

# WOMEN FEEDING CITIES

GENDER MAINSTREAMING IN URBAN FOOD PRODUCTION & FOOD SECURITY

PROCEEDINGS of the WORKSHOP

Jointly organised by  
ETC-RUAF and CGIAR-Urban Harvest

in collaboration with  
IWMI-Ghana

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November 2004,

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<sup>1</sup> The CGIAR System wide Program on Participatory Research and Gender Analysis develops and promotes methods and organizational approaches for gender-sensitive participatory research on plant breeding and on management of crops and natural resources

## **EXECUTIVE SUMMARY**

During this workshop, entitled Women Feeding Cities, we critically reviewed 15 cases presented by the participants in order to identify key issues in gender and urban agriculture. Also a priority agenda was developed with important aspects and actions that will need attention when integrating gender in future urban agriculture research activities, training activities, policy development and action planning and implementation.

We discussed the concept of mainstreaming gender and identified effective strategies for mainstreaming gender in our own projects, RUAF and Urban Harvest.

The review of case studies on gender and urban agriculture also resulted in the identification of improvements needed in the gender-differentiated framework and related tools that were applied in the case studies.

In the process, we (re)discovered some important matters, which deserve to be mentioned here. We jointly came to understand that gender equality is about equal opportunities, equal choices and equal rights for women and men. Gender equality is crucial to development and, likewise, development is critical to gender equality.

Differentiation of the roles urban men and women play in urban food production, processing and marketing, and the documentation of their specific interests, knowledge, constraints and opportunities, as well as the mechanisms of disadvantage (especially in existing values, policies and institutional practices) are critical to the design of effective policies and interventions aiming at urban food security (as well as human and socio-economic development).

We also realised how important it is to discuss ways to engender our projects as well as to facilitate women's empowerment; opportunities for women and men are not equal in most societies and therefore women's empowerment and affirmative actions are needed in addition to engendering all research, policies and action projects.

Furthermore, we realised that in RUAF and Urban Harvest we need both a comprehensive mainstreaming framework as well as a strategic plan that indicates how to make optimal use of the given resources. The participants developed a strong commitment to implement such plans, to carefully document and systematise the experiences gained and to exchange these experiences and other relevant information between the two programmes and with other interested persons and organisations.

## CONTENTS

<b>1. ABOUT THE WORKSHOP .....</b>	<b>6</b>
1.1 BACKGROUNDS .....	6
1.2 OBJECTIVES .....	6
1.3 PARTICIPANTS AND METHODOLOGY OF THE WORKSHOP .....	7
1.4 ORGANISATION AND FUNDING OF THE WORKSHOP .....	7
<b>2. WOMEN FEEDING CITIES: REFOCUSING THE RESEARCH AGENDA.....</b>	<b>8</b>
2.1 INTRODUCTION.....	8
2.2 WOMEN AND URBAN FOOD SECURITY IN AFRICA .....	8
2.3 FOOD SUPPLY AND THE DOMESTIC DIVISION OF LABOUR .....	9
2.4 WOMEN AS URBAN AND PERI-URBAN FOOD PRODUCERS.....	9
2.5 WOMEN AS FOOD TRADERS AND SUPPLIERS .....	11
2.6 SUMMARY OF CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORKS AND CONCLUSIONS.....	12
2.7 REFERENCES .....	14
<b>3. GENDER AND URBAN AGRICULTURE : SOME KEY ISSUES .....</b>	<b>16</b>
3.1 INTRODUCTION.....	16
3.2 KEY ISSUES “GENDER AND URBAN AGRICULTURE” .....	16
3.2.1 <i>Women in urban agriculture: an introduction</i> .....	16
3.2.2 <i>Access to/control over resources</i> .....	17
3.2.3 <i>Role in decision-making</i> .....	19
3.2.4 <i>Division of tasks/labour in urban agriculture</i> .....	20
3.2.5 <i>Differences in knowledge and preferences</i> .....	22
3.2.6 <i>Role of external factors on gender in urban agriculture</i> .....	23
3.2.7 <i>Gender and the positive and negative impacts of urban agriculture</i> .....	23
3.2.8 <i>Differential impacts of urban agriculture-projects with or without attention for gender</i> .....	25
3.2.9 <i>Specifics of gender in urban agriculture</i> .....	26
3.2.10 <i>Gender, urban agriculture, human rights and development</i> .....	27
3.3 GUIDELINES, METHODOLOGIES AND RECOMMENDATIONS .....	29
3.4 REFERENCES .....	30
<b>4. CASE STUDIES .....</b>	<b>32</b>
4.1 INTRODUCTION.....	32
4.2 ENGENDERING AGRICULTURAL RESEARCH: A CASE STUDY OF HYDERABAD CITY, INDIA.....	32
4.3 GENDER AND URBAN AGRICULTURE: THE CASE OF ACCRA, GHANA .....	33
4.4 GENDER AND COPING STRATEGIES FOR ACCESS TO LAND FOR URBAN AGRICULTURE IN KAMPALA CITY, UGANDA .....	34
4.5 KEY GENDER ISSUES IN URBAN FOOD PRODUCTION AND FOOD SECURITY IN KISUMU, KENYA .....	35
4.6 A DIAGNOSIS OF GENDER AND URBAN AGRICULTURE IN VILLA MARIA DEL TRIUNFO, LIMA, PERU .....	36
4.7 GENDER ROLES IN SMALL-SCALE VEGETABLE PRODUCTION IN LAGOS, NIGERIA.....	37
4.8 GENDER AND URBAN AGRICULTURE IN CARAPONGO, LIMA, PERU.....	38
4.9 WOMEN IN URBAN AGRICULTURE: THE CASE OF THE SAMPAGUITA GARLAND LIVELIHOOD SYSTEM IN METRO MANILA, THE PHILIPPINES.....	39
4.10 THE CHANGING ROLE OF WOMEN IN URBAN AGRICULTURE IN CHINA .....	40
4.11 GENDER AND URBAN AGRICULTURE: A CASE STUDY OF THREE COMMUNITIES IN GREATER FREETOWN, SIERRA LEONE .....	40
4.12 INTEGRATION OF WOMEN IN FARMING ACTIVITIES IN THE NIAYES VALLEY OF PIKINE (SENEGAL) .....	41
4.13 MAINSTREAMING GENDER IN URBAN AGRICULTURE: A CASE STUDY OF MUSIKAVANHU PROJECT, HARARE, ZIMBABWE .....	42
4.14 THE ROLE OF WOMEN IN URBAN FOOD PRODUCTION AND FOOD SECURITY IN KAMPALA CITY, UGANDA .....	43
4.15 ANALYSIS OF GENDER ROLES IN RESOURCE RECOVERY FOR URBAN AGRICULTURE IN NAIROBI, KENYA .....	44
4.16 GENDER AND URBAN AGRICULTURE: EXPERIENCES FROM THE PAFSAT PROJECT, BAMENDA, CAMEROON .....	45
<b>5. KEY ISSUES AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....</b>	<b>46</b>
5.1 INTRODUCTION.....	46
5.2 CAPACITY DEVELOPMENT/HRD.....	46
5.3 RESEARCH.....	50
5.4 POLICY DEVELOPMENT AND ACTION PLANNING.....	53
<b>6. GENDER MAINSTREAMING IN URBAN AGRICULTURE .....</b>	<b>59</b>

6.1 INTRODUCTION .....	59
6.2 GENDER MAINSTREAMING, AN INTRODUCTION .....	59
6.2.1 <i>What is “gender mainstreaming”?</i> .....	59
6.2.2 <i>How to undertake “gender mainstreaming’ in urban agriculture?</i> .....	59
6.3. RUAF STRATEGY FOR MAINSTREAMING GENDER IN URBAN AGRICULTURE .....	61
6.4 GENDER MAINSTREAMING IN URBAN HARVEST .....	63
<b>7. FOLLOW-UP .....</b>	<b>65</b>
<b>8. ANNEXES.....</b>	<b>66</b>
8.1 ANNEX 1 - ABOUT THE ORGANISERS .....	66
8.2 ANNEX 2 LIST OF PARTICIPANTS .....	68
8.3 ANNEX 3 OVERVIEW OF CASE STUDIES .....	70
8.4 ANNEX 4 WORKSHOP PROGRAMME .....	71
8.6 ANNEX 6 RUAF GENDER STATEMENT .....	73

## **1. ABOUT THE WORKSHOP**

### **1.1 Background**

So far, only little attention has been paid to gender issues in research, policies and action programmes regarding urban food production and food security. This is exemplified by the relatively low number of publications on the subject. Although many authors observe that a large proportion of urban farmers are women and that women play an important role as urban food producers, processors and traders, few publications have explicitly dealt with gender issues in urban food production, processing and marketing.

The international workshop on appropriate methodologies for urban agriculture research, policy development, action programmes and evaluation, organised by ETC-RUAF in cooperation with CGIAR-Urban Harvest in Nairobi, 2001, recommended that follow-up activities regarding gender issues in urban agriculture be organised.

In the ongoing work of Urban Harvest, the issue has also come up, particularly in the broader context of women's role in urban food supply and distribution systems in cities of Sub-Saharan Africa. The idea of a seminar on "Women Feeding Cities" was raised in informal discussions.

The RUAF midterm evaluation, which took place in February 2003, made similar recommendations.

Since then, the RUAF programme has undertaken a number of activities:

A RUAF Gender Advisory Committee was established, which consists of a small group of people who have expertise and hands-on experience in gender issues and agriculture in an urban setting, and who advise and guide the partners in the RUAF network in identifying strategies to better integrate gender issues in their activities and to "gender mainstream" urban agriculture.

In the past months three working papers have been prepared. The first paper identifies and discusses a number of key issues in the field of gender and urban agriculture and offers a framework for the analysis of such issues. The second paper discusses strategies that are or will be applied by the RUAF partners to mainstream gender in urban agriculture. The third paper describes a number of engendered PRA techniques that can be of use in gender analysis and planning. These papers also form the beginning of the development of guidelines regarding the integration of gender in research, policies and action planning on urban food production and urban food security. Lastly, efforts were made to prepare and publish a special issue of the *Urban Agriculture Magazine* on Gender in Urban Agriculture (issue no. 12, April 2004).

Through this workshop, RUAF and Urban Harvest wanted to pay explicit attention to the issues of gender and food production and security in urban areas, hereby not only paying attention to the role of women in the production of food in urban areas but also to their role in the processing and marketing of this food. By publishing the results of this workshop we hope that the workshop will not only be of value for the partners in RUAF and Urban Harvest but will also stimulate other organisations to mainstream gender in their own work regarding urban agriculture and urban food security.

### **1.2 Objectives**

The expert consultation had the following aims:

- to further enhance the capacity of RUAF and Urban Harvest partners regarding gender issues in urban food production, processing and marketing and the role of women in feeding the cities
- to exchange experiences and strengthen cooperation between RUAF and Urban Harvest partners in the field of mainstreaming gender and urban food production and food security
- to identify key issues regarding gender in urban food production and food security and elaborate an agenda for future research and capacity development
- to identify effective strategies to mainstream gender in future research, training, policy development, planning and action programmes of RUAF and Urban Harvest partners.

### **1.3 Participants and methodology of the workshop**

The workshop was attended by eight staff members of RUAF-partners (six regional and two international), eight staff members of Urban Harvest partners (six regional and two international), two staff members of IDRC and partners (one regional and one national), one policy maker and one farmer leader from Accra, two experts in the field of gender and urban food production (members of the RUAF Gender Advisory Committee. See the list of participants in Annex 2.

The participants were requested to prepare a case study on gender and urban food production and security. The case studies address relevant key issues, such as the division of labour within households and the gendered access to and control over resources. Furthermore, the cases include an analysis of the gender differentiation of constraints and opportunities in urban food production and security in the location as well as a short review of (probable) related external and underlying factors that could explain why a specific gender differentiation exists. Lastly, each case reviews the consequences of this gender differentiation for projects and policies regarding urban food production and food security in this specific location.

Some of the cases presented in the workshop are based on extensive fieldwork that took place during an extended period of time, while other case studies have an exploratory character (e.g. results of a PRA exercise carried out in one locality with a limited number of participating households). Annex 3 provides an overview of the cases presented. The full papers are available on [www.ruaf.org](http://www.ruaf.org). The workshop was organised as follows:

After the key note presentation by Dr Diana Lee-Smith, coordinator of Urban Harvest in Africa (see Chapter 2) and the framework presentation by Drs Joanna Wilbers (see Chapter 3), the case studies were presented and analysed in parallel sessions of three working groups. Summaries of the case study papers can be found in Chapter 4. The full papers of the case studies will be published on the RUAF website ([www.ruaf.org](http://www.ruaf.org)).

In the subsequent plenary session, each working group presented the main gender issues identified in the case studies and their recommendations regarding integration of gender in future research, policy and action planning and capacity development. Their recommendations were integrated and used to develop a prioritised agenda for each of these themes.

The third part of the workshop was introduced by Mr Henk de Zeeuw (international coordinator of RUAF). Subsequently, the RUAF partners and Urban Harvest partners each developed a mainstreaming strategy for their programme, which were presented and discussed in the plenary meeting.

The full programme of the workshop is presented in Annex 4.

### **1.4 Organisation and funding of the workshop**

The workshop was jointly organised by CIP-Urban Harvest and ETC-RUAF and funded by Urban Harvest (with financial contributions from PRGA and CIP-Training) and RUAF (with financial contributions from CTA and IDRC). More information and contact details of the organisers are provided in Annex 1. IWMI-Ghana (partner in both programmes) hosted the workshop and assisted in the local logistics.

## **2. WOMEN FEEDING CITIES: REFOCUSING THE RESEARCH AGENDA**

By Dr Diana Lee-Smith, Africa Regional Coordinator of Urban Harvest

### **2.1 Introduction**

This paper contributes to the debate on the issue of gender and urban agriculture by moving on from previous work by Alice Hovorka, Joanna Wilbers and others on the subject, and raising questions about the context in which it is useful to examine gender and urban agriculture. It is suggested that food security in general, and urban food security in particular, are the relevant topics with which gender and urban agriculture can contribute to contemporary debates about human development, including economic development.

In order to make this proposition relevant to the subject of urban food security, I suggest it is necessary to refocus and broaden the agenda from “Gender and Urban Agriculture” to include a gendered look at food trading into, and in, urban areas. That is why this meeting is called “Women Feeding Cities”. My concern in this paper is to explain why I think doing this is helpful.

Differentiating between women’s and men’s roles in producing and trading food in and into urban areas gives a gendered picture of urban food supply. It can help explain some factors affecting urban food security. From an even broader perspective, it could be useful to take a gendered look at food production and trading in general. This would likewise help explain some factors affecting overall national food security – not just urban. However, the former rather than the latter is the concern of this particular paper. That is, what role do women (as distinct from men) play in feeding cities? The term cities – as in the title of the meeting and the paper – is used loosely. The concern is to encompass patterns of food production and trade for growing urban areas.

The approach taken is historical, since this can be a useful way of examining gender behaviours. Such patterns of human behaviour usually have their roots in traditional habits. Likewise, research on patterns of gender behaviours, and on their origins in the past, can help in making rational plans and policies that involve change.

### **2.2 Women and Urban Food Security in Africa**

Although I would like to examine the subject from a global perspective, my starting point is urban food security in Africa, for which I rely on a seminal study from 1987, edited by Jane Guyer, on “Feeding African Cities” (Guyer 1987). It is important to stress that Guyer’s work does not take a specifically gendered approach. She looks at the functioning of markets and at how policies (or the lack of them) impact on the actual situation of urban food supply. She is particularly concerned about the relationship between incomes and prices, and pricing policies that favour consumers at the expense of producers. By providing detailed ethnographic data she explores the context of these relationships, and from this I have extracted information on gender.

The book contains a series of studies of food supply in colonial and post-colonial states, focusing on the cities of Kano in Nigeria, Yaounde in Cameroon, Dar-es-Salaam in Tanzania and Harare in Zimbabwe (actually Salisbury in Southern Rhodesia because of the time-frame of the study). What she concludes from these “Studies in Regional History” – the sub-title of the book – is that food supply, particularly urban food supply, has been either

- a. ignored, or
- b. wrongly perceived

as an aspect of public policy. She attributes the neglect of urban food supply, and the perception that it needed no policy or planning in African countries, to the fact that, for a while, it worked well and was therefore unobtrusive. She describes how, within a short space of time in the 1970s and 80s, the situation changed to one of food shortages, hunger, corruption and decline in food productivity. This change is attributed to policies that were based on the assumptions that the origin of food was rural and

that consumers were largely urban workers. Prices were to be kept low, and policies were aimed at promoting rural productivity.

Failure to address the way existing organisations operate in the food trade, and in particular how the informal sector operates, is pinpointed by Guyer as the key to why urban food supply analyses were inadequate and policies malfunctioned. The logic is supported by the case of Dar-es-Salaam in particular, as described by Deborah Bryceson in the Guyer book and later by Tripp. The later study shows how removing the constraints on the informal sector and small-scale producers through liberalisation in the 1990s improved urban food supplies, not least through urban agriculture (Bryceson 1987, Tripp 1997).

I would like to shift attention from these two authors' emphasis on traditional organisations of trade and production, and the issue of the informal sector, to focus attention on women. Guyer's edited collection is useful in this respect, because, although she does not emphasise gender in her conclusions, the book is full of references to the distinctions between women's and men's roles. The Tripp study more specifically addresses gender issues, although it is still not the main subject of the work, which looks at the politics of liberalisation and the informal sector. I suggest that one reason for the neglect of and misconceptions regarding food supply and food security in the twentieth century were that women's work is often "invisible". That is, it has been considered as part of women's automatic and everyday duties related to the domestic sphere, and therefore not important in the economy, policy or planning.

