decision making)? • Where do they do it (location/patterns of mobility, migration)? • When do they do it (daily, seasonal patterns)? • What livelihood assets/opportunities do men and women have access to: human (health and education); natural (land, natural resources); social (social networks); physical (infrastructure); economic (capital/income, credit)? • What decision-making do men and/or women participate in at the HH and community levels? • What perspectives do they have on appropriate and sustainable ways of addressing their needs?

STEP	SOME QUESTIONS TO ASK
Identify gender-based constraints and gender equality objectives needed to strengthen program results	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● What are the gender-related legal constraints, <i>de jure</i> and <i>de facto</i> (e.g., land rights, marriage and divorce rights, child custody rights, customary laws and traditions) with respect to food security and its technical sectors? ● Are there gender-related inequities at household, community, civil society, and governmental organizations/institutional levels? ● How will gender roles (e.g., workload, time, mobility, child care) influence the ability of women and men to participate equally in the program? ● How will access to and control of resources affect participation by women and men in the program? ● Are services accessed differently and/or inequitably by women and men, girls and boys? Will any difference be affected by ethnicity, age, disability, religion, or sexual orientation (e.g., agricultural extension services, education, health)? ● What do women and men, including gender/women’s civil society organizations or the Ministry of Women/Gender, say about the issues? ● What are women’s and men’s needs and priorities? <i>Practical</i> gender needs—inadequacies in immediate necessities, such as access to water, health care, employment. <i>Strategic</i> gender needs—structural and social changes that challenge women’s subordinate position in society and lead to improved food security.
Identify gender equity strategies to address constraints and achieve program results	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Is the program in line USAID DCHA/FFP gender equality guidelines? With international, regional and national mandates on gender? ● How does the program relate to host-country gender-equality strategies and is a specific message on gender equality included? ● Does the program overcome gender inequalities or eliminate barriers? Are there gender equality objectives? ● How will each activity impact positively or negatively on women & men, or boys & girls? ● What options give women and men a real choice and an opportunity to achieve equality in availability, access and utilization in food security? ● Are separate approaches to women and men necessary? ● Are GBV issues, such as domestic violence, SEA and human trafficking, harmful traditional practices, being addressed? Is prevention included? ● What are the risks? How are expectations or conflicting interests going to be managed? ● Will gender-sensitive language, symbols and examples be used in to encourage equal participation of women and men? ● What messages need to be communicated? How will the messages reach different groups of women and men? How will you communicate with women and men who are non-literate? ● Will constructive strategies for male engagement in progress towards gender equality be used?
Implement a gender-integrated program	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Will the activities be experienced or accessed differently by a woman or man, and will differences be affected by ethnicity, age, disability, religion, or sexual orientation? What arrangements are in place for those who may be excluded? ● Is sex-specific and gender-sensitive language used? ● Are the implementers gender-responsive and aware of specific gender issues? ● Have specific and sufficient resources (financial and human) been allocated to enable the achievement of gender equality goals? ● Are women equally involved in implementation (e.g., PVO and partner staff levels; women in decision making in farmers’ associations, water management committees?) ● Are women’s informal associations, civil society organizations, and the Ministry of Women/Gender structures involved?

STEP	SOME QUESTIONS TO ASK
<p>Monitor and evaluate the results and impact of strategies on food security and progress toward gender equality</p>	<p><i>Monitoring</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Do female and male beneficiaries participate equally in the monitoring process? ● Do monitoring requirements include a measure for gender equality and does it reveal the extent to which the strategies are successful? ● Are measures in place to initiate a review or change in strategy if the program is not delivering on the equality objective or if new constraints or opportunities emerge? ● Is there a need for additional data collection and do targets and indicators need adjusting in light of experience? <p><i>Evaluation</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Is the program promoting and delivering equality of opportunity for women and men, girls and boys? Have the objectives been met equitably? ● Were the inputs allocated equitably, i.e., according to women and men's, girls' and boys' different needs? ● What was the overall impact on gender equality issues and within each technical sector? <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Were gender gaps reduced or closed? ○ What new opportunities emerged and were they utilized? ○ What negative impacts were addressed or avoided? ● What gender needs and disparities emerged or remained? ● What lessons are there for future food security programs, and how will both positive and negative results be disseminated for learning and/or replication?

5. RECOMMENDATIONS

This section outlines the main recommendations to DCHA/FFP to mainstream gender in its operations. A more detailed matrix of recommendations is found in **Table 4**. The suggested timeframe for initiating these recommendations is separated into “Immediate” (Year 1), “Intermediate” (Years 2 and 3), and “Long-Term” (Years 4 and beyond). Although this report might recommend beginning an action in Year 1, for example, it might not be completed in the same year and might extend into later years, depending on complexity, connectedness with other initiatives, and perhaps emergent priorities. It is also clear that additional resources, both financial and human, will be necessary to fully mainstream DCHA/FFP gender operations.

Recommendations to DCHA/FFP:

- Provide leadership, policy, and guidelines on gender mainstreaming in its operations
- Ensure that staff has the skills and knowledge to understand the link between gender equality and food security objectives to support, monitor, and evaluate the achievement of results and the impact of work undertaken by IPs
- Offer opportunities, funding, and flexibility for innovative programming by IPs
- Coordinate the documentation and dissemination of resources, exchange of information and community practice, and evidence and results of both good and not-so-good approaches to gender integration in food security

Recommendations to Implementing Partners:

- Commit to gender equality and gender policies within their organizations
- Assess and if necessary strengthen their capacity for gender mainstreaming; ensure that their assessment, reporting, and M&E procedures are gender integrated
- Seek out opportunities to strengthen staff gender knowledge and skills
- Be willing to risk going beyond traditional programming and undertake innovative approaches in gender equity strategies in food security
- Document and disseminate results
- Challenge DCHA/FFP to learn from IP experiences

5.1 SPECIFIC RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1.1 Recommendations for Strong, Consistent, and Sustained DCHA/FFP Leadership

Both DCHA/FFP staff and IPs recognized that DCHA/FFP leadership is critical to gender mainstreaming Title II programming. To ensure leadership is strong, consistent, and sustained, DCHA/FFP should do the following.

Immediate:

- Develop a gender mainstreaming action plan as an immediate priority. The action plan should include an explicit commitment to the USAID gender equality goal.

- Harmonize Title II policy and guidelines with ADS requirements and definitions to ensure consistency in USAID approaches to gender (see Annex).
- Identify gender as a threshold issue in the award of Title II programs with clearly defined expectations at the application stage; with an increasing level of expectation on competency and innovation as DCHA/FFP and partners gain capacity and experience in the years to come.
- Require that senior managers at headquarters, Regional Bureaus, and Missions provide leadership and have primary responsibility for and be held accountable to ensure gender mainstreaming in DCHA/FFP operations.
- Develop a checklist of minimum requirements for Technical Evaluation Committees to assess gender integration in Title II applications. This checklist should be revised as new requirements are phased in according to the gender mainstreaming process.
- Develop guidelines for evaluating gender institutional capacity, experience, and accountability mechanisms in Awardee selection. These guidelines should also include similar guidelines for Awardees on selection of their consortium partners and subcontractors.
- Establish a dedicated webpage on gender within the DCHA/FFP website, to readily make available DCHA/FFP and USAID requirements on gender integration in Title II programs.

Intermediate:

- Seek opportunities for coordination and collaboration on gender integration strategies and key common gender-sensitive indicators (e.g., decision making, GBV) in USAID and U.S. government food security programs and programs related to Title II technical sectors.¹⁷
- Seek increased cooperation with other donors and agencies on gendered food security policies, practices, and selection of specific common objectives and indicators that can be analyzed on a more global or regional basis for program outcomes and impacts.

Long-Term:

- Develop mechanisms to track annual and overall expenditure on the basis of percent of budget earmarked for gender capacity development and activities related to addressing gender inequity in Title II programs vs. actual expenditure.¹⁸
- Require the continuation of awards, new awards, or subcontracts to be contingent on satisfactory performance on gender integration or adequate explanation of unsatisfactory, or lack of, performance.

¹⁷For example, the 2007 Title II and PEPFAR HIV and Food Security Conceptual Framework should be updated to reflect gender integration in the 2009 Guidance for PEPFAR Partnership Frameworks and Partnership Framework Implementation Plans and the 2009 PEPFAR Next Generation Indicators Reference Guide.

¹⁸Reporting an exact dollar amount of U.S. foreign assistance that is directly invested for gender remains a challenge within the Agency. The current reporting system does not generate sufficiently reliable information due to either the double-counting of some programs or the range in ability of reporting offices and field Missions to accurately pro-rate the amount of gender-related funding in any given project. The system does not take into account the complexities that arise in quantifying funding for gender. For example, using the number of women and girls targeted in a project is not necessarily a meaningful indicator of gender integration. Women and girls may all receive services or be targeted in development sectors (e.g., health, education, economic growth), but that does not automatically mean that gender inequalities are being addressed in a systemic, transformative, and sustainable manner. The current reporting system could be strengthened by having more detailed guidance for each technical sector that would help staff be more accurate and complete in their reporting. Once the reporting system is improved, the Agency needs to explore better mechanisms to evaluate the data and ensure that any resulting analysis is used to improve programming design or address shortcomings. In addition, concerted efforts are needed to develop appropriate indicators to monitor and evaluate the effectiveness of programs in all sectors that aim to improve women's and girls' well-being. USAID 2009b, 31.