### **2.3 Food supply and the domestic division of labour**

Despite the widespread "common sense" presumption in most (perhaps all?) human societies that women are more associated with food preparation and the care of the family than are men, a number of academic studies have addressed the issue of documenting and analysing this association. A special issue of the journal "Environment and Urbanization" in 1991, and the International Research Seminar on Gender, Urbanisation and Environment held in 1994, for example, both included papers that refer to this association (Environment and Urbanization 1991, Lee-Smith 1994). The strong association of women with subsistence production and the implications for economic development have actually been recognised for more than thirty years (Boserup 1970).

Food supply is used here in a broad sense. There is a wide consensus that women cook and, in most cases, prepare food. This is normative (what we assume people do normally). Women also tend to shop or in some other way procure the food for eating in the home, which in some cases means growing it in kitchen gardens or keeping small livestock for milk and eggs for example. In other cases it means saving some food from produce that they sell as traders. It can also mean that when a drought or economic crisis hits, women feel the pinch most as they have to find some way to provide for their families, and this can lead them to organise collectively. Regional examples can be cited, such as the "glass of milk" programme in which Latin American women organised themselves to address urban hunger and disease, and the domestic stove improvement programmes in India (Barrig 1991, Sarin 1991).

Thus in most societies, even where little or no food is produced within the household, women may be major actors in facilitating domestic food supply due to what Tripp calls the "moral economy" within which their work is located (Tripp 1997, 119ff).

### **2.4 Women as urban and peri-urban food producers**

It is important to hold onto this distinction between women's roles in facilitating the domestic food supply and men's roles in households as income earners or "breadwinners" when collecting and analysing data on women's roles in food production, including in urban agriculture.

There is now quite extensive case study data on the prevalence of women as urban farmers in East and Southern Africa, whereas in West Africa, more men than women are found in urban agriculture as a rule. Thus women predominate among urban farmers in Uganda, Kenya and Namibia, for example,

whereas men predominate in Ghana and Nigeria (Obuobie et al. 2004; Kessler et al. 2004; Anosike and Fasona 2004; Nabulo 2004; Mascarenhas 1999; Dima and Ogunmokun 2004). Studies from Port Harcourt Nigeria and Senegal, however, note that women predominate as agricultural labourers and men as owners of horticultural enterprises (Oruwari and Jev 2004; Ba Diao 2004).

In Latin America, the pattern appears equally diverse, with women forming the majority of urban farmers in Rosario, Argentina (where economic emergency strategies prevail), and men in Lima, Peru (where men are traditionally the farmers or cultivators). However, as one article in the recent issue of *UA Magazine* devoted to Gender and Urban Agriculture demonstrates, things are changing in Lima as part of ongoing interventions and organised action by women themselves (Hetterschijt 2004; Merzthal 2004; Olarte 2004).

Little information is available from Asian cases, but the study from Nepal in the recent *UA Magazine* indicates peri-urban farming in Nepal is a family activity, with men and women playing different roles, but men controlling the land and the surplus production. The same appears to be true in Kolkata, India, where there is again a division between women's unpaid work and men's (assumed) role as income earners (Mukherjee et al., 2004; Sapkota 2004).

Thus local social norms and historical changes have affected and may continue to affect these patterns of the gender division of labour in food production. Again I want to demonstrate how this happens by taking a historical perspective, and again the data I have been able to find is all from Africa.

Guyer found that in the period 1888-1912 women farmers would bring the small surplus they generated from family food production to the town of Yaounde to sell it. Mitullah describes something similar in early colonial Nairobi, and this is much more extensively treated in Robertson's work on men, women and trade in Nairobi. By the 1920s and 30s, the colonial division of labour meant men were working as urban or plantation labourers whereas it was generally women who were farming and bringing in the urban food supply. In Dar-es-Salaam, Bryceson found that urban waged workers were fed by their wives in the 1930s. In Yaounde, male chiefs took advantage of this division of labour by "marrying" hundreds of "wives" who constituted unpaid work crews to supply urban food and profits for them (Guyer 1987b; Bryceson 1987; Mitullah 1991; Robertson 1997).

After independence in the 1960s and early 70s, rural women were both farming and trading to bring food to the city of Yaounde. In Kano, Nigeria, Hausa women's food supply remained outside the purview of policy (and official attention) whereas Hausa men's production and sale of staples on a small scale brought them into conflict and competition with large-scale traders and the authorities (Watts 1987).

Studies of post independence food supply in both West and East Africa document how food production policies failed to take this gender division of labour into account and actively promoted men as opposed to women farmers (Guyer 1987; Tripp 1997). In the 1970s in Yaounde, women continued to grow food for their families and sell the surplus, though this remained outside the purview of national food and agriculture policy.

The national policy focus on rural agriculture may have actually increased urban agriculture production in Dar-es-Salaam according to Tripp. In Dar-es-Salaam, where the women were bringing in food for the men in the early colonial city, only 7% of labourers had farm plots in 1950. By 1974, when official food supply and distribution systems were in operation, 70% of households in an urban low-income settlement had urban agriculture plots, and in 1980 this had increased to 80%, with two thirds of the farmers being women. She attributes this to the malfunctioning of the official schemes, which failed to match supply and demand (Tripp 1997).

A little-known but extensive study in peri-urban Kumasi, Ghana, raises interesting questions about the relationship between gender, land rights and food production (Kasanga 2001). In examining how women have lost out in the control of land in the urbanisation process, even where matrilineal inheritance of land is the norm, Kasanga states that:

There are more women farmers than male farmers in the peri-urban villages. They are also more likely to farm on family lands using a low-input bush-fallow system to grow food crops. These farmers are vulnerable to losing their farms to residential development. They are also constrained by a cycle of low productivity from investing in further farm development. (Kasanga 2001, p 88)

Clearly, the narrow association of women with domestic food provision and men with cultivation of cash crops, which has been encouraged by official policy and social norms, has led not only to the prevalence of men in urban farming in Kumasi, but also to the disempowerment of women in a society that traditionally empowered them<sup>2</sup>.

## 2.5 Women as food traders and suppliers

An examination of the role of women as food traders into, and within, towns, reveals a similar picture, showing how normative expectations of the role of women intertwine with food policies that systematically ignore that role, or, even worse, undermine the activities of women food traders or subject them to harassment. Again, my data are largely from Africa.

In this respect there is no difference between East and West Africa. Although the role of women in small-scale food trading is reportedly stronger in West Africa, where it is unusual to find men trading at food markets, the term “market women” is common throughout the continent. In Kenya she is called the “*mama mboga*” (mother of vegetables), while in Dar-es-Salaam the term “*mama ntilie*” – meaning “mother put food on the table” – refers to food selling from temporary kiosks in the informal sector. Several studies reported that women formed the majority of vegetable market and street food traders in several cities including Accra, Addis Ababa, Kampala, Lusaka and Nairobi (Mitullah 1991; Tripp 1997, p. 180). Robertson has conducted detailed historical studies of the origins and development of this trading by women in Accra, Ghana, and Nairobi, Kenya (Robertson 1990, 1997).

In 1973, women formed the bulk of food producers and traders for the urban market of Yaounde. As a form of income and employment, food trading was the main occupation of urban women, and women formed 89% of traders, half of them combining trading with food production in “rural” areas. Presumably, this would include peri-urban or even urban production, since 45% of Yaounde’s food came from the immediate hinterland. These women transported their produce by “head-loading” and they owned no vehicles. In 1968 women were accused of being responsible for food price rises and in 1972 market price controls were introduced with women traders being subjected to harsh punishments. The women were reported to think high-class people wanted merely to exploit them, but they had no political voice. Those who did have a voice claimed women have “an obligation to feed us” and that the women traders created “disloyal competition” for trading that took place through the official channels. Food production was supposed to be carried out by men farmers in rural areas, and trade was supposed to take place through the unsuccessful MIDEVIV initiative (Guyer 1987b).

In Dar-es-Salaam, women did not work as food traders in the 1930s, according to documentary sources, but merely as food providers for their families. However, by the 1980s, 69% of adult women were self-employed traders, and only 9% were in wage employment. It is worth noting that 50% of married women were self-employed and only 3% in wage employment. Women were the major players in the explosive growth of the informal sector of the economy, and they traded mainly in food, specifically vegetables, fruit and cooked foods. Much of the food was in fact produced in and around the city, with “selling of urban produce” being categorised as one of the four main activities of the “parallel markets” identified at the time. This must be contrasted with the assumption that, at the time of liberalisation of markets in the 1990s, urban food was coming from rural areas (Tripp 1997, p. 54f, p. 108f, p. 163f).

As in Yaounde, but a decade later, there was much harassment of women traders in Dar-es-Salaam, especially the poorest, who were classed as “economic saboteurs” in the early 1980s. Women were rounded up and taken to detention centres. They had to produce certificates of employment or marriage

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<sup>2</sup> Professor Kasim Kasanga became the Minister of Lands under the Kofuor government of Ghana in 2002.

– the assumption being that women must be dependants of employed men. All this ran counter to the facts documented by researchers that women formed the majority of entrepreneurs and earned higher incomes than employed men. Many married women were supporting their households as men's wages were very low (Tripp 1997, p. 109, 119f; Tibaijuka 1988). The policy was clearly counter-productive, and by 1986 the government instructed informal sector traders to "come out of hiding" – an ironic comment no doubt since it referred to 95% of the city's population. By the mid 90s the policy climate had changed, with support for the informal sector and women traders being established. By this time, women had set up organisations and networks, giving them some greater political clout. However, formal plans and policies still fail to take account of the way women's businesses are run, namely as part of their work in household maintenance and not simply as profit-making enterprises. Women's work continues to be disadvantaged (Tripp 1997).

Robertson's studies of women food traders in Accra in West Africa and Nairobi in East Africa contain meticulous ethnographic and historical information on how such patterns of behaviour, power and control have operated. She focuses on the perceptions and reactions of the women themselves, and traces how they have responded by organising collectives and by finding an increasing political voice (Robertson 1990, 1997).

As urban food supply markets evolve, women often continue to be disadvantaged however. Considerable research, policy and advocacy initiatives are needed to ensure women are able to compete on an equal basis with men in urban and peri-urban food markets (Mitullah 1991; Robertson 1997; Purushothaman et al, 2004).

## **2.6 Summary of conceptual frameworks and conclusions**

Recent literature addressing gender and urban agriculture also looks at methodological frameworks needed to carry out gendered research. It is my intention to link these approaches and to situate them in the broader research objective of identifying women's part in feeding cities, which seems to be of key importance when considering gender and urban food security.

I have demonstrated in this paper how women have been feeding cities, at least in Africa. I would be interested to know if similar phenomena are known in other regions, or whether this is simply an African phenomenon. In any event, Africa appears to me to lead the way in research on women feeding cities. I have also demonstrated how this feeding of cities by women has been neglected, and the consequence of this neglect in the performance of urban food supply and distribution systems in several African cities. Urban food supply was first ignored because it was seen as women's work and therefore unimportant, and later deliberately disrupted for similar reasons – women's role in it was seen as economically insignificant.

The role of women in feeding cities has likewise been neglected in national and international food and agriculture policy and planning. To a large extent it continues to be so. Although there is much noise about reaching rural women farmers through the agricultural extension systems, this would seem scarcely to scratch the surface of the food supply systems described in this paper.

I now propose to sketch the way forward from this meeting to build a common research agenda on "Women Feeding Cities", based on the work done so far.

Palacios, as reported in Wilbers (2004), sets gender analysis within a framework of values, associating it with a commitment to gender equality and affirmative action. In her view research must include the following steps:

- recognition of differences between men and women
- documentation of the practical and strategic needs of both
- identification of the mechanisms of disadvantage
- analysis of the impact of current policies and strategies and
- identification of new ones that will address the basic values and commitments of the stakeholders

This is a solid foundation on which to base the research agenda for “Women Feeding Cities”. Considerable work has already been done to develop research frameworks for urban agriculture, which I see as together forming a sub-set of guidelines for the “Women Feeding Cities” research agenda. Hovorka (2001) has already established a research protocol for gender and urban agriculture, which delineates questions that can be asked about a given system at a given point in time. The system can be described as having:

- a division of labour
- economic variables
- resources or inputs needed for urban agriculture
- related social networks or structures and
- related policy and legal structures.

In preparation for the work of the RUAF Gender Advisory Group, Wilbers (2004), in analysing the literature, found the following categories addressed in research on gender and urban agriculture:

- access to / control over resources
- bargaining power in decision-making
- division of labour
- differences in knowledge and perceptions
- external factors
- risks and benefits
- impacts of projects
- urban vs. rural agriculture

RUAF has also outlined a process for integration of gender into urban agriculture projects as follows:

- diagnosis
- research
- policy
- action planning, and
- integration in spatial planning.

These are all powerful tools in generating new knowledge on urban agriculture, to which the RUAF and Urban Harvest programmes are jointly committed, as the holding of this meeting demonstrates. The purpose of this paper is to refocus the research agenda on gender and urban food security, which encompasses much more than just research on gender and urban agriculture. In 1994, an international seminar developed a research and policy agenda on gender, urbanisation and environment that can be paraphrased as:

- the urban transition: access to land and resources
- work, migration and urbanisation
- movements and organising
- policies or the lack of them (Lee-Smith 1994).

RUAF and Urban Harvest are jointly engaged in the development of knowledge that will not only generate research, but will also inform and advocate on key strategic aspects of gender in urban food security. The goal of this joint effort, as I see it, is to bring about better policies and planning for urban food supply and distribution systems. The 1994 agenda mentioned above might provide a useful set of categories from which to start.

As researchers on gender and urban agriculture, we study women’s and men’s different roles in the production and marketing of food in urban areas in order to understand how this contributes to the food security of towns and cities. Sound food supply and distribution systems for towns and cities are crucial aspects of good urban governance, and thus of major importance to city managers and municipal authorities.

They are also crucial aspects of national food and agriculture policies. A spatial analysis of food production, in which urban and peri-urban agriculture plays such an important part, is essential.

Likewise, a gender analysis of urban food supply and distribution is essential, as this paper attempts to show. I argue that the historical dimension is important in understanding the dynamics of present situations in which women and men play different roles. Mainly this helps us to understand why certain gender differences occur. What is needed from both research and policy makers is a commitment to articulating sound policy directions that relate to, but get us out of, current situations that do not ensure:

- a. adequate supplies of good-quality food in urban areas
- b. gender equality

Further development of a research agenda on the broader topic of gender and urban food security is necessary. Based on the brief overview I have given on the gender dynamics of food supplies in some African cities in the twentieth century, I would just like to mention a few questions that need to be carefully considered in future food security planning.

- a. How can household food security be integrated into concepts of urban food security?
- b. How can women's approaches to running their businesses – which include household nutrition and family provisioning – be incorporated into economic thinking and public policy?
- c. How can we ensure that household food security remains a key consideration of public policy as markets evolve and change?

I suggest that refocusing our research agenda to promote a gender perspective in food security research will assist in answering all of these questions.

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### 3. GENDER AND URBAN AGRICULTURE: SOME KEY ISSUES

By Drs Joanna Wilbers, ETC-RUAF

#### 3.1 Introduction

This paper was prepared with support from the RUAF Advisory Group on Gender and Urban Agriculture as a first step preparing for this workshop. An earlier version was used as an input for the RUAF-IDRC Training Workshop on Gender in Urban Agriculture, held in Johannesburg, South Africa in July 2003. The information was compiled by reviewing a number of documents on "gender and urban agriculture" available in the RUAF bibliographic database (see [www.ruaf.org](http://www.ruaf.org))

#### 3.2 Key issues of "gender and urban agriculture"

##### 3.2.1 *Women in urban agriculture: an introduction*

Over the past decade, increased recognition has been given to the fact that a large proportion of urban farmers are women. Whereas the general focus used to be on gender-neutral (and thus almost exclusively male) farmers, thereby ignoring women's experiences with urban agriculture, recent literature reveals that women predominate among urban farmers in many countries, including Kenya, Uganda, Tanzania, Mozambique, Zambia, Zimbabwe, Senegal, Poland and Thailand (Hovorka 1998; Maxwell 1995; Mougeot 2000; UNDP 1996). According to these sources the predominance of women in this group can be ascribed to two factors. Firstly, it is still the women who bear the greatest responsibility for household sustenance and well-being and, secondly, women tend to have lower educational status than men and therefore more difficulties in finding formal wage employment (Hovorka 2003). However, one should keep in mind that situations can be highly variable and that the numbers of men and women involved will differ from case to case. Box 1 and 2 illustrate this high variability well.

Even disregarding whether it is men or women who predominate in urban agriculture, it is important to shift the focus of research, policies and action planning to both men and women. To this effect, some issues, which can be considered to be of key importance within the field of women in urban agriculture, will be raised in the following paragraphs.

##### *Box 1 - Men predominate in urban agriculture in Accra, Ghana*

More men than women are involved in urban farming in Accra because of the arduous nature of the farming tasks. Land preparation is mainly manual and vegetable cultivation requires numerous activities such as regular watering, planting and transplanting, shading in some cases, regular turning of the soil and weeding. Land clearing, land preparation and watering are the most difficult tasks and are usually considered to be male activities. Whereas men can supplement their incomes by providing paid labour, half of independent women cultivators mainly depend on male labourers (paid labour) to carry out land clearing and preparation tasks. Women with limited financial resources cultivate relatively small plots that can easily be managed. This is illustrated in the following comments made by a typical woman farmer who had been cultivating in Accra for 11 years.