5.1.2 Recommendations for Strengthened and Explicit Gender Requirements

The absence of gender indicators and explicit gender reporting requirements is not only compromising the effectiveness of reporting on program outcomes and impact but is also compromising the planning and implementation of gender-integrated food security programming that would lead to improved and cost-effective results. “I have a hard time convincing my colleagues that gender is important if we don’t have to report on it,” one interviewee reported.

Immediate:

- Develop a comprehensive framework or guidelines specific to gender and food security for effective M&E of Title II programming.
- Integrate gender into the existing reporting mechanisms (annual reports, evaluations, checklists, site visit reporting, documentation and dissemination of results, etc.).
- Ensure the collection, analysis, and reporting of all individual-level data disaggregated by sex as a primary and overall characteristic. Sex disaggregation should be incorporated into all other disaggregation: age, rural/urban location, ethnicity, youth, children, elderly,¹⁹ etc.
- Undertake, and require implementers to undertake, gender analysis in all levels of operation: planning and implementing, M&E, reporting, and documentation and dissemination of outcomes and impact.
- Continue the development of DCHA/FFP gender-integrated food security frameworks for all DCHA/FFP focus countries, updated as needed.
- Revise Title II guidelines to require the inclusion of a gender strategy and completion of a gender assessment within 1 year of the commencement of awards, to identify gaps, constraints, and opportunities for implementation activities, and to establish a baseline to measure and evaluate results and impact.

Intermediate:

- Develop common gender indicators for technical sectors; with a single crosscutting gender indicator based on meeting strategic gender needs, in collaboration with stakeholders.
- Collaborate with WFP and other Awardees working in emergency programs on the development of common gender equality indicators in emergency programming.
- Require Title II Awardees to monitor and report on results in reducing gender disparities, enhancing women’s empowerment, and making positive changes in gender discriminatory male norms and practices. DCHA/FFP should include the results in its own reporting.
- Require Awardees to track and report on changes in gender norms, roles, and related factors that positively or negatively affect project implementation and results. Requirements should include:
 - If negative, report on revised strategies or measures to mitigate or reduce negative impacts.
 - If positive, report on opportunities for further progress on gender equality or for replication of successes.

¹⁹ Although USAID policy requires the collection and analysis of sex-disaggregated data for individual-level indicators and targets, reports frequently do not reflect this requirement. For instance, if the target group is youth, sex-disaggregated data are essential to evaluate potential differential or gender-inequitable impacts on males and females.

- Report any new gender constraints or opportunities (unintended consequences).
- To facilitate learning on gender and food security, information management, and communication, the following are recommended:
 - Expand DCHA/FFP's dedicated gender webpage (see above) to disseminate gender-related food security information, resources, reports, research, and other documents and links.
 - Document and disseminate information on gender-integrated and gender equality program successes, including yearly Gender Fact Sheets, and ensure that gender issues are reflected in all DCHA/FFP reports, outreach activities, and products.
 - Strengthen field practitioner interchange through an internal DCHA/FFP discussion board and the formation of an IGWG on Food Security.
 - Advocate for Regional Bureaus and Missions to establish a webpage on gender within their websites (where they have not already been established) with specific regional and country-related information, reports, documents, and links (see, for example, the website of the Mission in Bangladesh).

Long-Term:

- Identify a specific gender issue in Title II programs for M&E (e.g., decision making, GBV, time poverty). This issue would be common to all Title II programs during a specific award year, but in addition to other gender issues Awardees identify as important to the success of their programs. It is recommended that different specific issues be identified in different award years.
- Monitor and report on SEA and GBV.

5.1.3 Recommendations for Capacity Development and Technical Assistance

There was consensus amongst most interviewees on the value of gender-integrated responses and the necessity for gender analysis and progress toward gender equality as essential to development and humanitarian food security crises. However, both DCHA/FFP and partner staff stressed the need for gender technical assistance and capacity development, led and supported by DCHA/FFP. IPs also recognized that they needed to do more as well.

Immediate:

- Develop and begin implementation of a comprehensive plan to strengthen staff competencies on gender integration in food security and its associated technical sectors.
- Ensure all Title II training for DCHA/FFP staff and information sessions for partners on Title II is gender mainstreamed. That is, all sessions should be gender integrated alongside a specific session dedicated to gender issues on the specific focus of the training. DCHA/FFP should also hold Awardees accountable for the same.
- Develop a Senior Management Capacity Development Program to strengthen senior managers capacity as leaders in gender mainstreaming in DCHA/FFP operations.