"I started with five other women but they have all left because of the difficulty of the tasks involved. Talking about land clearing and preparation, forking of beds, spraying of chemicals etc., it takes much determination to continue cultivating. I mostly use male hired labour for land clearing and preparation. When I do not have enough money to hire labour, I do the land preparation myself but then I'm able to cultivate only part of my plot." (Adapted from Cofie et al., 2004)

##### *Box 2 - Female domination of urban agriculture in Harare, Zimbabwe*

The Musikavanhu project, which was originally concentrated in Budiro and Glen View and has now spread to the other low-income suburbs of Harare, started with seven families meeting and agreeing to form a group that would work together and engage in urban farming. Currently, 95% of the members of the project are women. Several reasons explain the dominance of women in the group. The first is that, generally, most of the urban farmers in Zimbabwe's cities are women because placing food on the family table remains the responsibility of women in Zimbabwe. Further, in Zimbabwe up until the mid-1980s, access to formal employment was reserved for men. Women who lived with their husbands in the cities had a lot of time available to them and they could therefore engage in urban farming. In the specific case of Musikavanhu, another reason for female dominance was that the

group emerged as a useful mechanism for women to resolve conflicts over the use of the land resource. Women farmers felt they needed more protection, unlike male farmers who felt they did not need the group to defend their use of open land for farming. Furthermore, until the late 1990s men felt that urban agriculture was not a high income earning activity that could enable them to provide for their families. They also did not approve of their spouses joining the sector. Most of the women indicated that they did not receive support from their husbands when they started practicing urban agriculture. Even today, women are often not allowed by their husbands to attend training courses that will take them away from home for a day, which severely limits their capacity building opportunities and impedes their participation in leadership positions. Men only joined in after demonstrated results were achieved in terms of the harvest and the money earned from selling some of the produce. Also, the massive retrenchments that took place in the late 1990s left many of the men with no option but to engage in informal sector employment, including urban agriculture. Currently, the engagement of men in urban agriculture is causing increasing conflicts due to the increased demand for agricultural land, sometimes resulting in men invading land belonging to women. (Adapted from Mushamba et al, 2004)

### 3.2.2 Access to/control over resources

Another key issue is the differentiation between men's and women's access to and control over resources within their households. This matter of access is highly influenced by structures or processes at the macro level, where cultural ideas determine which roles men and women play, and which responsibilities within the household they each have. According to Moser (1993, p. 23), external factors like ideology, culture and economics underlie the symmetries and asymmetries in intra-household resource allocation. Often, traditions more than laws prevent women from inheriting and controlling land and animals on an equal basis with men. Traditions of patrilineal property inheritance limit women's access to a secure place to live, their ability to produce food for their families and to generate income. An example of the influence of culture and traditions on women's access to land is given in Box 3.

#### *Box 3 – Land for urban agriculture in Hyderabad, India*

The city of Hyderabad, India, is one of the fastest growing cities in the world. It is spread out over an area of 500 km<sup>2</sup> and has a population of 6 million. Various crops irrigated with wastewater are cultivated in the urban and peri-urban areas of the city along the Musi River, which flows right through the centre of the city. Here, land is considered to be a resource for men. Legally, inherited land should be equally distributed between sons and daughters. But the land title is usually in the name of the male head of the household and after he dies, it is inherited by the male members of the family (his sons). Indians still follow the dowry system in which a bride's father has to pay the family of the bridegroom before/during the wedding. Parents of the bride give cash and jewellery to the bridegroom and retain their land for their son, as he is the one who will support them in their old age. Women usually do not file a case against their father or brothers even if they do not get their share of the land. The main reason is that a father pays a dowry to the bridegroom for the wedding of his daughter and that is supposed to compensate for the land that will go to his son. Culturally, women are taught that land is a man's property. Women get land titles only if their husbands die and their sons are too young (less than 18 years old). Divorce is not a common phenomenon in the study area and even in the rare event of a divorce, the land remains with the husband. (Adapted from Devi Mekala et al., 2004).

Lee-Smith (1997, p. 71) uses the theoretical framework of gender contracts as introduced by Hirdman to address the reasons why women's access to the resources of land and housing is different from that of men, in a Kenyan context. Gender contracts can be defined as distinct sets of social rules that make up invisible agreements governing what men and women can and cannot do, which can be found in every society. According to Lee-Smith (1997, p. 169), gender behaviours in Kenyan society are mediated by the social mechanism of these gender contracts, which is shown by how widely known the rules making up these contracts are and by how widely they are adhered to.

Access to and control over resources refers to both productive resources and the benefits of production. **Productive resources** include land, water, inputs, credit, technical and market information, and technology as well as contacts, interpersonal networks and organisations. The rights to control one's own labour and the degree to which one can regulate the actions of others in the household are also highly gendered. The **benefits of production** include cash income, food and other products (for home

consumption, sales or exchange). The access to (productive) resources also determines certain rights/obligations over the benefits of these resources.

Box 4 describes how urban farmers in Accra, Ghana, made an effective attempt to enhance their access to (informal) credit, while Box 5 describes female urban farmers' access to education in Kampala, Uganda.

*Box 4 - Pre-financing of urban agriculture activities in Accra, Ghana*

In general urban farmers do not have access to formal credit schemes in Ghana. This is mainly because farmers cannot meet the collateral demands of the financial institutions. In addition, most of the urban farmers have limited space for cultivation and do not own the land. In spite of these problems, some urban farmers have managed to create a win-win situation with the vegetable sellers in terms of access to informal credit. Sellers pre-finance farming activities by providing seeds, fertiliser, pesticides or cash in order to obtain the vegetables subsequently produced. Sometimes sellers order the products before cultivation through verbal agreement based on trust and confidence. The final amount of money received by the farmer may differ from the initial amount agreed on as demand and supply might have changed during the growing period. Similar situations have been observed in Lome, Togo, and Cotonou, Benin, in West Africa. (Adapted from Cofie et al., 2004).

*Box 5 - Education of female urban farmers in Kampala, Uganda*

In Kampala, most of the women involved in urban farming have a primary education or none at all. Only a few have received a secondary education. This determines what kind of work they do and it explains why poverty is a great problem among women: few of them participate in the formal sector and many either work at home as housewives, farm in their backyards or trade foodstuffs at evening candlelight markets by the roadsides (Adapted from Kiguli, 2004).

The legal standing of resource tenure as well as the kind of tenure tends to reflect gendered relations of power. For example, resource rights are *de jure* often associated with men and *de facto* with women, which has major implications for the relative strength and security of tenure by gender. Women often have rights of renewable use (for example: harvesting leaves from trees), while men have rights of consumptive use (harvesting the tree itself). Resources can be divided into different categories, and women and men may have different degrees of control over each of the categories. These differences may embody a division between resources for use value and resources as commodities (Hettterschijt 2001, p. 36-37).

Besides gender differences in access to productive resources within households, one can also find gendered differences in access between women heads-of-households and men heads-of-households. Often, the first tend to own resources of a poorer quality that consequently result in lower production. In a literature review on gender and agricultural practices in rural and peri-urban areas of Ethiopia, Tegegne et al. (2002) paid particular attention to the differences between female- and male-headed households. According to this review, female-headed households are more constrained in a number of ways than male-headed households. An important disadvantage for a female-headed household is that female farmers tend to limit their labour time in farm activities due to their heavy commitment to domestic chores (Tegegne et al., 2002, p. 3). Women have a limited education and therefore fewer opportunities for employment in the off-farm labour market, while culturally determined rules can also prohibit women from using certain productive resources, which decreases their productivity. In a study done by Maxwell on the impact of urban agriculture on livelihoods, food and nutrition security in Greater Accra (1998), female-headed households were recognised as being among the most vulnerable groups in the city.

Some scientists believe that informal economic activities (like urban agriculture) for women are another opportunity for male control, while others believe that these informal activities are an opportunity for women to regain control over productive resources. It is important in any case to study whether the experiences gained by women in formal and informal sector activities differ substantially from those of men and how differential access to and control over resources can facilitate or hamper participation in each sector.

Besides looking at the gender differences in who controls and has access to productive resources, it is important to review who controls and has access to the benefits of production. According to Hovorka (1998, p. 29), women producers who are not landowners demand their share of revenue derived from production because they are the ones who are primarily responsible for the care of children. However, even if they are not successful in convincing their husbands to share the earnings, women may retain part of the money from their vegetable produce sales without the knowledge or consent of their husbands (Maxwell 1994, p. 9-10). An illustration of the access to and control of the benefits of urban agricultural production can be found in Box 6 below.

*Box 6 - Accessing and controlling the benefits of urban agriculture in Kampala, Uganda*

In Uganda it is the men who control the major source of household income and determine how to use it. The men purchase the farm inputs and equipment like hoes and pangas. It is they who have a strong hold on the household budget and allocate a certain amount of money to women, who in turn decide on household expenditure priorities. One woman explained (Focus group discussion, Kigobe zone, Rubaga Division, Kampala, 2003): "You grow the crops but when it comes to selling, it is your husband or male relative who sells and decides on how to spend the money. If you complain, he asks you if you are the one who owns the land. He then goes to spend the money on local brew" (Adapted from Kiguli, 2004).

### 3.2.3 Role in decision-making

Control of resources and decision-making power are closely related but distinguishable issues. The role and bargaining power of women in decision making can be viewed on two different levels:

- a. Within the **farm household**. Decisions have to be taken on, for example, the sale of products, land or animals, the production process itself (what to produce, when, where, why, how), development of the infrastructure, whether to save or invest, and on whether some members of the household should work on the farm or take another job outside of the household.
- b. Within the **community or a local organisation**. Contacts and influence at community level and in local organisations define to an important extent access to and control over productive resources.

The decision-making power of women within communities can be highly influenced by the extent to which women's group activities exist. These activities can be viewed as cooperative mechanisms through which women successfully pool resources, skills, information, time and energy. The strength of women's social networks and cooperative efforts are noted as potential areas for successful development strategies in the urban agriculture sector (Hovorka 2003). Women farmers may participate in governance, local politics, and community groups, thereby linking social activism and urban food issues. Women's groups and their urban agriculture related collective practices need to be promoted and involved in community processes so that they will be recognised as a social and political actor, converting urban agriculture into the whole community's concern. Box 7 provides an example of the reasons why there is often a specific need for women's organisations.

However, in some societies women's groups depend on a male chairman to represent their interests to the rest of the community, which may not be the best possible arrangement for addressing women's strategic needs (Peters 1998, p. 20-21).

*Box 7 – The Kachi Women's Association in Hyderabad, India*

Kachiguda is an urban neighbourhood located almost in the centre of Hyderabad (see also Box 1). Most of the urban farmers who farm along the Musi river, which flows through Hyderabad, live in Kachiguda. There are four community associations in the neighbourhood– the Hyderabad Farmers' Association, Kachi Association, Kachi Women's Association and Yadava Sangham. The Kachi Association and Yadava Sangham are caste-based associations and only people belonging to Kachi and Yadava castes respectively can become members. The members are all male. The Kachi Women's Association is exclusively a women's association, which was formed in 2004 to help the women belonging to the Kachi caste solve their domestic problems. In reply to the question of why the Kachi women had to form a separate association, when the Kachis already had an association, the

Secretary of the women's association, Ms Madhumathi bai said: "The Kachi Association is entirely a men's association and women cannot talk freely about their problems in front of the men. So the chairman of the Kachi Association himself encouraged us women to form a separate women's association where we can freely discuss our problems such as domestic violence, access to water, blocked sewage drains, lack of electricity, disputes with neighbours, etc. If the problem cannot be solved then we take it to the men. We still do not have a savings group, but plan to start one soon. As for agriculture, it is the only source of livelihood for some of the Kachi women, as they do not have any other skills or courage to go out and search for other jobs". (Adapted from Devi Mekala et al., 2004).

Productive activities can help strengthen the position of women in the decision-making process within the household. For example, in Kampala, farming activities represent a means to economic self-reliance, as was found in the research of Maxwell (1994, p. 11). For married women in particular, urban farming offers more than the opportunity to augment their family's food supply: while still within the margins of what is culturally expected of these women, participation in urban agriculture gives them access to their own source of income and thereby strengthens their position in intra-household conflicts. Culturally, urban agriculture is seen as a marginal economic activity and the women may have good reason to uphold this image (Hetterschijt 2001, p. 30; Maxwell 1994, p. 11). Box 8 illustrates how men's views on urban agriculture can change once it has proven to be a profitable activity. According to Dennery (1994), women's decision-making power as seen in Nairobi, may be undermined by factors such as size of plot, need for cash and personal health.

*Box 8 - Men's views on urban agriculture in Lima (Villa Maria del Triunfo)*

Of the total number of productive family units (PFU) in Villa Maria del Triunfo, a municipality in the southern part of Lima, Peru, 76% are controlled by women and 24% by men. Of the total number of PFUs, 82% practice urban agriculture recreationally and consume what they produce, 3% (all headed by women) practice urban agriculture with the goal of supplementing their family income. 15% (all headed by women) see urban agriculture as a potential strategy for the generation of supplementary family income. Fewer men participate in urban agriculture because men generally do not see this activity as a viable strategy for the generation of direct income. They therefore dedicate little time to it and give priority to other income-generating activities. However, they are interested in taking the next step and using the products of urban agriculture to generate income, particularly through processing activities. The current purpose (recreation and self-consumption) of urban agriculture in Villa Maria del Triunfo avoids conflicts within families relating to the access and control over resources and benefits of home gardens. Women make decisions without intervention from men, since this activity does not at present generate "visible" economic income and is therefore not of relevance to men. However, when the possibility of generating visible income through commercialisation arises, men want to take part in decision making. When striving to make urban agriculture an income-generating activity, it is necessary to identify strategies to avoid conflicts and inequalities in the control over the benefits arising from home gardens. (Adapted from Merzthal 2004)

### 3.2.4 Division of tasks/labour in urban agriculture

Within the household, the various tasks and responsibilities are divided between the male and female members of the household. This division is subject to context-specific circumstances, which can make certain situations rather complicated to comprehend and describe. Circumstances are influenced by both deeply rooted socio-cultural backgrounds as well as practical needs. For instance, when we look at the case studies of six different cities in the scoping study done by Rangnekar (2002, p. 20), we find that within every case (city), the division of tasks between men and women related to urban livestock keeping differs according to the cultural group they belong to, the socio-economic status of the household, the species and size of the livestock and the location of the household in the city (the same factors are found to influence the decision-making power of women and men as well).

Regarding this key issue, a distinction can be made between:

- a. the division of household chores (**reproductive tasks**)
- b. the division of tasks related to urban agriculture (**productive tasks**)

Generally, urban households are engaged in urban agriculture for two main reasons. Some households that engage in urban farming do so because they moved from rural to urban areas and brought along

their agricultural practices. Other households have an urban background and got involved in agriculture by choice or by need. With regard to the first situation it is important to ask what happens to the gender behaviours within a household when it moves from a rural to an urban area. In families with rural backgrounds it is often the woman's task to provide for the family's food through farming and gathering. Such a task might be more difficult in the urban conditions. According to a case study in Lusaka by Rakodi (1988, p. 510), urban immigrants maintain the traditional (rural) gender division of labour in the urban areas, but in the cities family labour is hardly supplemented by casual labour, which increases the burden on the women in the households.

Lee-Smith (1994, p. 8) points out the contrary: in some urban situations there is no recognition of the traditional gender division of labour, which may be due to the loss of influence of the social norms brought from the countryside. In a scoping study on gender relations and livestock keeping in Kisumu, Ishani et al. (2002, p. 16) also found that cultural traditions – and therefore gender roles within households – are changing due to the impact of the market economy and urbanisation. Households in Kisumu appear to have found a new way to apply the cultural traditions of the Luo community that prevail in the rural areas. Here, it is possible to find women who own property, which would be unheard of if the community adhered strictly to Luo traditions. Another example of changing gender roles due to urbanisation is that women in Kisumu are inheriting livestock, while tradition prescribes that wives and daughters do not inherit any type of property (see also Box 9).

*Box 9 – Female-headed households and changing traditions in Kisumu, Kenya*

The city of Kisumu is situated on the shores of Lake Victoria. It has an area of 395.1 square kilometres of which 35.5% is covered by water. Generally, almost all of the households keep livestock and the most common livestock is goats. In Kisumu, control over property is largely determined by who is the household head. Female heads of household hold absolute control over the household property. This is especially true for widows who control land, houses and other property, including livestock. In female-headed households the women are free of the restraints imposed on their counterparts in male-headed households. They exercise their will regarding financial, consumption and production property (even when adult sons and their families are living in the same compound). Sometimes the sons are consulted but never the daughters. Inheritance and the purchase of livestock play an equal role in female-headed households. This is surprising as according to Luo tradition, wives or daughters do not inherit property, and yet some women have inherited livestock, mostly from their husbands. One case has also been found of a single woman who inherited livestock from her parents. This shows that the norms are changing and that widows now do inherit property. (Adapted from Ishani, 2004)

To understand the division of tasks related to urban agriculture, we first have to recognise that, in many cases, women are more involved in urban agriculture than men (see Section 2.1 on the predominance of women in urban agriculture). Often, more urban farming tasks go to the woman in the household, whereas men are active on the sidelines, such as in Kampala (see Box 6), where men are more involved in helping to provide cash for the purchase of inputs, and in obtaining land for farming than in the actual urban farming itself (Maxwell 1994, p. 7). However, in another study in Accra, also done by Maxwell (1998), it was found that farming was mainly a male occupation. This evidence underlines the heterogeneity of the subject.

Aside from the difference in the amount of urban agriculture work performed, a number of other differences in the roles of men and women in urban agriculture can be observed. Firstly, there is a difference in the division of responsibility for certain crops. In most urban agriculture household systems, men are responsible for a few cash crops and larger livestock and for generating cash income for the family, whereas women are responsible for a variety of food crops and small animals and for securing household food security and nutrition (Hovorka 1998, p. 19). In research done by Ofei-Aboagye in Ghana (1997, p. 5), it has been found that women are mainly responsible for crops with lower maintenance requirements, which allows them more time to spend on their household tasks.

Secondly, as Ofei-Aboagye (1997, p. 5) witnessed in Ghana, there is a difference between men and women with respect to dry and wet season farming. Usually, men are more actively engaged in irrigated dry season agriculture, while women are more involved in wet season farming. Women often lack the physical strength to clear the dry season farmland and their access to hired labour, oxen or a tractor is

limited. Fewer farmers in general engage in dry season farming, so more money can be made due to the relatively low supply of foodstuffs and the unchanged level of demand.