Intermediate:

- Earmark funds for capacity development on gender integration in food security and its technical sectors for awardees similar to the TOPS and Institutional Capacity Building (ICB) programs.
- Develop a series of technical resources and guidance for implementers and procedural guidance for DCHA/FFP and USAID staff on gender integration, such as:
 - Quality standards for gender-integrated research methods, data collection, and documentation
 - Evidence-based guidelines for strategies to meet gender-specific food security needs based on availability, access, and utilization, within and across technical sectors
 - Guidelines for engaging men constructively in gender equity strategies in food security

5.1.4 Recommendations on Opportunities and Flexibility for Innovative Programming

IPs saw innovative and flexible programming as crucial to break through formulaic programming that does not challenge gender inequities in food security and its technical sectors.

Intermediate:

- Provide specialized funding to partners, based on competitive application, for innovative programming and/or operations research on gender and food security—Action Learning—to provide models for good practice.
- Provide specialized funding to partners, based on competitive processes, for pilot programs within food security technical sectors that utilize “empowerment of women” models.
- Provide specialized funding to partners based on competitive processes, to establish pilot programs to engage males constructively in gender equity strategies in food security technical sectors.

Long-Term:

- Develop evidence-based guidelines based on innovative programs and operations research undertaken by IPs.
- Develop evidence-based guidelines on empowerment of women as a means to strengthen food security outcomes and impact.
- Develop evidence-based guidelines on impact of constructive engagement of males in gender equity strategies in food security.

TABLE 4. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR GENDER MAINSTREAMING IN FOOD FOR PEACE OPERATIONS

IMMEDIATE (YEAR 1)	INTERMEDIATE (YEARS 2-3)	LONG-TERM (YEARS 4-5 AND ONGOING)
Strong, Consistent, and Sustained DCHA/FFP Leadership		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Develop a gender mainstreaming (GM) action plan. The plan should include an explicit commitment to the USAID gender equality goal. • Harmonize Title II policy and guidelines with ADS requirements and definitions to ensure consistency in USAID approaches to gender • Identify gender as a threshold issue in the award of Title II programs; with an increasing level of expectation on competency and innovation as DCHA/FFP and IP gain capacity and experience in the years to come. • Require Senior Managers at HQ, Regional Bureaus and Missions to provide leadership, have primary responsibility for, and be held accountable to ensure gender mainstreaming in DCHA/FFP operations. • Develop a checklist of minimum requirements for Technical Evaluation Committees to assess gender integration in Title II applications. This checklist should be revised as new requirements are phased in according to the gender mainstreaming process. • Establish a dedicated webpage on gender within the DCHA/FFP website, to make readily available DCHA/FFP and USAID requirements on gender integration in Title II programs. • Develop gender guidelines for IP selection and IP accountability mechanisms. These guidelines should also include guidelines for Awardees on selection of consortium partners and sub-contractors. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Finalize and implement the DCHA/FFP GM Plan, with clear benchmarks and gender equality indicators and outcomes. • Seek opportunities for coordination and collaboration on gender integration strategies, and key common gender-sensitive indicators in USAID and U.S. Government food security programs and programs related to Title II technical sectors.²⁰ In particular, collaboration with USAID Bureau of Food Security is essential. • Seek increased cooperation with other donors and agencies on gendered food security policies, practices and selection of specific common objectives and indicators that can be analyzed on a more global or regional basis for program outcomes and impacts. • Ensure candidate staff recruitment processes include a requirement/criterion for competence or understanding of gender issues in food security in development and humanitarian situations, corresponding to job description. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Monitor & evaluate the GM Plan, adjusting, revising and re-planning as necessary to achieve desired results. • Update Policy, Guidelines and resources regularly as evidence-based results/impacts are documented. • Gender should continue as a threshold issue, with an increasing level of expectation on competency and innovation as DCHA/FFP and IPs gain capacity and experience • Develop mechanisms to track annual and overall expenditure on % of budget earmarked for gender capacity development and activities related to addressing gender inequity in Title II programs vs. actual expenditure. • Continuation of awards, to be contingent on satisfactory performance on gender integration or adequate explanation of unsatisfactory, or lack of, performance. • Continuation of sub-awards under Title II agreements to be contingent on satisfactory performance on gender integration or adequate explanation of unsatisfactory, or lack of, performance.

²⁰ For example, the 2007 Title II and PEPFAR HIV and Food Security Conceptual Framework should be updated to reflect the gender integration in the 2009 *Guidance for PEPFAR Partnership Frameworks and Partnership Framework Implementation Plans* and the 2009 *PEPFAR Next Generation Indicators Reference Guide*.

IMMEDIATE (YEAR 1)	INTERMEDIATE (YEARS 2-3)	LONG-TERM (YEARS 4-5 AND ONGOING)
Strengthened and Explicit Gender Requirements		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Develop a comprehensive framework or guidelines specific to gender and food security for effective monitoring and evaluation of Title II programming. • Integrate gender into the existing reporting mechanisms (annual reports, evaluations, checklists, site visit reporting, documentation and dissemination of results, etc.). • Require all individual-level data disaggregated by sex as a primary and overall characteristic. Sex disaggregation should be incorporated into all other disaggregation- age group, rural/urban location, ethnicity, youth, children, elderly, disability etc. • Undertake gender analysis in all levels of operation: planning and implementing, monitoring and evaluation, reporting, documentation and dissemination of outcomes and impact. • Continue provision of gender-integrated food security frameworks for all Title II focus countries, updated as needed. • Require the inclusion of a Gender Strategy and completion of a gender assessment within one year of the commencement of awards- identifying gaps, constraints and opportunities for implementation activities and to establish a baseline to measure and evaluate results and impact. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Develop common gender indicators for technical sectors; with a single crosscutting gender indicator based on meeting strategic gender needs through collaboration with stakeholders. Collaborate with WFP and IPs working in emergency programs (SYAPs) should collaborate on the development of common gender equality indicators in emergency programming. • Monitor and report on results in reducing gender disparities, enhancing women’s empowerment and positive changes in gender-discriminatory male norms and practices. • Include at least one gender indicator in the results framework, and at least one gender indicator in technical sectors other than (or in addition to) MCHN and education. • Track and report on changes in gender norms, roles and related factors that positively or negatively impact project implementation and results. Requirements should include: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ If negative, reporting on revised strategies or measures to mitigate or reduce negative impacts; ○ If positive, reporting on opportunities for further progress on gender equality or for replication of successes; ○ Reporting any new gender constraints or opportunities (unintended consequences). • To facilitate learning on gender and food security, information management and communication, the following are recommended: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Expand DCHA/FFP dedicated gender webpage (see above) to disseminate gender-related food security information, resources, reports, research and other documents and links. ○ Document and disseminate information on gender-integrated and gender equality program successes, including yearly Gender Fact Sheets and should ensure gender issues are reflected in all DCHA/FFP reports, outreach activities and products. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identify a specific gender issue in Title II programs for specific monitoring and evaluation. This issue would be common to all Title II programs during a specific award year, but additional to other gender issues awardees identify as important to the success of their program. It is recommended that different specific issues be identified in different award years. • Monitor and report on SEA and GBV.

IMMEDIATE (YEAR 1)	INTERMEDIATE (YEARS 2-3)	LONG-TERM (YEARS 4-5 AND ONGOING)
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Strengthen field practitioner interchange through a DCHA/FFP internal discussion board and the formation of an IGWG on Food Security. ○ Advocate for Regional Bureaus and Missions to establish a webpage on gender within their websites (where they have not already been established) with specific regional and country related information, reports, documents and links 	
Capacity Development and Technical Assistance		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Develop and begin implementation of a comprehensive plan to strengthen staff competencies on gender integration in food security and its associated technical sectors. ● Ensure all Title II training for DCHA/FFP staff and information sessions for partners on Title II is gender mainstreamed. That is, all topics should be gender integrated alongside a specific session dedicated to gender issues on the specific focus of the training. Also hold Awardees accountable for the same. ● Develop a Senior Management Capacity Development Program to strengthen their capacity as leaders in gender mainstreaming in DCHA/FFP operations. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Earmark funds for capacity development on gender integration in food security and its technical sectors for Cooperating Sponsors similar to previous programs such as TOPS and ICB. ● Develop a series of technical resources and guidance for implementers and procedural guidance for DCHA/FFP and USAID staff on gender integration, such as the following: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Quality standards for gender integrated research methods, data collection, and documentation ○ Evidence-based guidelines for strategies to meet gender-specific food security needs based on availability, access and utilization, within and across technical sectors ○ Guidelines for engaging men constructively in gender equity strategies in food security 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Monitor and evaluate the staff development plan with specific benchmarks, and results indicated with reference to improved gender integration in DCHA/FFP operations.
Opportunities for Flexible and Innovative Programming		
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Provide specialized funding to IPs, based on competitive application, for innovative programming and/or operations research on gender and food security- Action Learning- to provide models for good practice. ● Provide specialized funding to IPs, based on competitive processes, for pilot programs within food security technical sectors that utilize empowerment of women models. ● Provide specialized funding to IP, based on competitive processes, to establish pilot programs to engage males constructively in gender equity strategies in food security technical sectors. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Develop evidence-based guidelines based on innovative programs and operations research undertaken by IPs. ● Develop evidence-based guidelines on empowerment of women as a means to strengthen food security outcomes and impact. ● Develop evidence-based guidelines on the constructive engagement of males in gender equity strategies in food security.