Box 10 describes the differences between men and women in Kampala, Uganda, with respect to the division of tasks and their primary reasons for being involved in urban agriculture.

*Box 10 – Urban agriculture in Kampala, Uganda*

Urban agriculture in Kampala takes place predominantly on private land, in backyards and on undeveloped public land. Due to rapid urbanisation and population growth, people are increasingly utilising hazardous places that are unsuitable for growing crops. Such places include road verges, banks of drainage channels, wetlands and contaminated sites such as scrap yards and dumpsites for solid and liquid waste. Most of the farmers in these hazardous locations produce and sell their food, with a higher proportion of women compared to men selling food directly to consumers. This could be attributed to the nature of crops grown and the fact that men grow crops on a larger scale and can thus sell them on a wholesale basis to retailers, while women can only sell directly to consumers in the neighbourhood. Furthermore, a higher proportion of the men than the women sell some of the food they produce from farming activities. A higher proportion of the farmers use the food crops mainly to feed their families, and only a small proportion of them grow food purposely for sale. The percentage of farmers who sell all of the food grown on contaminated sites to consumers was higher among women, who consequently use the funds to buy other foodstuffs from the market. Clearly, the data shows that men and women are involved in agricultural activities for different reasons. (Adapted from Nabulo et al, 2004).

Apart from the division of labour at household level, one also has to look at the gender division of tasks at organisational and community level. It is important to understand that gender issues also play a role at this level with important consequences. For instance, when women participate in farmer organisations they normally do so as a regular member or at most in supporting functions, but not in key leadership's functions with decision-making authority.

### 3.2.5 Differences in knowledge and preferences

Another key issue within the field of gender and urban agriculture is the differences that exist between men and women with regard to their **knowledge** of e.g.:

- the cultivation of certain crops and animals
- the application of certain cultural practices (e.g. women in the Andes know more about seed selection and storage, herding, processing of wool and natural medicines)
- the use of certain technologies (e.g. men generally have more knowledge on irrigation techniques, chemical inputs and castration of bulls)
- certain social domains (e.g. men may know much more about formal marketing channels, whereas women may know more about informal barter relations).

Men and women normally also differ strongly in their **preferences and priorities**, in relation to their main roles and responsibilities, e.g. regarding production goals (food versus market oriented), preferred location of plots (women with young children often prefer to work close to the home), preferred mode of production (single versus multiple cropping), use of the benefits (for household consumption or for sales), etc. An example of differences between men's and women's preferences, priorities and perceptions is given in Box 11.

*Box 11 - Gendered differences in preferences, priorities and perceptions in Carapongo, Lima, Peru*

In Carapongo, a neighbourhood in the eastern shantytowns of Lima, Peru, mainly vegetable production can be found, with very limited areas of large-scale livestock raising or forestry. The neighbourhood covers an area of 400 hectares and has more than three times as much cultivated land as residential area. Here, men and women have different perceptions regarding gender roles. Although there is general agreement about the male-linked tasks of land preparation and pest control, men and women's perceptions differ strongly about many of the other tasks. Most notably, men do not recognise that women may be mainly responsible for some of the tasks of agricultural production, yet many women perceive themselves as the person to handle these tasks. A particularly strong discrepancy in perceptions concerns the purchasing of inputs. Whilst 61% of men consider this a male responsibility, almost the same percentages of women think it is a female task. One possible

explanation for this is the discrepancy between the decision to purchase inputs and the knowledge and contacts with vendors that facilitate such purchases and the actual act of purchasing. Women may be more frequently involved in the latter activity than men want to acknowledge. There is also a large difference in perceptions of the role that men and women play in marketing. Men recognise the importance of the women's role, but this is not seen as equal to or noticeably greater than the men's role, which again may indicate the men's dominance in decision-making. Women on the other hand very clearly see themselves as having the major responsibility for marketing. (Adapted from Arce et al., 2004)

### *3.2.6 Role of external factors on gender differences in urban agriculture*

There are a number of external factors that can have a strong effect on gender differences in urban agriculture. Socio-economic conditions, for example, are often at the root of the involvement of women in urban agriculture. According to Maxwell (1998, p. 25), female-headed households and female-dominated occupational groups (petty trading and street food vending) are the most vulnerable to food price increases or income shocks. As a result, many poor urban women seek to create sources of food that are independent of the formal urban market.

Another factor is the effect of inheritance and land laws and regulations, which often disadvantage women. Widows and single women are usually unable to inherit land and may be forced to live in poverty in urban areas (Lee-Smith 1994, p. 9). According to Maxwell, female urban farmers are often more affected than male farmers by tenure change or loss of farmland (Maxwell 1998, p. 23).

Other external factors that must be considered include:

- local policies (see Box 12 for an illustration of the impact of local policies on men and women active in urban agriculture)
- educational system
- grassroots activism (NGOs/ CBOs)
- social and cultural norms regarding gender relations
- environmental factors

It is equally important to look at the extent to which each of these external factors affect gender in urban agriculture.

#### *Box 12 - Access to land for urban agriculture in Accra, Ghana*

Even though some communities disallow women from owning land, this pertains mainly to communal land in peri-urban and rural areas and has little or no effect on access to land for farming in the open spaces within the cities in Ghana. 70% of the land being cultivated in the urban areas belongs to the government and access to these lands is not based on gender differences. This is very interesting, as this would mean that the urban situation would "rule out" culture and traditions, or would at least make them less important. In a recent study, 87% of the farmers in Accra indicated that men and women have equal access to government lands in urban open spaces. In essence, access to government land is based on availability and the lobbying strategies of individuals. In most cases, access is achieved via direct contact with the owner or caretaker or through a third party working with the government institutions in the area. In some peri-urban areas of Accra, where sharecropping is used as payment for cultivating land owned by individuals, landowners or traditional leaders (e.g. chiefs) prefer that men rather than women cultivate larger plots, hence providing them with greater benefit. The landowners believe that men are likely to produce higher yields than women. (Adapted from Cofie et al., 2004).

### *3.2.7 Gender and the positive and negative impacts of urban agriculture*

It is important to monitor what the positive impacts (advantages, potentials) and the negative impacts (disadvantages, risks) of certain urban agriculture activities are for men and women respectively, in a given location and under given conditions, and how these relate to the existing gender dynamics. When looking at the actual merits of urban agriculture for men and women, it is important to first differentiate between practical versus strategic interests/needs. Palacios (2003, p. 2) describes **practical needs**

(following Moser) as “immediate needs related to the inadequacy of their living conditions, such as the supply of food, water, health care and employment”. They do not imply changes in gender relations. **Strategic needs** “are related to the division of labour, power and control by the genders, and can include issues such as legal rights, eradication of household violence, equal wages”. Satisfying the strategic needs helps women achieve greater equality and brings about shifts in the existing roles. Although they can be identified and conceptualised individually, practical and strategic needs normally appear and must be treated together. Involvement in urban agriculture can help satisfy both types of needs.

The positive effects of urban agriculture for women can be numerous:

- It allows women to fulfil their role as provider of the family’s food security and nutrition while being less vulnerable to market fluctuations.
- It helps them to create more independence by generating some additional income from sales of surpluses and by saving cash on food expenditures, which can be used for other purposes.
- It allows women to work close to the home and to combine farming with other tasks.
- It can be undertaken with relatively low capital, technology and inputs, making it attainable and affordable for women with limited education and resources.
- It stimulates the use of indigenous practices.
- It may motivate women to go beyond subsistence farming of food for domestic use and engage in related activities like small-scale food processing and marketing, production and sales of compost or animal feed, production and sales of herbs, potted plants, mushrooms and other more profitable urban agriculture micro enterprises.

One should, however, be very careful not to take this list for granted and analyse (and monitor) in each specific situation what positive and negative effects urban agriculture may have (or has) on men and women.

The case of Carapongo, Lima, describes potential benefits of urban agriculture for men and women as well as specific opportunities for women (Box 13).

*Box 13 - Benefits of urban agriculture in Carapongo, Lima, Peru*

Urban agriculture in Carapongo, Lima (see also Box 11), offers several benefits to men and women. Firstly, it offers employment opportunities in the context of serious underemployment and unemployment in Lima. 42% of the men and 34% of the women indicate that farming is one of the few sources of regular employment available to them in the city. Almost 40% identify as a major benefit of farming the ability to pay for education of their children, while 31% regard it as their main source of food security. Furthermore, as the city’s population grows due to migration from rural areas and natural growth, the demand for fresh products also increases, especially for fresh vegetables and animal products. A specific advantage for women of farming in the urban location of Carapongo is that they have easy access to wholesale markets, where they can quickly sell their products, allowing them to combine their domestic tasks with their marketing role. Another positive effect of urban agriculture for women is that it allows them to fulfil their important role of providing for the family’s food security and nutrition. Lastly, it helps them increase their independence by generating some additional income from the sale of surpluses (e.g. guinea pig, which is a novel opportunity market in Carapongo) and by saving cash on food expenditures, which can be used for other purposes. (Adapted from Arce et al., 2004)

On the negative side, women are confronted with problems concerning land tenure. While both women and men face constraints regarding access to land, women are further disadvantaged because they traditionally have less access and control over land than their male companions. Men tend to have the first choice of any available vacant land, which leaves women with low quality or less secure plots of land or plots that are located at a considerable distance from home. Increasing access to land for the family as a whole may not solve the problem for women, due to this inequitable access to urban land between women and men (Hovorka 1998, p. 31).

Another problem often faced by female farmers, such as in Lusaka (Rakodi 1988, p. 513), is the distance to their plots and lack of transportation. Although the cost of land in Lusaka is insignificant,

physical availability is becoming a more important constraint here, as the distance that has to be travelled to reach gardens is extensive. The considerable time and physical effort involved in making such journeys often inhibits women, especially the elderly or those with young children, from becoming involved in food production.

Another constraint is the time involved in the production itself. Although increasing household production of fruit and vegetables, not just for personal consumption but also for selling, would appear to be a desirable strategy, one must take into account the labour time available to women. Their response to opportunities to grow more food or better-earning crops will depend on the extent to which they can influence the decisions in the household about cultivation, the use or sale of produce, and the distribution of tasks and benefits within the household. Also, if women are stimulated to start working with the more profitable crops, which take more time, the nutritional situation of the household might be jeopardised since they then may not have enough time left to produce nutritious food for the household members.

Other problems women often face are lack of inputs and working capital as well as lack of access to knowledge and information on the use of modern inputs and technologies. The latter is partly due to women's limited exposure to commercial urban agriculture or to limited access to training courses offered by institutions or non-governmental organisations. Women are less likely to benefit from research or extension services that fail to consider gender-specific differences when selecting technologies and working methodologies.

Although the positive and negative effects of urban agriculture mentioned above impact mainly women, one has to remember that gender dynamics have an effect on both women and men (see Box 14 for a Senegalese example).

*Box 14 - Gender differences in constraints in urban agriculture in Dakar, Senegal*

Within the coastal fringe commonly known as the Niayes Valley, which runs from Saint-Louis to Dakar, Senegal, a strip of about 350 km wide is often referred to as the 'green lung of the region'. In this Valley, several urban agriculture activities are carried out on a 60 ha area, such as vegetable gardening, floriculture, fishing, fruit and vegetable processing. A gender study conducted in the area determined the constraints encountered in the practice of urban agriculture by both men and women. Although some constraints were commonly identified by both men and women, most differed and those commonly identified were prioritised differently by men and women. According to the male urban farmers, land insecurity is the most important constraint for their activities. They believe these activities being threatened because of the rapid and uncontrolled growth of urbanisation, resulting in the construction of collective housing and infrastructure. Another important constraint is access to water. Watering in this zone is the most time-consuming and physically demanding farming activity, because most farmers use watering cans to water their farms. A third problem particularly relates to access to (other) inputs. For women, the limited access to operational space in which to process agricultural products is the most important constraint, due to the importance of processing in women's activities. Generally, they rent a room in which they gather to carry out their activities. Some women are trained in processing techniques but they rarely receive the necessary assistance (in the form of equipment, functional premises, working capital, etc.) to carry out their activities effectively. Another constraint relates to the problems women have in carrying out certain tough and physically demanding tasks (particularly watering). Women are also constrained by the lack of follow-up after training courses and by the difficulty of mobilising available labour within the family, especially among the children during the academic year. This last difficulty illustrates (in some cases) the insignificant influence women have on their husbands' decision to allow the children to pursue their schooling. As a result of this decision the women have additional chores to carry out in the household. (Adapted from Sy, 2004)

### *3.2.8 Differential impacts of urban agriculture projects*

Urban agriculture projects can have quite different impacts on men and women, depending on the degree to which gender issues have been taken into account during the design and implementation stages. If gender aspects are not taken into account, urban agriculture projects may have positive effects on family income and thus reduce poverty but they may also increase the workload of women,

negatively affect the nutrition and health of the women and children or have a negative influence on the women's strategic interests.

Moreover, literature suggests that urban agriculture projects that integrate gender issues to a high degree tend to have more positive effects not only on the position of women, but also on poverty alleviation, household food security and health. For example, according to Talukder et al. (2007, p. 1), home gardening activities in Bangladesh increase the income-earning capacity of the women and thus contribute to the empowerment of these women, and provide important socio-economic returns through lower health and welfare costs, lower fertility rates and lower maternal and infant mortality rates. Maxwell shows that female-headed households in Accra have lower mean incomes than male-headed households but their food budget shares and calorie availability are significantly higher than those of the male-headed households. Female-headed households spend 60% of their household budgets on food, compared to 50% in male-headed households (Maxwell 1998, p. 24).

### 3.2.9 Specifics of gender in urban agriculture

Many of the above-mentioned key issues can be encountered in many frameworks on gender and agriculture. But what are the specifics of gender in urban agriculture? Are gender issues in agriculture different in an urban setting than in a rural setting, and if so, in what ways? And, are the gender aspects of urban agriculture different from those of other informal urban sectors?

Regarding the differences between the rural and the urban setting, we can say that, in many cases, in the urban setting:

- there is more diversification in sources of income for a family; various family members may have some sort of urban job (eventually next to a role in urban agriculture)
- there are more opportunities for schooling and wage labour for women
- there is more insecurity regarding land tenure/land ownership, particularly for women (Hovorka 1998, p. 31), and there is more theft (Hovorka 2001)
- there are more opportunities for women to obtain (short-term) credit
- it is much more difficult, for a variety of reasons, for women to provide food for their families.

See Box 15 for a description of the situation in Lagos, Nigeria.

#### *Box 15 - Engendered effects of urbanisation on urban farmers in Lagos, Nigeria*

The Lagos metropolis covers an area of about 3,577 km<sup>2</sup> and can be characterised by challenges associated with the urbanisation process, such as waste management problems, housing problems, high population density, food insecurity, extreme poverty, soaring cost of living, high unemployment as a result of mass retrenchment in both private and public municipal establishments, high cost of land and competition for land use, congestion and violent crime. Agro-ecological circumstances allow for diverse vegetable production in the study area. Cultivable crops include spinach, okra, spring onions, *lectus*, *ewedu*, *dally*, green pepper in addition to the main crops cassava, maize, yam, and coco yam. There are about 1530 vegetable farmers scattered all over the metropolis, but the number is always fluctuating due to high seasonal mobility of farmers in certain periods of the year. While the number of women cultivators is very low compared to the number of men, it is important to pay attention to the complexity within the urban system, which makes women's roles and responsibilities in the household and on the farm more demanding. The urban challenges as summarised above tend to increase the women's role and her vulnerability, as more tasks at the household level are transferred to her from her spouse. Coupled with production constraints, such as inadequate credit facilities, lack of access to scarce urban land and credit facilities and unequal access to extension services and agricultural training, these numerous urban challenges have a great negative impact on the social, economic, environmental and health well-being of the urban household. (Adapted from Anosike, 2004)

On the difference between gender in urban agriculture and gender in other urban informal sectors, we can say that

- urban agriculture is, in many cases, especially convenient for married women with children because it can be performed close to the home, requires little cash, and combines well with their household responsibilities

- i women farmers tend to focus on reducing household expenditures by growing their family's food (and eventually selling some surplus production), whereas women active in other informal urban sectors are focused more on generating a cash income. Animals also fulfil an important role as "security" and in certain socio-cultural practices (e.g. marriage).

However, it is important to note here that certain specifics are only true for certain places and times, and that they are subject to a high degree of variability, following from their specific context.

### 3.2.10 Gender, urban agriculture, human rights and development

Attention should be paid to trying to establish the impact of urban agriculture on the well-being, dignity and feelings of self-respect of both women and men. The human development approach (HDA) was one of the first schools of thought that questioned what role development should play in people's sense of self-worth and self-respect. Although this section mostly deals with the HDA and its link with urban agriculture, it is important to note that promoting increased self-respect for women should be seen in the wider context of working toward gender equality as a universal human right. The 1993 Vienna Conference on Human Rights represented a big step forward, as its final Declaration underlines the international consensus reached at the conference and states the following: "*The human rights of women and of the girl-child are an inalienable, integral and indivisible part of universal human rights. The full and equal participation of women in political, civil, economic, social and cultural life, at the national, regional and international levels, and the eradication of all forms of discrimination on grounds of sex are priority objectives of the international community... The human rights of women should form an integral part of the United Nations human rights activities, including the promotion of all human rights instruments relating to women.*" (source: [www.undp.org/rbap/rights/Thematic2.htm](http://www.undp.org/rbap/rights/Thematic2.htm)). Placing the issue of gender within a rights and development framework allows the dialogue to move from non-discrimination, towards a commitment to gender equality of all. Within a human rights perspective, the development aspirations of women and their relationship to men regardless of region or country can be founded on the principles of participation and equality. Thus development programmes should strive for full and free participation of women in all decision making that impacts their lives.