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ANNEX. HARMONIZATION OF TITLE II AND ADS

TITLE II PROGRAMS 2010 (10/09)	ADS (11/05/09)	COMMENTS & RECOMMENDATIONS
Revisions to Title II Definitions		
<p>Gender Refers to the social constructs that define men and women’s roles and how they are socialized. Sex refers to the biological difference between men and women.</p>	<p>Gender is a social construct that refers to relations between and among the sexes, based on their relative roles. It encompasses the economic, political, and socio-cultural attributes, constraints, and opportunities associated with being male or female. As a social construct, gender varies across cultures, is dynamic and open to change over time. Because of the variation in gender across cultures and over time, gender roles should not be assumed but investigated. Note that “gender” is not interchangeable with “women” or “sex.” ADS 200</p>	<p>Comment: The ADS definition signals the complexity of Gender, offering the potential for interventions to go beyond practical gender needs to the strategic gender needs that lead to gender equality. Importantly, it also indicates <u>women</u> and sex do not equal gender, a common misunderstanding amongst Title II applicants & awardees.</p> <p>Recommend: Title II should use the ADS definition of Gender.</p>
<p>Gender Equality Refers to women and men being treated the same way. However, equal treatment will not produce equitable results, because women and men have different life experiences.</p>	<p>Gender Equality is a broad concept and a goal for development. It is achieved when men and women have equal rights, freedoms, conditions, and opportunities for realizing their full potential and for contributing to and benefiting from economic, social, cultural, and political development. It means society values men and women equally for their similarities and differences and the diverse roles they play. It signifies the outcomes that result from gender equity strategies and processes. ADS 200</p> <p>USAID strives to promote gender equality, in which both men and women have equal opportunity to benefit from and contribute to economic, social, cultural and political development; enjoy socially valued resources and rewards; and realize their human rights. ADS 201.3.9.3</p>	<p>Comment: USAID in the ADS revisions has stated for that its policy to promote Gender Equality. ADS revisions also recognize that Gender Equity is a strategy and a process, rather than a goal. There is confusion between equity & equality in the Title II definitions and usage, a confusion that is also apparent among applicants and awardees of Title II programs.</p> <p>Recommend: Title II Guidelines should state the Gender Equality goal of USAID (ADS 201.3.9.3) and use the definition of Gender Equality.</p>

TITLE II PROGRAMS 2010 (10/09)	ADS (11/05/09)	COMMENTS & RECOMMENDATIONS
<p>Gender Equity Considers the differences in the lives of both women and men and recognizes that different approaches may be needed to produce equitable outcomes.</p>	<p>Gender Equity is the process of being fair to women and men. To ensure fairness, measures must often be available to compensate for historical and social disadvantages that prevent women and men from otherwise operating on a level playing field. Equity leads to equality. ADS 200</p>	<p>Recommend: Title II should use the ADS definition of Gender Equity.</p>
<p>Sex Refers to the biological difference between men and women.</p>	<p>Sex is a biological construct that defines males and females according to physical characteristics and reproductive capabilities. For monitoring and reporting purposes, USAID disaggregates data by sex, not by gender. ADS 200</p>	<p>Comment: In Title II Sex is included in the definition for Gender.</p> <p>Recommend: Title II should use a separate definition for Sex, using the ADS definition, to provide clarity and reinforcement of the distinction between ‘Gender’ and ‘Sex.’</p>