The core of the human development approach is its vision of development as the expansion of people's capabilities and options, with the ultimate goal of enlarging the range of things a person can be and do. In 1990 the Human Development Index (HDI) reflected capabilities to be educated, to live a long and healthy life and to have access to resources needed to enjoy a decent standard of living. Additional factors were defined, such as political freedom, human rights and personal self-respect. A more detailed account of the approach is given in the box below.

#### *Box 16 – The human development approach (HDA)*

The HDA evolved from the UNDP Human Development Report, which shifted the focus of development economics from national income accounting to people-centred policies (Fukuda-Parr, 2002). In shaping the concept of human development, an important role was played by Amartya Sen, whose work on capabilities and functioning provided the strong conceptual foundations for the new paradigm of human development. The core concept of Sen's theory of development as the expansion of capabilities is the idea that the purpose of development is to improve human lives, and that means expanding the range of things that a person could be and do. Human development is a process of enlarging people's choices. From this perspective, development is about removing the obstacles to the things that a person can do in life, such as illiteracy, lack of access to resources, etc. An important feature of the HDA is that it has an explicit basis in philosophical reasoning. Contrary to neo-liberalism and the basic needs approach, it emphasises human rights, freedoms and agency as policy issues and assesses development by the expansion of capabilities of all people. In the HDA a distinction is made between its two central themes: the evaluative aspect and the agency aspect. While the first is concerned with improving human lives as an explicit development objective and with understanding in what ways improvements are to be made, the second is about what human beings can do to achieve such improvements, particularly through policy and political changes. One of the most difficult tasks in applying the capabilities approach to development policy is selecting which capabilities are important. As mentioned by Fukuda-Parr, "The range of human capabilities is infinite and the value that individuals assign to each one varies from one person to another" (Fukuda-Parr, 2002). Two criteria are used to decide which capabilities are important: they have to be

universally valued by people across the world and they have to be basic such that without them, many other capabilities would be impossible. In 1990 the HDI reflected the capabilities to be educated, to live a long and healthy life and to have access to resources needed to enjoy a decent standard of living. However, the HDA was never intended to be defined narrowly by these particular capabilities only, and later on, was developed more to encompass issues such as political freedom, human rights and personal self-respect.

In the literature on urban agriculture, frequent mention is made of the impact urban agriculture has on the self-respect of the urban farmer (male or female). However, this impact is (almost) never quantified and it is usually referred to indirectly, as in a statement by Madaleno: "Poor Brazilian communities see urban agriculture as an alternative survival strategy, because it produces food and improves household nutrition, but also generates income and jobs, while additionally providing self-respect and hope for a better future" (Madaleno, 2002). In an FAO electronic conference on urban agriculture, one of the participants commented: "Instead of giving away food through UN organisations and NGOs, [it] might be more suitable to give away land (first), then seeds, technical advice and subsidies to farmer cooperatives, groups of women and unemployed people, in order to stimulate self-respect, give the poor people some aim in life and hence give them dignity" ([www.fao.org/urbanag/300900-1.htm](http://www.fao.org/urbanag/300900-1.htm)). Reference is also made in the literature to the positive influence on one's mental health. While it is mostly people in Western countries who see this as a motivation for being involved in urban agriculture, the notion is also on the rise in many cities in the South.

The effects of urban agriculture on the development of community bonds are better documented. Producing food in a city environment encourages, for example, cooperation and a sense of sharing. Connectedness with one's environment and the feeling of belonging to a larger whole also adds to personal well-being. But how does urban agriculture influence the self-respect and dignity of the urban farmers in general, and does it have a different effect on women's self worth than on men's? How do we assess and monitor these effects? Why is the relationship between the two almost neglected in the literature? Is it because the whole concept of human development is a relatively new one? Or is it the difficulty of measuring such concepts that limits the number and quality of the references made<sup>3</sup>?

In a recent article, Mehrotra states that one of the guiding principles for public policy intended to promote gender equality is recognition of the importance of women's sense of self worth (Mehrotra 2002). Nussbaum and Sen argue that if the woman in the family thinks other family members have more worthwhile goals than her own, she will bargain weakly. According to Nussbaum, these women have to undergo a two-stage process of awareness: they have to become aware that they are in a bad situation, and then come to see themselves as citizens who have a right to a better situation. The IDRC website has a section on the relation between women living in poverty, their self-respect and health issues. It cites (among others) the following comment by a health professional on the living situation of women in Montevideo, Uruguay: "*Pigsties are better than many of the shacks of these people here. It is difficult to have self-esteem that way, everything points to your undervaluation as a person. They do not take care of themselves as people, they belittle themselves as women, they have no self-respect*" The website goes on to describe how harsh living conditions lead to feelings of negativity and low self-esteem, the positive effect of education on the self-confidence of women, the positive effect of acknowledging a women's economic contribution to the household and the community and the effect of an increased self-esteem on the way in which women express their opinions and viewpoints. It also describes the formation of women's groups as a good starting point in accomplishing increased self-confidence of women ([http://web.idrc.ca/es/ev-27479-201-1-DO\\_TOPIC.html](http://web.idrc.ca/es/ev-27479-201-1-DO_TOPIC.html)).

With regard to urban agriculture in particular, numerous examples can be given of cases where the link between participation in urban farming has led to increased self-respect and increased social respect from the surrounding community. (See Box 17 for the case of Sanikanchi Adhikari in Nepal). However, there is still a great need for research into the role urban agriculture can play, or already plays, in increasing the self-confidence of female but also male urban farmers; for awareness raising among

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<sup>3</sup> The publication by Klasen (entitled 'Gender-related Indicators of Well-being', March 2004, United Nations University, World Institute for Development Economics Research - WIDER) describes the problematic character of constructing gender-related well-being indicators.

stakeholders on the importance of these norms and values for development; as well as for an operationalisation of the concept into more measurable variables.

*Box 17 – From poverty to dignity in Nepal*

Sanikanchi Adhikari used to have great problems in providing even the daily subsistence needs of her family. Her husband managed to lose all of their property by taking out a number of loans using the property as collateral, and then misusing the money. In due course, Sanikanchi joined a cooperative in May/June 1999. It was difficult to pay the Rs.700 (US\$9) necessary for membership in the cooperative (for five shares at the rate of Rs.100 [US\$ 1.3] per share, plus Rs.100 entry fee and Rs.100 in monthly savings for May/June), however, by joining a group first, she was able to acquire membership. Sanikanchi intended to get a loan from the cooperative to do some agro-based enterprise activities, but other group members did not want to serve as guarantor for her, as she did not have any property. Fortunately, the chairperson of MPSACCO, Mrs Jamuna Shrestha, agreed to be her guarantor. In this way, Sanikanchi received a loan amounting to Rs.30, 000 (US\$390) from the cooperative. She subsequently invested that loan in poultry farming by purchasing 200 chickens. Through her laborious work and concentration on poultry farming, she gradually became successful, and her income also increased. Sanikanchi earned Rs.300, 000 (US\$3,896) from this enterprise, and has now upgraded to 1,800 chickens. From her earnings, she acquired wheat and millet crops, and cultivated potatoes and various green vegetables. She used the chicken dung to fertilise these activities. She then started selling the crops at the nearest market in Kathmandu and made a good profit from it. Gradually, Sanikanchi has been able to pay back more than half of her husband's loan, which has decreased from Rs.800, 000 (US\$10,390) to Rs.300, 000 (US\$3,896). In addition, she successfully recovered 0.15 hectares of land used as collateral by her husband. All the while, she has provided good care and education to her children. Through all of these activities, Sanikanchi has also succeeded in gaining social respect. (from: *Urban Agriculture Magazine*, no. 9, 2003).

### **3.3 Guidelines, methodologies and recommendations**

Although gender concepts are valuable, they are not sufficient to promote the mainstreaming of gender in urban agriculture projects. We also need tools and instruments for:

- engendering the diagnosis of the situation and the identification of problems, potentials, actors
- engendering research (e.g. technology development and testing) with regard to urban agriculture
- engendering policy development on urban agriculture
- engendering action planning, implementation and monitoring/evaluation
- engendering the integration of urban agriculture in urban planning (territorial)

Many gender guidelines and manuals exist, but none of these are adapted to the specific situation of urban agriculture (with the exception of Hovorka 1998, IDRC Cities Feeding People #26).

While attempts have been made to develop appropriate methods for researching and promoting urban agriculture (e.g. the methodology workshop RUAFA-IDRC, Nairobi 2002), so far gender aspects have been insufficiently integrated. Hence, the development of such engendered guidelines and instruments specific for urban agriculture is still a challenge.

The importance of gender analysis and planning is described by Palacios (2003, p. 1-2), who believes urban agriculture could and should be based on a practice that generates more equitable social relations. If the data in a diagnosis are not broken down by gender, the project, plan or policy will be based on an overall vision that disregards the differences between genders. It will thus suggest common answers to problems that, in practice, are different, and, as a result will likely deepen those differences and inequalities.

In the gender analysis and planning process, it is important to:

- recognise that women and men have different needs
- identify the mechanisms that keep women in a disadvantageous position
- identify the possible impacts of urban agriculture on the reproductive, productive, community, political and cultural roles and areas of social interaction of women and men

- identify the practical and strategic needs of men and women and work on both, but pay particular attention to the strategic needs, because meeting them tends to create more of a balance in gender relations
- define equality policies and affirmative actions that render gender equality operational in the urban agriculture process.

When providing policy recommendations with regard to urban agriculture it is important to conceptualise gender as a social, political, economic and cultural issue, and as a human right's issue, to which different actors (local governments, institutions and organisations) have to respond. Urban agriculture policies should be based on acknowledgement of the real value of women's contribution to production should contribute to the recognition of women's economic rights and should target both women and men as beneficiaries.

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## **4. CASE STUDIES**

### **4.1 Introduction**

Prior to the workshop, each participant was requested to prepare and submit a case study on gender in urban agriculture. In response to this request, RUAF partners undertook small exploratory studies in individual selected neighbourhoods or cities. They applied some engendered participatory rural appraisal methods and followed guidelines supplied by the RUAF coordinator. Funds to conduct these case studies were supplied by IDRC. Urban Harvest partners in most cases reported on studies conducted in the context of their ongoing research projects. The results were presented at the workshop and are summarised below. The full papers of the case studies will be published on the RUAF website ([www.ruaf.org](http://www.ruaf.org)).

### **4.2 Engendering agricultural research: A case study of Hyderabad City, India**

by G. Devi Mekala, S. Buechler, and N. Peesapaty  
IWMI-International Water Management Institute, Hyderabad Office

Hyderabad is one of the fastest growing cities in the world. It is spread out over an area of 500 km<sup>2</sup> and has a population of 6 million. The study was done in two locations: the urban area of Kachiguda, located almost in the centre of the city, and the peri-urban area of Pirzadiguda. The main crops grown in the urban area are para grass, green leafy vegetables, banana plants and coconut palms, while in the peri-urban location they are para-grass and leafy vegetables. Various crops irrigated with wastewater are cultivated along the Musi River, which flows right through the centre of the city. Most of the vegetable farmers are women, who are generally less educated than men. Most urban agriculture households are made up of migrants from rural areas whose main skill is farming. Vegetable production is labour intensive and the opportunity cost of labour is lower for women than for men. Leafy vegetables can be grown in small, manageable plots and all operations from ploughing to harvesting the crop can be done by women without any help from men. In para-grass production, men dominate mainly due to higher profit margins, while in milk production, men and women play an equally important role. All social reproductive activities are done by women. Most community activities fall usually under the male domain. Since the criterion for membership in the Hyderabad Farmers' Association is land ownership, it has very few women members. The few women who are members do not participate in meetings since women perceive these meetings to be exclusively for men and because of social barriers to women speaking in public.

In Hyderabad, land is considered to be a resource for men. Legally, inherited land should be equally distributed between sons and daughters. But the land title is usually in the name of male head of the household and after he dies, it is inherited by his son(s). Women usually do not file a case against their father or brothers even if they do not get their share of the land. The main reason is that a father pays a dowry to the bridegroom for the wedding of his daughter and that is supposed to compensate for the land that will go to his son(s). Culturally, women are taught that land is a man's property. Women get land titles only if their husbands die and their sons are too young (less than 18 years old). Divorce is not common and even in the rare event of a divorce, land remains with the husband. Renting of land for urban agriculture is done by both male and female farmers. Women renters are considered more reliable.

In both the urban and peri-urban locations, it was found that there are no formal sources of credit. People borrow amongst themselves. Female farmers are considered more credit worthy and reliable than men. But male farmers have better access because of higher social capital than men control, in the sense that they know greater numbers of people and have a wider network of friends. In terms of control, the female farmers have only partial control over the money they borrow if it is a male-headed household. The male head usually controls all household resources and can divert money for something he considers to be a priority, even if it is not the purpose his wife borrowed the money for. Women farmers thus may have to compromise on the extent to which they can invest in urban agriculture activities and hence forego the benefits they could reap with increased investments. Also, men have greater access to and control of information than women due to their higher education levels and higher

social capital. This implies that male farmers are more likely to make an informed choice and to benefit from this choice than female farmers.

Men take most decisions related to production and all decisions related to investment and reproduction. There are very few decisions in which women have an equal say and most of these decisions are shared by default, not by design. According to the women, most decisions are male dominated because men are the household heads and culturally therefore the decision-makers. To influence these decisions, women have to be aware of the issues and have knowledge and skills regarding them. But women do not have the knowledge and required skills because they are less educated (the education of boys / men takes priority over that of girls/ women) and their movement and mobility are restricted by social norms.

### **4.3 Gender and urban agriculture: The case of Accra, Ghana**

by G. Danso, O. Cofie, L. Annang, E. Obuobie and B. Keraita  
IWMI-International Water Management Institute, Accra Office

Accra, the capital of Ghana, is located in the coastal-savannah zone and has about 1.7 million inhabitants, 49% of whom are male and 51% female. Accra has seven main urban agriculture production types: backyard gardening, fish farming, livestock farming, irrigated vegetable gardening, small ruminants and poultry, seasonal crop farming, and miscellaneous activities, such as the raising of export crops, micro livestock, snail farming and beekeeping. Irrigated urban vegetable production has been found to be the dominant agriculture activity within urban Accra and is mostly practiced along streams and drains in up to seven open spaces in the city.

In Accra, it is men who dominate urban farming because of the arduous nature of the farming tasks. Land preparation is mainly manual and vegetable cultivation requires numerous activities such as regular watering, planting and transplanting, shading in some cases, regular turning of the soil and weeding. Land clearing, land preparation and watering are the most difficult tasks and are usually considered to be male activities. Moreover, male farmers produce more water-demanding crops, which are also more profitable, while the women grow less water-demanding and less profitable crops. Whereas men can supplement their effort by providing paid labour, half of independent women cultivators mainly depend on male labourers (paid labour) to carry out land clearing and preparation tasks. In effect, women who would like to earn a living from urban farming lose many opportunities because of the longer periods during which irrigation is necessary. However, with regard to marketing, it is the women who dominate.

Women in Accra mostly work on the farms of their husbands where they are made to focus on food crops for home consumption, whilst the husbands concentrate on commercial crops. In many cases, the women are given the unfertile land to cultivate and improve by applying manure and other fertilisers. Men then take over the fertile plots and reallocate the unfertile portion of the land to the women for cultivation.

Very often there is a link between the educational level of a household and its labour division: the higher the educational level of the household head, the more equal the labour division among household members is, irrespective of tradition. In many homes where couples are educated and gainfully employed, financial responsibilities and domestic chores are no longer borne exclusively by males and females respectively. In such situations, household duties are performed by whoever is available at the particular time. In gender analysis leading to policy formulation, one should therefore not overlook the educational levels of the individuals, nor the norms, perceptions and cultural values of the society.

In general, urban farmers do not have access to formal credit schemes in Ghana. This is mainly because farmers cannot meet the collateral demands of the financial institutions. In addition, most of the urban farmers have limited space for cultivation and do not own the land. In spite of these problems, some urban farmers have managed to achieve a win-win situation with the vegetable sellers in terms of

access to informal credit (e.g. sellers pre-finance farming activities by providing seeds, fertiliser, pesticides or cash in order to obtain the vegetables subsequently produced).

Even though some communities disallow women from owning land, this pertains mainly to communal land in peri-urban and rural areas and has little or no effect on access to land for farming in the open spaces within the cities. 70% of the land being cultivated in the urban areas belongs to the government and access to this land is not based on gender differences. This is very interesting, as this would mean that the urban situation would “rule out” culture and traditions, or would at least make them less important. 87% of the farmers indicated that men and women have equal access to government land in urban open-spaces in Accra. Access to government land is based on availability and the lobbying strategies of individuals. In most cases, access is achieved via direct contact with the owner or caretaker or through a third party working with the government institutions in the area. In some peri-urban areas of Accra where sharecropping is used as payment for cultivating land owned by individuals, landowners or traditional leaders (e.g. chiefs) prefer that men rather than women cultivate larger plots, hence providing them with greater benefit. The landowners believe that men are likely to produce higher yields than women.

#### **4.4 Gender and coping strategies for access to land for urban agriculture in Kampala City, Uganda**

by J. Kiguli  
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The city of Kampala is built on several hills surrounded by swamps. It is spread out over 195 km<sup>2</sup> and has an estimated population of 1.5 million people. The commonest type of farming is subsistence mixed farming, which is undertaken by traditional farmers with large tracts of land in the peri-urban areas, who were engulfed by urban development and city expansion as well as by migrants from rural areas in search of employment. Here, urban agriculture is a land use located in open spaces. It occurs on large tracts of private and public land that remains underdeveloped. Mostly, it is women and children who plant, weed and harvest, while men market the produce. Most farms in Kampala are female headed. Men prefer to keep animals while women prefer to grow vegetables and other food crops on the farms.

In Kampala, the lack of access to land for female urban farmers, which in itself is due to the lack of information and the patriarchal land tenure relations which deny the majority of women land ownership rights, is a major prohibitive factor in their economic development. While the state laws may not deny women ownership and access rights, culture and indigenous land tenure relations have afforded women none or limited land tenure rights. In male-headed households, men determine the size of land to access for farming and the type of crops to be grown. Women generally do not hold titles to land. They are prevented from having a voice in stating their needs due to their ethnic background and traditions. Within the community, it is the elders and local authorities who permit accessibility and ownership. These happen to be men because sons or the nearest male relatives are given charge of any parcel of land left by a deceased member of the family. In addition, local councils administer all villages/wards. Here, all posts are officially open to women, but currently there is only one woman on the committee (because the position of secretary is defined as a women’s post) while men occupy the other seats. So decision making at the community level is perceived and treated as a man’s role. To sell land or resolve a land conflict, permission must be sought from the local council leaders and, as the majority are men, they tend to favour their own sex.

The lack of education for women is another limitation. Most female urban farmers have had a primary education or sometimes no education at all. This determines the kind of work they can do and explains why poverty is a great problem for women in particular: few of them participate in the formal sector and many stay at home as housewives, backyard farmers or petty traders in foodstuffs at evening candlelight markets by the roadsides. This makes them susceptible to poverty, resulting in poor standards of living.

Within the households, it is the men who control the major source of household income and determine how to use it. The men purchase the farm inputs and equipment like hoes and *pangas*. It is they who have a strong hold on the household budget and allocate a certain amount of money to women, who in turn decide on household expenditure priorities. There are currently many micro-finance schemes in Kampala, but male chauvinism and lack of collateral prevent women from gaining access to credit. Some husbands do not allow their wives to carry out large viable projects. As some men do not allow their wives to speak directly to other men, this limits women in their contact with extension workers. These also often only tend to target male farmers or people with high incomes, which further aggravates the situation for women.

#### **4.5 Key gender issues in urban food production and food security in Kisumu, Kenya**

by Z. Ishani  
Mazingira Institute, Nairobi

The city of Kisumu is situated on the shores of Lake Victoria. It covers an area of 395.1 km<sup>2</sup> of which 35.5% is covered by water. The population of Kisumu is estimated to be 535,664. In the city, one of the most prevalent forms of urban agriculture is urban livestock keeping. According to the households approached for a scoping study done in 2002 by Mazingira Institute, livestock keeping does not require much work. The animals that are kept, being local and considered hardy, require little care, roam freely or are taken out by hired labourers. The hired labourers also carry out most of the work of tending the animals.

The distinction made in the study between male-headed households (MHHs) and female headed-households (FHHs) is decisive for the characteristics and organisation of these households. Generally, almost all of the households (both FHHs and MHHs) keep local livestock and the most common livestock are goats. In terms of numbers, chickens are the greatest. In FHHs, the second most important type is chickens, but in MHHs, it is pigs.

Men in MHHs claimed that they share the work of livestock keeping with their wives, while the wives indicated that they do most of the work. Men are involved in animal health while the women do the routine work. In the MHHs, both the husband and wife are involved in the marketing of the livestock but the wife cannot sell without the authority of the husband. The reproductive tasks are carried out by the wife in a MHH. In FHHs both the mother and son(s) take care of animal health and in their absence, the other females in the household are involved. Here, the women are the ones who are involved in marketing of the livestock. In FHHs, the interviewees were mostly elderly women. They hire labourers to look after the livestock. The sons are rarely involved in the day-to-day work as they are usually employed elsewhere.

The number of MHHs that keep livestock for commercial purposes is greater than the number of FHHs. In FHHs, livestock is generally not really considered as an income-generating asset, possibly because most of the female heads of household are elderly widows with no intentions to make livestock a commercial venture. In the case of financial property, in MHHs, men generally have the upper edge regarding money. Concerning consumption property, men decide and control what happens to large livestock; and women do so for the small livestock. Men also have a stronger say in practices concerning production property. In the case of livestock, the preferences of men prevail on the choice of type of livestock, regarding animal health and the disposal of livestock (whether for consumption or for income).

In Kisumu, control over property is largely determined by who is the household head. Land and houses are in the man's name, stemming from the patriarchal cultural traditions of the Luo community. However, inheritance and purchasing of livestock play an equally important role in FHHs. This is surprising as according to Luo tradition, wives or daughters do not inherit property and yet some women have inherited livestock, mostly from their husbands. This shows that the traditions are changing due to the impact of the market economy, urbanisation and the prevalence of HIV/AIDS. As for decision-making, in

MHHs, there is more shared decision-making than in FHHs. In FHHs, the woman makes all the decisions.

It appears that finances are not a constraint as far as FHHs were concerned. Livestock is kept for subsistence and not for sale. Credit for livestock is insignificant and the micro-credit institutions that exist seem insufficiently geared toward urban agriculture. Although most of the female farmers are members of informal groups and some men are members of welfare associations, it seems as though funds obtained are not used for urban agriculture. It appears that the livestock keepers are not keen on taking loans, as they are worried that in case of defaulting, their property will be taken away. Women seem better at repaying loans and have built stronger networks (in both MHHs and FHHs) than men, but these networks are for economic or social reasons and do not have anything to do with urban agriculture per se. Furthermore, both men and women do not seem to have the right information or knowledge regarding livestock husbandry practices.

#### **4.6 A study of gender and urban agriculture in Villa Maria del Triunfo, Lima, Peru**

by G. Merzthal  
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Villa María del Triunfo (VMT) is a municipality in the Southern Cone of Lima, Peru. The municipality has a total area of 70 km<sup>2</sup> and an urban area of only 21 km<sup>2</sup>. It is the 8th most populous municipality in the country, with a population of 330,000 inhabitants. The urban producers in VMT are aged: 40% are over 53 years old (both men and women). The urban agriculture households are involved in vegetable, fruit and animal production as well as the production of decorative plants. Most households use an area of between 5 and 20 m<sup>2</sup>. Of all households, 82% practice urban agriculture recreationally and consume what they produce, 3% (all women) practice urban agriculture with the goal of supplementing their family income, and 15% (all women) see urban agriculture as a potential strategy for the generation of supplementary family income. Developing urban agriculture also provides women with economic independence and household recognition without compromising their reproductive role. Fewer men participate in urban agriculture, because they do not see this activity as a viable strategy for the generation of direct income. They therefore dedicate little time to it and give priority to other income-generating activities. However, they are interested in using urban agriculture to generate income, particularly through processing activities.

84% of the urban producers only carry out production activities. Production activities are equally carried out by men and women, due mostly to the recreational character of urban agriculture and the plot size, while processing and marketing activities are mainly done by women. Given the recreational purpose, both male and female producers dedicate themselves to this activity in their "free" time. Furthermore, the current purpose (recreation and self-consumption) of urban agriculture avoids conflicts within families relating to the access to and control over resources and benefits of home gardens. Women make decisions without intervention from men, since urban agriculture is still not of relevance to men. However, when the possibility of generating visible income through commercialisation arises, men want to take part in decision-making. When striving to make urban agriculture an income-generating activity, it is necessary to identify strategies to avoid conflicts and inequalities in the control over the benefits arising from home gardens.

Among urban producers, 46% have some activity at the community level and 88% of these are women. However, the community role of these women is not a political or decision-making one, but rather an extension of their reproductive role at the community level (neighbourhood kitchens). Men's community activities basically occur at the level of politics and decision making (e.g. as members or presidents of neighbourhood commissions.) Therefore women still have limited access to decision making and political representation.

67% of the male urban producers have some income-generating activity outside of the household as opposed to only 25% of the women urban producers. 44% of male producers and 36% of female producers indicate that decisions about the use of family income are taken jointly. 20% of the female

respondents depend on income generated by spouses and sons. 41% of women indicate that they alone make decisions about the use of family income, whereas only 22% of men report making such decisions alone. Decision making about household management and children is carried out or influenced by women, while decisions relating to production are taken by the person who manages the home garden, or are influenced, in the case of male producers, by spouses and children. However, decisions relating to surplus production that can be commercialised and to investments that will strengthen or expand urban agriculture activities are made jointly.

With regard to the access to and control over resources for urban agriculture, both men and women indicate that they do not have problems with access to land (their own back yards) or inputs. The main obstacles related to urban agricultural production are: access to water (for both men and women), lack of periodic technical assistance (more for women), access to inputs (more for women), training (more for men) and lack of demand for their products (mostly a problem for men).

#### **4.7 Gender roles in small-scale vegetable production in Lagos, Nigeria**

by V. Anosike

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The Lagos metropolis covers an area of about 3,577 km<sup>2</sup> and lies at an altitude of between 1m and 40m above sea level. Lagos is characterised by challenges associated with the urbanisation process. These include waste management problems, housing problems, food insecurity, extreme poverty, soaring cost of living, high unemployment, high cost of land and competition for land use and violent crime. Faced with all these challenges, it is often difficult for families to obtain a diet that meets the minimum protein requirement. Urban farming within Lagos therefore constitutes one of the highest sources of protein, vitamins and herbal medicines for many urban households.

In trying to meet their productive and reproductive responsibilities within a complex environment, women are faced with many challenges. Although women have become increasingly involved in urban small-scale vegetable farming, the unequal access to productive resources and unfavourable economic and political policies, which underestimate the contribution of women to socio-economic development, only make the challenges worse.

According to our case study, the division of labour in the household is not strictly gender specific. Culturally, it is required that the man, who is often the head of the household, puts down money or provides resources for all the needs of the household, while the woman utilises the money and/or resources to take care of the household. However, this case study revealed that women carry out tasks that are ordinarily meant for men in addition to their own. The findings showed that women are increasingly taking on the men's role at the household level and that this is determined by many factors including polygamy, single parenthood and widowhood. It was also discovered that in spite of the weight of the household responsibility women often bear, they do not have adequate access to production resources compared to male farmers. Household decisions are still taken by men.

The extent to which women are involved in vegetable farming depends on a number of factors such as resources availability, access to major inputs (land, capital, labour and entrepreneurship), as well as their socio-economic status. Women's participation in urban agriculture is hampered by a number of issues: a general apathy toward agricultural practice in the city, the rigor and intensity of the activity and inadequate municipal support, (a lack of markets, inadequate access to land and credit facilities), which forces women to participate more in marketing rather than in cultivating. Furthermore, the vegetable farmers' associations do not have women members. This means that women's interests are not represented when decisions that concern farmers are taken. The association for women vegetable farmers is economically and otherwise inadequate to agitate for any meaningful demands for women farmers.

#### 4.8 Gender and urban agriculture in Carapongo, Lima, Peru

by B. Arce, G. Prain and L. Maldonado  
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Carapongo, a neighbourhood in the eastern shantytowns of Lima, Peru, covers an area of 400 hectares and has more than three times as much cultivated land as residential area. Agriculture constitutes an important part of the urban population's income. However, urban farmers mostly combine farming with other employment (48%), mainly because of the limited access to land. Farming is mainly characterised by mixed cropping of vegetables on similar sized farm plots, mainly for commercial sale, while raising livestock is practiced for family consumption and for sale. Three functional groups can be identified by their production systems: those that have crop-livestock production systems (65%), crop production systems (33%) and livestock production systems (2%). In Carapongo agricultural production for subsistence and income and employment generation co-exist in a range of different combinations. In rearing animals, the women tend to emphasise the importance of production for subsistence, whereas their husbands see it as an additional income source. In crop production both emphasise the importance of the market, though families also consume a small part of the harvest.

In 70% of cases men were "mainly responsible" for the farm and in 30% women were considered to be so. The division of tasks between men and women in each urban agriculture production system or farming type is different, according to the farmer type they belong to, cultural group, the socio-economic status of the household, the species and size of the livestock and the location of the household in the city (the same factors are found to influence the decision-making power of women and men as well). Although many tasks are shared, a general pattern exists in which men take on more of the agricultural activities (60% to 40%) and women participate more in livestock activities (70% to 30%). On the other hand, for larger livestock like cows and goats men are more commonly involved. Women clearly play a bigger part in post-harvest and marketing tasks, while men are more involved in the purchase of inputs (46%), and in obtaining land for farming. Regarding the reproductive activities, women play a key role, which is particularly difficult for women heads-of-households.

One of the major constraints faced by men and women, who inherit, buy, rent, borrow, or illegally use land for urban agriculture is the growing city. Inherited resources are, at least in theory, divided equally among children, both male and female. Women can and do buy and rent land. The person accessing the land in one of these different ways is often the person who also administers it. Of the 36% of farmers who have their own land, only 49% of these have a formal title. But although women inherit land and are free to purchase or rent it, the evidence in this study indicates that they have less access to and control over land than men. In Carapongo, women participate very little as representatives with decision-making power in public or community organisations.

Only a quarter of male farmers and a fifth of female farmers identified a water scarcity problem. The principal problem is contaminated water and also consumption of contaminated food, particularly vegetables. Access to and control over the inputs for crop-livestock production depends on use type. Access to social capital is variable between men and women. In the study area, there are almost no formal sources of credit or loans and 65% and 73% of households respectively claim not to have any access to either. Available credit forms are informal ones: through small kiosks or, for agricultural inputs, through the agricultural supply shops and the manure traders or families. Male farmers have better access to agricultural credit because of more frequent interactions with suppliers. Regarding the gender aspects of human capital formation, both men and women report a lack of access to training or information regarding crops and livestock husbandry practices, though women are at a much greater disadvantage.

Where a woman has control over land through whatever means, she most often has the right to decide on the sale of produce. She would also be likely to maintain control over the proceeds. On the other hand, since men are more commonly in control of land, the women "have to account for money obtained from selling" to their husbands. Women take decisions on spending money if the amount is a small sum. But, for all larger expenses, both men and women take the decisions.

#### **4.9 Women in urban agriculture: The case of the Sampaguita garland livelihood system in Metro Manila, The Philippines**

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Sampaguita (*Jasminum sambac* (L.) Ait.) is a jasmine plant with white, dainty, and very fragrant flowers. Strung together into garlands, they are widely used by Filipinos to venerate religious icons in churches and homes, adorn wedding and funeral ceremonies, welcome visitors and congratulate new graduates. The smallness and simplicity of sampaguita, considered the Philippine national flower, belie its role as an important source of livelihood for poor peri-urban and urban households in Metro Manila. In this case study, four households were interviewed, taking into consideration the diversity of activities and roles played by members of a household involved in the sampaguita livelihood system.

All farmers interviewed are male, and they are responsible for farm maintenance. In sampaguita farming households, the farmers' wives usually transport the daily harvest of flowers to the San Pedro market and pick up the payment for those flowers from traders. Flower pickers tend to be women and young children among the case study households, as the task requires small and agile hands. Women working in farming-related activities earn modest incomes, but their families are often very poor and these incomes make a significant contribution to their households.

In the garland-contracting business, the gender roles are not as well defined. There is no established gender differentiation among these roles. Garland makers; however, tend to be women, usually unemployed housewives. In all cases, the wives receive and handle the money generated from any sampaguita livelihood activity. Within the households, the women are responsible for most of the household reproductive tasks. In all the households in the study, women have a high level of control over productive resources. While the men in sampaguita farming households control most of the assets (land, livestock, water, equipment), the women control much of the market information and the cash income. Loans for as high as 10,000 pesos can be accessed from the traders in San Pedro. Both husband and wife decide when to access this loan, which is often used for the educational needs of the children. These women may not control the land, but they do control the income and how it is used. Thus, the sampaguita livelihood system empowers them with important decision-making capabilities. The garland makers too have control over their income and situation, albeit at a much smaller scale.

Within the sampaguita livelihood system, several constraints affect the various actors. One of the main concerns is the overuse or misuse of pesticides on sampaguita: farmers spray as many as four times a week. Farmers are often oblivious to the negative health effects that can result from using either very toxic or unsafe pesticides or simply using too much pesticide. Because it is women and children who pick the sampaguita buds, they re-enter the farm less than 12 hours after spraying and thus are the most exposed to the health risks associated with pesticides. Health problems they encounter include skin rashes and breathing difficulties. Furthermore, most farmers are living illegally on government land, and could be removed without notice. Another phenomenon, which could be threatening the persistence of this urban agricultural activity, is the lack of interest among young people. In most households in the study, children who have become higher educated are now working in Manila or in other countries, leaving sampaguita farming to their parents.

A better crop management system is needed to improve sampaguita flower production and achieve better environment and health protection. An on-going project aims to develop an integrated pest management (IPM) scheme for sampaguita to rationalise the use of pesticides near urban households. A health information campaign is needed to provide women with better knowledge of how pesticides affect their health and environment. At post-production level, there is a need to identify better storage methods for sampaguita flowers. It is also critically important that the actual size of the sampaguita garland industry has not yet been established; and this may be the reason little attention has been given by government and private organisations to this important urban agriculture activity. Lastly, there is a need to identify and expand novel uses for sampaguita.

#### **4.10 The changing role of women in urban agriculture in China**

by J. Cai, L. Xie and Z. Yang

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The focus of this study was on the changing role of women in China as seen from a historical perspective. Chinese women's role in agriculture and the family has changed dramatically over the past decades. Prior to 1949, when China was a feudal country, women's role in society was basically confined to their families and housework. They depended on their husbands economically and socially. After liberation in 1949, women in China were encouraged to have an independent job outside of the home. It appeared as if they had achieved equal status with men, based on the principle of equal work with equal pay. But actually, women still had more household responsibilities than men, which put even more pressure on women. The introduction of reform and the "Opening-up" policy brought great changes to rural China. As surplus male labourers were sent to work on the land, women went back home and continued enjoying equality with men. After the cities opened their doors and male labourers engaged in non-agricultural work, women became the main forces of agricultural activities.