TITLE II PROGRAMS 2010 (10/09)	ADS (11/05/09)	COMMENTS & RECOMMENDATIONS
<p>Gender Analysis A tool that can be used to assess the differential impact a program has on women, men, boys and girls; and is useful for understanding social processes and for responding with informed and equitable options. Gender analysis challenges the assumption that everyone is affected by program interventions in the same way regardless of gender. Gender analysis aims to achieve gender equity rather than gender equality.</p>	<p>201.3.9.3 MANDATORY. Gender issues are central to the achievement of strategic plans and Assistance Objectives (AO) and USAID strives to promote gender equality, in which both men and women have equal opportunity to benefit from and contribute to economic, social, cultural and political development; enjoy socially valued resources and rewards; and realize their human rights. Accordingly, USAID planning in the development of strategic plans and AOs must take into account gender roles and relationships. Gender analysis can help guide long term planning and ensure desired results are achieved. However, gender is not a separate topic to be analyzed and reported on in isolation. USAID's gender integration approach requires that gender analysis be applied to the range of technical issues that are considered in the development of a given strategic plan, AOs, programs, and activities.</p>	<p>Comment: The ADS does not include a definition of Gender Analysis. It does, however discuss how Gender Analysis is to be used. The Title II 'definition' of Gender Analysis is limited and confuses Gender Equity with Gender Equality. The Guide to Gender Integration and Analysis, EGAT/WID, USAID 2010 includes a good and useful definition of Gender Analysis:</p> <p><i>Gender Analysis examines the different but interdependent roles of men and women and the relations between the sexes. It also involves an examination of the rights and opportunities of men and women, power relations, and access to and control over resources. Gender Analysis identifies disparities, investigates why such disparities exist, determines whether they are detrimental, and if so, looks at how they can be remedied.</i></p> <p>Recommend: Title II should use the Guide to Gender Integration and Analysis, EGAT/WID, USAID 2010 definition of Gender Analysis.</p>

TITLE II PROGRAMS 2010 (10/09)	ADS (11/05/09)	COMMENTS & RECOMMENDATIONS
Revisions to Title II Section I: Background & Purpose		
<p>The Title II Guidance includes an enhanced focus on gender. Specifically, applicants are required to include a gender approach in their proposals, considering the following two questions:</p> <p>1) how will gender relations affect the achievement of sustainable results? and</p> <p>2) how will proposed results affect the relative status of men and women?</p> <p>Please consult USAID Automated Directives System (ADS) 201 for more information on this requirement</p>	<p>201.3.9.3 & 201.3.11.6</p> <p>In order to ensure that USAID assistance makes possible the optimal contribution to gender equality in developing strategic plans, AOs and IRs, Operating Units (OUs) must consider the following two questions:</p> <p>a. How will the different roles and status of women and men within the community, political sphere, workplace, and household (for example, roles in decision making and different access to and control over resources and services) affect the work to be undertaken?</p> <p>b. How will the anticipated results of the work affect women and men differently?</p> <p>The purpose of the first question is to ensure that 1) the differences in the roles and status of women and men are examined, and 2) any inequalities or differences that will impede achieving program or project goals are addressed in the planned work design.</p> <p>The second question calls for another level of analysis in which the anticipated programming results are: 1) fully examined regarding the possible different effects on women and men; and 2) the design is adjusted as necessary to ensure equitable and sustainable program or project impact. ...</p> <p>Addressing these questions involves taking into account not only the different roles of men and women, but also the relationship between and among men and women as well as the broader institutional and social structures that support them.</p>	<p>Recommend:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. This section should include ADS 201.3.9.3 wording to say <i>DCHA/FFP strives to promote gender equality, in which both men and women have equal opportunity to benefit from and contribute to economic, social, cultural and political development; enjoy socially valued resources and rewards; and realize their human rights.</i> 2. Title II should use the ADS wording for the two questions that are required to be answered. 3. The ADS explanation of the two questions should be included in a Gender Strategy Annex of the Guidelines.

TITLE II PROGRAMS 2010 (10/09)	ADS (11/05/09)	COMMENTS & RECOMMENDATIONS
Revisions to Title II Section II: DCHA/FFP Strategic Plan		
<p>Gender Equity: Although the objectives of food aid programs and activities will need to be context-specific, one underlying aspect of food insecurity in all Title II programs that deserves careful consideration is the widely prevalent issue of gender inequity. Gender inequity affects food security through various pathways. For example, access to and rights over land differ between men and women, affecting food production, availability and ultimately food security.</p> <p>Men and women engage in different livelihood activities and often women earn much less than men, limiting women’s food access. Many women are married and bear children during their adolescent years, at a time when they have the least access to resources and decision-making power in the household, which affects food utilization and nutrition outcomes. Gender inequity varies from one host country context to another and therefore affects each dimension of food security in different ways. Understanding gender constraints as they affect food security and integrating gender considerations into food aid programming is essential and a mandatory requirement as noted in ADS 201 to ensure, promote and sustain food security.</p>	<p>See ADS definitions of Gender Equality and Gender Equity above.</p>	<p>Comment: DCHA/FFP food security strategies and FSCFs should ensure clarity between the gender ‘equity’ and gender ‘equality’ and Title II guidelines should also be aware of the distinction. Gender equity is the strategy or process to progress towards gender equality. Throughout the Title II guidelines gender inequity is used when what is meant is gender inequality.</p> <p>The use of inequitable or equitable is less problematic, however, as it refers to situations in which the delivery of services or goods to male and females in equal measure does not lead to equality, but disadvantages one group or the other. For example, in refugee camps, providing an equal number of male and female latrines would result in inequitable service delivery because of women’s responsibility for the toileting needs of younger children... more latrines for females is an equitable solution.</p> <p>Thus, this section should be headed Gender Equality, as gender inequality affects food security... gender inequality varies from one host country to another etc. Women are unequal to men <i>de jure</i> and <i>de facto</i> in many countries.</p> <p>Recommend: Title II guidelines should distinguish clearly between gender equality and gender equity. Gender equality when referring to goals or objectives; gender equity when referring to strategies or processes to redress gender imbalance and progress towards gender equality.</p>

TITLE II PROGRAMS 2010 (10/09)	ADS (11/05/09)	COMMENTS & RECOMMENDATIONS
Revisions to Title II Annex B Non-Emergency Application Evaluation Criteria		
<p>Technical Merit Gender integration in program planning, implementation and assessment; specifically identifying how gender issues will be addressed to reduce food insecurity, in terms of food availability, access, and utilization. Maximization of gender equity in regards to the access and control over resources and benefits, transformation of the enabling environment, the support of women and involvement of men.</p> <p>Implementation, management and logistics Detailed implementation plan (by month) for the first year of the proposed food aid program, including gender analysis and environmental mitigation.</p> <p>Past Performance There is no specific reference to past performance on gender integration.</p>	<p>201.3.11.6 AO Teams must ensure that potential implementers are capable of addressing the gender concerns identified in solicitations. This is done by including performance requirements regarding gender expertise and capacity in the solicitations, tasking offerors and applicants with proposing meaningful approaches to address identified gender issues, and reflecting these performance requirements in technical evaluation and selection criteria (see 302.3.5.15 for more detailed acquisition requirements and 303.3.6 for more detailed assistance requirements).</p> <p>201.3.11.6 When gender issues are fully integrated into a contract Statement of Work or the Program Description for a grant/cooperative agreement, they are an integral part of the evaluation/selection process for any solicitations financed under the project or activity, such as Requests for Proposal (RFPs), Requests for Task Order Proposal (RFTOPs), Requests for Assistance (RFAs), Leader With Associates (LWA), or Annual Program Statements (APS). Procurements for goods and commodities are excluded from this requirement.</p>	<p>Comment: Many of the MYAP 2010 proposals did not include a gender analysis in the first year implementation plans. In at least one instance the gender analysis was to be included in Year 3.</p> <p>Recommend:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Change wording to “Maximization of gender equity strategies leading to gender equality in regards to...” 2. Require that first year implementation plan include a gender analysis within the first year identifying gender gaps, constraints and opportunities for implementation activities and to establish a baseline to measure and evaluate results and impacts. 3. Include gender integration as a measure of past performance. 4. Gender should be designated a Threshold Issue.

TITLE II PROGRAMS 2010 (10/09)	ADS (11/05/09)	COMMENTS & RECOMMENDATIONS
Suggestions for Reporting and M&E in Title II		
	<p>203.3.4.3 MANDATORY. In order to ensure that USAID assistance makes the optimal contribution to gender equality, performance management systems and evaluations must include gender-sensitive indicators and sex-disaggregated data when the technical analyses supporting an AO, project, or activity demonstrates that</p> <p>a. The different roles and status of women and men affect the activities to be undertaken; and b. The anticipated results of the work would affect women and men differently.</p> <p>Gender-sensitive indicators would include information collected from samples of beneficiaries using qualitative and quantitative methodologies or an examination of the project impact on national, regional or local policies, programs and practices that affect men and women.</p> <p>Programs often affect men and women differently, and AO Teams should look for unintended consequences that may need to be addressed over the course of the project.</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. DCHA/FFP should require all individual-level data disaggregated by sex as a primary and overall characteristic. Sex disaggregation should be incorporated into all other disaggregation- age, rural/urban location, ethnicity, youth, elderly, disability etc. 2. DCHA/FFP should require Title II Awardees to monitor and report on results in reducing gender disparities, enhancing women’s empowerment and positive changes in gender-discriminatory male norms and practices. DCHA/FFP should include the results in its own reporting. <p>See additional recommendations in Table 4, Recommendations for Gender Mainstreaming in Food for Peace Operations.</p>

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