This was particularly true for urban agriculture, especially in terms of time involvement and management. Women are now the most important labourers of the family and spend a lot of time in the field. They are the ones who make family decisions. They decide what to do, what to grow or feed. With new experiences and technologies, they began to consider how to make agriculture more profitable. While men are generally responsible for the more laborious work and women participate in the fieldwork, women also dominate the marketing of urban farm products. They sell the products and determine prices based on the market information they gather. They are better at bargaining than men and naturally have more power in decision making.

#### **4.11 Gender and urban agriculture: A case study of three communities in Greater Freetown, Sierra Leone**

by T.R.A. Winnebaha, C.S. Margao, I.S. Barrie, J. Domingo, A.I. Koroma, J.D.J. Momo, A. Bundukha, M. Brown and J.C. Hanson

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Freetown, the capital of Sierra Leone, has a population of about two million people. Within Freetown, specific sites in the Bormeh/Kingtom dumpsite, New England/George Brook and Regent farming communities were purposively selected for this study. They can be described, respectively, as urban core, urban and peri-urban locations. Production of a leafy traditional vegetable variety is the main type of farming, found particularly within the urban core areas and high nutrient demanding ones about five to six miles from the centre of Greater Freetown. Livestock activities range from poultry and pig production on a small scale for consumption to large scale production for cash, particularly in the periphery of the GF areas.

The findings from the study suggest that the majority of farmers engaged in urban vegetable production are women and that they contribute more to the labour for vegetable production than men. When there is fewer non-farm income earning opportunities for men, they are more engaged in urban agriculture activities. Provided the cash is available for renting and one has the right type of social relationship (e.g. long-standing relationship and goodwill using produce from farming), access to land is not a major constraint for either male or female farmers in all three communities. Land ownership, however, is a problem.

At all the sites, male and female farmers have both access to and control over family labour. Female farmers are disadvantaged, however, when they sometimes have to hire labour (mostly male) for heavier tasks. Financial constraints may be the limiting factor in deciding who gains access and control. The lower financial status of female farmers compared to their male counterparts may be a problem. In the three communities studied, gender differences in access to and control over technical and market

information are absent because of poorly developed extension services. Men and women in all communities have equal access to market information. Lack of access to credit is a major constraint for most farmers in Sierra Leone, although women tend to have more difficulties in accessing credit. Generally for married women, it is the husbands who may control the benefits from production, whereas widows and single women have more control over the proceeds from their farms.

Decisions on crop planning are taken by the farmer in charge, whether this is a man or a woman. It is noticeable that decisions on livestock are often also influenced by the children in the household. In Sierra Leone, women are generally less involved in decision making in the communities than men. In the urban and peri-urban communities covered by the study, more men participate in making important community decisions such as land tenure, labour use, water management, etc. This might be because men are generally regarded as household heads and they also hold more positions of responsibility in the community. This affects the access of female farmers to and their control over productive resources.

Generally urban farmers face numerous constraints (such as limited cash, pest damage, illness, accidents and security of land tenure), although female farmers tend to be more affected. Opportunities exist in the form of farmer collectives, extension service opportunities, government policy on food security) but they are often too pro-rural. If urban agriculture is to be improved, policy makers should ensure gender equity in the accessibility to and control over production resources and consider gender role differences and interrelated issues in all future development policy.

#### **4.12 Integration of women in farming activities in the Niayes Valley of Pikine (Senegal)**

by M. Sy  
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Within the coastal fringe commonly known as the Niayes Valley, which runs from Saint-Louis to Dakar, Senegal, a strip of about 350 km wide is often referred to as the “green lung of the region”. In this valley, several urban agriculture activities are carried out on a 60 ha area, such as vegetable gardening, floriculture, fishing, fruit and vegetable processing. This study investigated the gender aspects of the division of labour, access to and control over resources and decision-making powers of the urban farmers in the study area.

With regard to the activities related to urban agriculture, it is clear that production activities are carried out mostly by men, as these require strenuous physical effort. The fact that women rarely own the land also contributes to this division of tasks. Generally, the land is owned by men and their wives intervene downstream, i.e. in the harvesting and marketing. Women are dependent on the men with regard to marketing decisions and fixing the selling prices of their products. Their activities are thus blocked by their lack of control over the benefits of production. However, resale activities are always assigned to women. Men sell the products on-farm to women who buy them directly. Men hardly go to the market to sell their products. Processing is essentially done by women. Housework and preparing meals are also done by women, while men do the livestock feeding.

The men's activities are a lot more regular than those of women because their daily presence on the farm is necessary. Men have almost no other activities besides farm work. Women work very often but it seems that it is with their husbands' blessing.

When it comes to community tasks, women are very active but they rarely become municipal advisers. The decision-making authorities are dominated by men.

Profit sharing between husbands and wives follows economic criteria, i.e. men often sell their products to their wives and the latter sell them and keep the profit. The women generally use their income for their children (food, clothing) and for social expenditures (family ceremonies). They also use their income to buy clothes and jewellery. Very often, men are responsible for the management of all the funds, even in cases where they are directly paid to the women. The wife then hands over the profit to her husband who pays her at his discretion.

While women can have access to training, men proportionally have too much power over whether their wives may undergo this training or not. Men also have too much power over the credit available to the couple. Women contract the credit but, very often, men control its use. Although men and women seem to have similar access to resources, it is the men who control them. When the couple engages in urban agriculture, the husband's views are overriding because they are responsible for all production-related activities.

One of the most important constraints mentioned by all the producers who participated in the study is land insecurity. The farm operators believe that their activity in the Niayes Valley is threatened because of the rapid and uncontrolled growth of urbanisation. Other constraints mentioned are access to water, the toughness of the task and the access to inputs. Constraints specifically pertaining to women are the availability of operational premises to process agricultural products, the toughness of the task, the lack of follow-up after training courses and the difficulty of mobilising available labour within the family.

#### **4.13 Mainstreaming gender in urban agriculture: A case study of Musikavanhu Project, Harare, Zimbabwe**

by T. Mubvami and S. Mushamba

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The Musikavanhu project, which was originally concentrated in Budiro and Glen View and has now spread to the other low-income suburbs of Harare, started with seven families meeting and agreeing to form a group that would work together and engage in urban farming. Currently, 95% of the estimated 20,000 members of the project are women. Members of the Musikavanhu project are involved in a number of urban agriculture activities. These activities include the growing of vegetables on irrigated plots, using municipal tap water. Two reasons explain the dominance of women in the group. As the group emerged as a mechanism to resolve conflicts over the use of the land resource, women farmers felt they needed more protection. Secondly, most of the urban farmers in Zimbabwe's cities are women. Again there are several reasons for this, include the fact that placing food on the family table remains the responsibility of women in Zimbabwe. Further, in Zimbabwe, up until the mid-1980s access to formal employment was reserved for men. Women who lived with their husbands in the cities had a lot of time available to them and engaged in urban farming.

Few men participated in the urban agriculture sector until the late 1990s because they felt urban agriculture was not a high income-earning activity that could enable them to provide for their families. Due to the massive retrenchments in the late 1990s many men had to engage in informal sector employment, including urban agriculture. Men thus joined what had traditionally been a women-dominated sector. The implication is that between the two sexes, women will engage in urban agriculture whether economic performance is good or bad, while men tend to engage in urban agriculture as a last option.

The division of labour at the household level for members of Musikavanhu is dependent on whether the family members are formally employed or not. Only 30% of the members of Musikavanhu Project are formally employed, the rest are engaged in the informal sector. Of those employed in the formal sector, 80% of them are men and 20% are women. The daily activity profile for the formally employed is determined by the requirements of the formal employment. They only engage in urban agriculture production activities during their time off. Further, the women involved in formal employment are also engaged directly in production activities, while the men who are formally employed either leave production work to their (unemployed) wives or hired-labourers. It is obvious from the activity schedule that women have many competing demands on their time and have less time available for agricultural production. For men, there are wide differences in the daily work schedules between those who are formally employed and those who participate in the informal sector. However, as the urban agriculture sector grows and offers opportunities for wage incomes, men will participate more and more. Most of the women indicated that they did not receive support from their husbands when they started practicing urban agriculture. Men were reluctant, as they perceived urban agriculture as not rewarding enough and illegal. Also, men were initially not supportive of the efforts of women to access land. As a result few men actually 'own' the land on which agriculture takes place. It belongs to the women.

The majority of women contribute to the household income through the sale of the produce from their plots. It appears that women are largely involved in the routine day-to-day expenditures on food while men spend their money on household goods and other basics like rent and electricity. The situation is generally varied in terms of making decisions. As men have generally played a background role in urban agriculture, women have always tended to take the decisions. However, as more and more men are making the transition, they have started to participate more in decision making as well.

One of the major problems faced by the female farmers is the resistance from their husbands, resulting, for example, in them not being allowed to attend training courses. This impedes improvement of their capacity to properly undertake urban agriculture activities. Peer training could be a solution in this case. Other problems are the lack of inputs for urban agriculture, limited access to land, limiting city council by-laws and the lack of water resources.

#### **4.14 The role of women in urban food production and food security in Kampala City, Uganda**

by G. Nabulo, G. Nasinyama and H. Oriyem-Origa  
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The city of Kampala is divided into five administrative divisions of Nakawa, Makindye, Rubaga, Kawempe and Central covering approx. 189 km<sup>2</sup> of land. The city has a resident population of 1,208,544 persons with a population density of 7378 persons per km<sup>2</sup>. Urban agriculture in Kampala takes place predominantly on private land, in backyards and on undeveloped public land. However, due to rapid urbanisation and population growth, people are utilising hazardous places unsuitable for growing crops. Such places include road verges, banks of drainage channels, wetlands and contaminated sites such as scrap yards and dumpsites for solid and liquid waste.

The Kampala City Council has now recognised urban agriculture as an important livelihood activity. Urban agriculture was designated as a legal activity after a protracted process involving various stakeholders who reviewed the ordinances that regulated it. Despite the recognition by KCC, UPA has not yet been integrated in the Strategic Policy Action Plans that govern the city.

For this study, several dumpsites were selected for review. The results show that both men and women are engaged in urban farming although a slightly higher proportion of women (55%) grow food crops on dumpsites. It further shows that men and women are involved in urban agriculture activities for different reasons and that there is a difference in the type of agricultural activity each is engaged in. Though women spend relatively less time in the garden than men, the study reveals that women have much less leisure time than men. Furthermore, women and men are involved in different activities in addition to agriculture, some of which are found to be specific to either men or women.

Though urban agriculture in Kampala city is dominated by women, their productivity is often hampered by cultural, social and economic constraints that do not necessarily affect the men. One of these is their limited access to education and resources, such as land. 59% of all farmers have limited access to land for expansion of agricultural activities, but this situation applies more to women than to men (63% compared to 55%). According to customary law in Uganda, a woman is not entitled to own land. Fortunately, Ugandan women have begun advocating for a land reform policy that would empower women to have equal ownership of her husband's property, including land! This has not received support from the government; however it marks the beginning of a process towards equity in distribution, control and security of tenure. This opportunity would empower women to engage in more productive and commercial agriculture.

With regard to education, few women have had professional training. Women as a group are also the least facilitated in most of the traditional roles they perform. Another constraint women face to a larger extent than men is the increased risk of exposure to occupational and health hazards associated with urban agriculture. Although in general only a small proportion of the farmers have access to local extension organisations, the proportion of women receiving assistance is smaller. The traditional and reproductive roles of women hinder them from obtaining land far away from their homes. Although

women face greater constraints, they also depend more on urban agriculture to feed and maintain their families while men have other sources of income. If urban agriculture were prohibited this would have larger consequences for the female farmers than for the males, e.g. resulting in economic crisis or no access to food.

Budget decisions are largely controlled by men and women involved in income generation. Assessment of expenditures shows that the majority of the farmers use their income obtained from urban agriculture to meet domestic needs, with a higher proportion of women doing so than men. The authors recommend that a review be made of the land administration system. Since women comprise the majority of farmers who engage in urban agriculture, empowerment of this group is essential. Knowledge of public health issues, high-yield crops, farming safety and nutrition, for example, would not only improve the quality and quantity of food produced but also the health of the farmers, their families and consumers.

#### **4.15 Analysis of gender roles in resource recovery for urban agriculture in Nairobi, Kenya**

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For this study, 14 community-based composting groups involved in UPA were studied to establish their gender composition, activities and relationship among members. Gender composition and differentiation of roles within these groups were documented. The data was compiled from a survey conducted in 2003-2004 on management of organic waste and livestock manure for enhancing agricultural productivity in the urban and peri-urban Nairobi. The objectives of the study were to make an inventory of community-based organisations (CBOs) involved in organic waste management for UPA, document the existing composting groups in Nairobi, analyse composting management techniques, model rural-urban nutrient movements and link stakeholders in UPA.

Currently, the population of Nairobi is estimated at 3 million, while its annual urbanisation rate is estimated at 4.5%. It is also estimated that over 1740 tonnes of solid waste is generated daily of which 60-70% is organic. As a source of income, food and self-employment, many farmers from informal settlements have developed local knowledge on use of wastewater for crop and fodder production. Under certain circumstances, informal urban dwellers consider waste materials as a major resource for their survival and livelihood. Women and men, boys and girls are engaged in different waste-related activities, partly because of cultural traditions and conventions and partly because of practical interests, such as earning an income, maintaining a healthy living environment and increasing self esteem.

The study reveals that the age groups have different roles and duties, which are linked to gender and the age of members. Gender and age differences influence internal conflicts within the groups, which are rooted in role sharing and financial management. Conflicts between men and women are more common within groups composed of elder men and women than in groups composed of younger men and women. Youth groups practice a more equitable allocation of roles and resources and are more cohesive. In mixed groups of elder persons, women tend to do the larger share of the manual work without complaining, while men take the major share of the benefits derived from these activities. In these groups financial management is less transparent and causes internal conflicts among the members.

In wastewater based farming, women prefer to grow crops that meet household food requirements as well as provide income, while men prefer to grow crops that generate an income and are less labour intensive, such as fodder and sugarcane.

The study also shows that age and gender affect the adoption of technological options in resource recovery for UPA. Elderly women and men shy away from picking up new technologies that are labour intensive.

The study led to several recommendations for research and development. Capacity building is needed for CBOs involved in resource recovery, using gender- and age-sensitive approaches, e.g. roles have to be allocated through well laid-out duty rosters. There is also a need to consider existing local knowledge in developing technological options in resource recovery for UPA. It needs to be established why women are willing to carry out all the activities in compost production without complaining, while men only participate through benefit sharing. Furthermore, research and awareness raising among men is needed, specifically with regard to their limited involvement in crop production for household consumption, as more savings could be accrued by producing food for household consumption rather than generating income to buy the same. And finally, there is a need for gender-based research and awareness raising on on-farm wastewater treatment for UPA.

#### **4.16 Gender and urban agriculture: Experiences from the PAFSAT project, Bamenda, Cameroon**

by M. Princewill Ogen  
BUSOFARM, Bamenda

A survey was conducted by BUSOFARM, a local NGO, on what aspects of the PAFSAT farming system are still being implemented and by whom. PAFSAT (Promotion of Adopted Farming Systems and Animal Traction) was a project in Bamenda and North West Province, sponsored by G.T.Z. and the Cameroon Ministry of Agriculture, which folded-up in the mid-90s. The long-term objective of the survey was to integrate the technologies and the trained farmers of this project into a newly proposed urban agriculture programme. The first step was to identify farmers who are experienced and knowledgeable in the PFS (Permanent Farming System), to be included as pilot farmers to start the urban agriculture programme in Bamenda. The short-term objective was to make an inventory list of existing PFS farmers in the area of study and investigate their current practices and gender roles. This report does not go into case-specific constraints faced by male and female farmers respectively, nor does it make recommendations specifically applying to Bamenda. It focuses primarily on a description of the gender roles within the farm household and the internal labour division.

The study was planned and carried out as a field survey in Mendankwe, one of the Fondoms that make up the Bamenda Municipality and provide one of the gateways into the city, from the Western Province. In this area, crop-based farming, pure pastoralism and mixed crop-livestock systems prevail. The crop-based production system is the dominant activity of the area, employing over 70% of the population. Major farms in the system are home gardens usually found around homesteads, and grassland farms. Farmers grow coffee, maize, coco yams, potatoes, sweet potatoes, beans, tomatoes, fruit trees, etc. They also keep pigs, goats and poultry. This system provides food and income to the farm families.

Women are responsible for more than 50% of the labour force for almost all the farming activities in the 30 households studied, except for land preparation (37%) and grazing (10%), which are primarily the responsibility of men. To ensure food security by making the produce available, women are responsible for transportation of food crops from the farm in 57% of the households studied, and for marketing and processing in 90% of the households. Women are not regularly involved in grazing cattle, but they usually assist their children in keeping goats, sheep and pigs. Women are involved in all the farming-related activities in the households studied.

In the area of study, many farm households have opportunities to earn additional income from other agricultural sources. In the households studied women dominate in the exploitation of these opportunities, such as making crafts (bags, mats, and baskets) and the sale of beer. The land is owned by the men, since cultural rights attribute property, especially land, to the male head of the household.

## 5. KEY ISSUES AND RECOMMENDATIONS

### 5.1 Introduction

After the presentation of all case studies, the participants analysed these experiences in three subgroups which sought to identify the main critical issues regarding gender and urban food production and food security in each individual case and to develop recommendations for dealing with gender issues in the areas of capacity development / HRD; research; development of policies, laws and regulations; action planning, implementation and monitoring.

In the following section, we will present the main results. It is important to note that the recommendations given here do not make up an exhaustive list but provide a good starting point for people working in these areas.

### 5.2 Capacity development/HRD

Capacity building in the field of gender and urban agriculture is highly relevant, since many people working in this field (researchers, planners, policy makers, NGOs, etc.) are not familiar with the gender concept or with the key issues regarding either gender in urban agriculture or how to deal with gender in their work.

It is crucial that gender-sensitive assessments of training needs are made among the various stakeholders in urban agriculture.

From the analysis of the cases studies presented in this workshop we derived the following priorities for capacity building regarding gender and urban agriculture (presented in order of priority).

#### a. For all stakeholders

Social values often establish the common perceptions of what tasks men and women should perform and which they should not and who in the household should control which type of resources. Moreover, dominant social values may make the work and contributions of women less visible and undervalued. In order to broaden development possibilities for women, as well as men and the household as a whole, the provision of **gender sensitivity training** or human development training should be considered. This kind of training for both men and women might be crucial for the success of any kind of intervention.

Gender sensitisation could also assist in solving issues pertaining to the fact that women often do not know their (land and other) rights. In many cases women manage the land but the men hold the land titles. Co-ownership of land and pervasive husbands often result in women being landless and having insecure land rights. Further sensitisation of both men and women on the topic of gender would be helpful in this regard.

#### b. Researchers

The capacity of researchers interested in urban agriculture should also be increased, to ensure that they use an engendered, participatory and comprehensive analysis framework and tools that focus not only on agricultural activities but all livelihood activities.

Such a framework and tools should:

- be age, gender and ethnicity specific
- be phased in over the duration of the project, and produce results that are shared with the community
- combine participatory qualitative and quantitative tools
- be appropriate to different levels of analysis: household, community and city levels.

The use of such a framework and tools will ensure that the needs and interests of women are considered and the right questions are asked.

Researchers should also be able to **formulate gender-specified policy recommendations** on the basis of their research results, **stimulate the development of engendered policies and action projects** on urban agriculture and **design gender-disaggregated impact-monitoring systems**.

#### c. Municipal authorities/policy makers

When building the capacity of policy makers to recognise the **contributions of urban agriculture to local economic development and household food security, nutrition and health**, attention should be given to the important roles of women in realising these contributions and the need for gender-specified policies and action projects. This also relates to the management of health risks related to urban agriculture. Policy makers should also be trained in the skills of **effectively informing constituents (men and women) about policies and rights**, so that male and female urban farmers know their rights and exercise them and so that laws and policies support them.

#### d. Extension organisations and service-providing farmer and community organisations

Due to the low valuation of women's work in agricultural production and their subordinate role in decision making, service-providing organisations tend to focus on the male heads of households and neglect the women farmers. In order to bring about a more relevant and effective (gender-sensitive) implementation of their projects and activities, training of managers and field staff of agricultural extension organisations is needed in (among other topics) **gender analysis and planning and techniques of working with female farmers** (gender-differentiated needs analysis and planning, right timing and location of activities, use of female extension workers, group work rather than individual extension, involvement or exclusion of males at the right moments, etc.). Furthermore, the sharing of information across community grassroots groups/sectors can help strengthen the potential of urban agriculture as a food security strategy and income earning opportunity.

#### e. Farmers' organisations

Often farmer organisations are male dominated and a lot of attention is needed to enhance the participation of female farmers in all types of functions and in all levels of decision making in the organisation. Providing gender awareness training for male urban farmers and leaders of the farmer associations would help to ensure that more women are included in their groups and that women are given equal access to jobs and committees within the organisation.

Female urban farmers (including producers as well as food processors, traders and marketers) should receive additional training on:

- awareness of their rights (e.g. land access, inheritance, credit) so that they can effectively act on their own behalf
- how to effectively advocate and lobby the 'authorities' on their own behalf so that they will have a political voice and can influence decision making
- basic skills, so that they can read, budget, organise, plan, keep records and have increased self-confidence
- adding value to existing basic products and/or diversify production (food crops, livestock, herbs, ornamentals, etc.) in order to increase their income, skills and food security
- health risks of urban agriculture practices, to minimise the risks involved and to improve their health
- nutrition for the family, also to improve their family's health

#### f. Urban farmers

Within households, men and women often have different interests and do not always have a comprehensive view of the needs of the household. For instance, in Nairobi the men are interested in increased yield and income as well as saving time in sourcing nutrients from wastewater and do not want the wastewater to be treated before use. The women in the same households perceive the health risks and associated costs (medicines) and wish to have the wastewater treated. Therefore there is a

need to give sufficient attention in the gender analysis to the productive side of the household and to make **male farmers** aware of the **trade offs between production and reproduction** and to enhance co-responsibility for the latter. The men's awareness should be built on their contributions to health and food security at household level. Capacity building in this area would also contribute to a more gender-balanced division of labour.

**Female farmers** in particular need capacity development on the **potential for increasing urban agriculture productivity through developing better farming, processing and marketing technologies**. Female farmers are often not included in agricultural extension programmes as independent actors and they are often disadvantaged in terms of formal education.

In many situations, women lack education, which hinders their creativity and potential to realise their maximum potential, also in urban agriculture, and prevents them from having the necessary knowledge and skills to influence decision making. They therefore often leave key decisions to the male head of the household (such as those related to production, reproduction and investment). These women lack these skills because the education of girls/women is often considered to be a lower priority than the education of boys and men and also because their mobility is often limited by social norms. There are very few decisions in which women have an equal say and most of these decisions are shared by default, not by design.

Hence, a lot of attention needs to be placed on giving women and men equal access to **formal education**, which requires removal of the cultural and social barriers for women's participation in education. Both male and female urban farmers would benefit from urban agriculture being included in their formal education with a strong gender emphasis.

In participating at the community level, women often perform supporting tasks and do not take on political or decision-making roles. These are mostly performed by men, who thus take the important community decisions such as land tenure, labour use, water management, etc. This may be because men are generally regarded as household heads and therefore also hold more responsible positions in the community. This also presents an obstacle when seeking to promote female access to land for urban agriculture, as women often encounter resistance to their access to land at the community level. In this regard, **gender awareness training on political representation** specifically, for both men and women, could bring good results. The capacity of female farmers to participate in community decisions and decision-making processes could also be enhanced by **supporting the formation of women's community organisations**. In some cases, the women in a community are already organised in small groups. These women's groups may constitute an important breeding ground for social empowerment. In some cases, such as for example in Hyderabad, India, women are not allowed to talk in public or public speaking for women is considered as a taboo. Hence they are never able to voice their grievances or problems in a community meeting and negotiate their terms. Here, helping female farmers to form groups will contribute to improving their negotiation capacity and increase their access to resources like credit.

Urban farmers, both male and female, should be provided with training on the **health risks** of being involved in urban agriculture activities. This includes the health risks related to the use of pesticides and other agrochemicals. For example, in Manila, where urban farmers cultivate sampaguita (an ornamental flower), skin allergies and hand injuries due to overuse of pesticides are mainly suffered by women and children, while male farmers are largely oblivious to the negative health effects. Therefore, a health information campaign among actors should be organised to provide them with better knowledge of the effects of pesticides to their health and environment.

Furthermore, as many urban farmers are not aware of the health risks involved in **keeping livestock in close proximity to the household**, these issues should also receive sufficient attention. Likewise, both men and women need to know more regarding **waste management and sanitation**. Wastewater is often used for irrigation of urban agricultural crops, but it is mostly only partially treated. Knowledge is scarce among the urban farmers on how to deal with the risks involved in wastewater use

in agricultural activities and how to reduce these risks through appropriate crop choice, crop husbandry and irrigation techniques.

Also, capacity building of especially women regarding the risks of **cultivation of crops on dumpsites and other contaminated sites** should receive sufficient attention. Due to rapid urbanisation and population growth, the lack of access to land is considerable and, in many cases, people utilise road verges, abandoned industrial sites and waste dumps to grow food crops. Although it is often both men and women who are involved in urban agriculture, a higher proportion of women than men farm on marginal lands, such as waste dump sites. Also, a higher proportion of women would experience both food and economic crises as compared to men if they were prevented from farming on contaminated sites.

Women farmers are often involved in low value products (green leafy vegetables), whereas men are involved in high value products (poultry, small livestock production), because women have limited access to resources, lack the initial investment requirements and lack skills. Often female farmers are not able to **diversify to new and high-value products** due to illiteracy, lack of access to training facilities (due to resistance from their husbands or due to the fact that local training is offered only to men or is organised in a way less suitable for women, e.g. it is far from their homes, made up of mixed groups, etc.). Therefore, women farmers should be specifically targeted with training on the diversification into new products, such as mushrooms. Furthermore, the knowledge of men and women of **space optimising production techniques** should be improved.

Female farmers also need capacity development on **adding value** to existing products (drying, cooking, baking, packaging, etc.) and related **marketing skills**.

Women need training on **record keeping** for their farms. As most women farmers are illiterate, whereas men have at least some primary school education, they do not know how to keep record of their enterprise. Hence, they actually do not know whether they are incurring losses or making a profit, on what products they are losing or earning a profit and in which products to invest.

When organising training courses for female farmers it is important to take into account:

- a. *age differences*: Young women are able to develop gender roles that are partly different from the gender roles maintained by the elder people in the same community (for example in the compost making groups in the Nairobi case regarding labour division and management of resources). Therefore, in most youth groups there is less (hidden) conflict over application of resources and division of benefits than in other groups. This is why awareness training / capacity building should be age differentiated.
- b. *different motives/interests*: It is important to realise that men and women may have different motives or interests for being engaged in a certain activity, or may see different opportunities coming from them. An example is Integrated Pest Management. In some cases, women have more interest in IPM for health reasons, while men maximise the use of pesticides for increased yield and income. Hence, women and men may expect different contents to be covered in training on IPM.

#### g. City dwellers

City dwellers often view agriculture as a rural activity instead of a city one and are not familiar with the links involved in projects like ecological sanitation that provide nutrients for urban farming as well as employment. Therefore, education on the **links between ecological sanitation and urban agriculture**, and also on the opportunities these activities offer, should be provided. More generally speaking, providing general information on gender and urban agriculture awareness training to students in primary and secondary school plus adults in adult literacy programmes would add to the **recognition of urban agriculture**.

Many urban people, especially women, are not aware of the opportunities which can come from urban farming as an alternative strategy to augment income and nutrition. Food costs are often a high percentage of the total expenditures of a poor urban family. Urban agriculture can lower food costs while improving food availability and quality. Therefore, poor urban women could be made aware of the

**potential of home gardening** to complement the household food supply and income.

#### h. Media

Informing the media on the topic of urban agriculture in general and gender and urban agriculture in particular would contribute to effective information dissemination and promote an accurate and helpful picture of urban agriculture to add value to the practice and prevent negative images (especially of women).

### **5.3 Research**

The analysis of the case studies presented during the workshop resulted in a large number of themes within which research could contribute to a better understanding of the situation regarding gender and urban agriculture. Such research could result in gender-friendly farming and processing technologies and provide the basis for the design of gender-positive policies and action plans.

The following priority themes for research regarding gender and urban agriculture have been identified (in order of priority):

a. Gender-sensitive characterisation of urban agriculture

More gender-sensitive studies characterising urban agriculture have to be undertaken. Still too many of such studies are not gender differentiated, while in many cities such studies are still lacking. Such studies need to include the analysis of:

- > the roles of men and women in urban agriculture – who does what and why?
- > gender differentiated access and control of productive resources and the distribution of income and other benefits derived from urban agricultural production, processing and marketing
- > the (social, cultural and economic) constraints and opportunities in urban agriculture encountered by male and female farmers specifically.
- > contribution of male vs. female farmers (as well as girls and boys) to household income and food security
- > specific knowledge and skills of male and female farmers (including food processing and marketing)

These studies would provide a sound basis for gender-positive policy development and action planning.

b. Gender-sensitive technology development built around local knowledge of male and female farmers

Most agricultural research in urban agriculture, where it exists at all is oriented to increasing market-oriented urban agriculture using improved technologies (irrigation, production under cover, cash crops), and participation in technology development (if any) includes mainly the male farmers. More technology development activities are needed in which female farmers are the main participants and that will focus more strongly on the interests of female farmers. This may lead to more attention for food crops, livestock, ecological production techniques and pest/disease management, improved storage facilities, food processing technologies, time-saving devices, etc.

Active participation of female urban farmers in processes of technology development is also needed since women hold specific knowledge and skills related to their specific tasks in the local division of labour. Often female farmers hold more traditional knowledge on tasks such as storage and preservation, food processing, seed selection, husbandry of small animals, etc.

Participation of women in the design and testing of new technologies would also ensure that these technologies would become more women friendly and easier to manage for women.

c. Possibilities for women in food processing and marketing

More research is needed on the possibilities for women to process and market the produce of urban agriculture, in order to broaden women's possibilities and capacities. In many locations women have already assumed prime responsibility for food processing and marketing, while the men concentrate on production (e.g. in Accra, Ghana). In these situations studies are needed on the specific constraints and support needs of these women. In other areas women as well as men are involved in production and the possibilities could be explored for women to engage in processing and marketing activities and the related capacity building and other support needed to achieve this. In Villa Maria del Triunfo, an urban area of Lima, Peru, women are starting to recognise urban agriculture as a potential strategy for the generation of supplementary family income through processing and especially through commercialisation of urban products. The interest of women in developing this potential can be explained in that it provides economic independence and household recognition without compromising their reproductive role.

d. Gender-sensitive research on health issues in UPA

The cases presented in this workshop clearly demonstrate that female urban farmers pay more attention to health and environmental issues related to urban agriculture.

Some specific issues require attention:

> *Health aspects of reuse of urban wastewater*

Whereas male farmers tend to focus on the economic advantages of reusing urban wastewater (often untreated or only partially treated), women in these families are more concerned about the negative impacts of these practices on the health of the family members (which may affect women and children more strongly in situations where they do most of the weeding and other cultural practices).

> *Health aspects of fertility and disease management*

Most poor urban farmers do use only small amounts of chemical fertilisers and pesticides. But where the production becomes more intensive and market oriented (especially in areas with a long tradition in vegetable growing) the urban farmers tend to increase the use of agrochemicals. Poverty and lack of knowledge may lead to inadequate use (e.g. without protective clothing, incorrect amounts) and to overuse. Women are more concerned about such developments, and in certain situations also more affected by such developments, and are more interested in the development of alternative fertility and pest/disease management practices.

> *Sanitation / drinking water*

The women are often also more aware of other health risks in their environment and more interested in solutions that not only improve their production system but also the household living conditions: e.g. better management and composting / reuse of the manure and urine produced by the livestock on the homestead, improvement in household sanitation (e.g. composting toilets), collection of rainwater or introduction of more appropriate water-lifting devices (for household drinking water as well as for supplementary irrigation), etc.

> *HIV/AIDS*

HIV/AIDS will probably continue to be one of the major challenges facing developing countries in the coming years. It is the productive population that is mostly affected by AIDS, and upon the death of a productive family member the remaining household members have to shoulder the burden of the entire family (often the children and elders in the household). This is often the case in urban-agriculture-practicing households too. Therefore, research should be done on the impact of AIDS on gender in the context of urban agriculture. There is a need to look at it closely and come up with recommendations on how to deal with these new pressures.

e. Gender and spatial planning

GIS studies may help to identify available urban agriculture spaces and other resources that are available and suitable for urban agriculture and of special interest to women. Women, especially those with young children and even more so in female-headed households, will

prefer locations near where they live so that they can combine/alternate different chores during the day. With the growing city, most of the land under cultivation close to the city is gradually being converted into plots for construction and roads, which means a loss of access to land for the peri-urban farmers. This is even more a constraint for female farmers as they have limited power and capacity to compete with the male farmers for these more and more limited productive resources. Often women operate on smaller plots of land than men. Therefore, it is essential for researchers to find new ways -especially for women- to cope with these resource crunches and increase the productivity of land and water.

- f. Assessment of policies regarding urban agriculture and their impacts on men and women  
Studies are needed on the differential impacts on men and women of present policies, laws and regulations regarding urban agriculture.

Equally, proposals for gender-sensitive policies, norms and regulations regarding urban agriculture have to be developed, on the basis of available gender-sensitive studies and gender-disaggregated data.

It is also important to monitor the impacts of these new policies and regulations. Does the promotion of urban agriculture as a micro-enterprise result in positive impacts on the position, income, welfare and living conditions of female farmers and their households? Are these impacts temporary or permanent improvements? Are profits reinvested and, if so, in what kind of activities, and, if not, why not? What are the negative impacts?

One should also look at the difference between the laws and regulations and the existing practice. Often governments make laws related to gender and equal rights, but in practice these are often not, or only partially, followed. For example, the law on inheritance of property in Hyderabad, India, which says that all the children in a family (irrespective of their sex) should inherit property equally from their parents. But, traditionally, all the land in the family is inherited only by the sons and the daughters are paid a dowry (which is also an illegal practice but culturally accepted) during their weddings in the form of cash and jewellery. Therefore, more research should be done on legislation (especially inheritance laws) vs. cultural norms.

On a more theoretical level studies are needed regarding:

- a. Relationships between poverty, environment and gender conflicts  
In many of the case studies presented, problems and conflicts arise as a consequence of poverty and lack of access to land or other productive resources, which have differential impacts on men and women. Poor urban households are often located where environmental conditions are poor, adding another dimension to the complex situation. It is therefore important to pay research attention to the field of environment and poverty conflicts and how to disentangle these. Women and children are often the most affected by poverty and poor environmental conditions. Enhancing access to land for the male heads of poor families may affect women negatively rather than positively if gender is not taken into account, since the interests of male farmers are not necessarily the same as those of female farmers. But also, the interests of resource-rich female farmers may not be the same as those of resource-poor female farmers.
- b. Relationships between gender and ethnicity  
More research on the relationship between gender and ethnicity and the socio-economic impacts of certain livelihood systems could not only provide clearer understanding of the reasons why men and women have certain roles in a given society, but also might bring about an attitudinal change in the men involved. Men's socio-cultural perception of women determines the extent to which men adhere to their responsibilities at home. Coupled with the impact of urbanisation, which is causing women to take over traditional male roles, this is increasing the tasks the women shoulder both at home and at the workplace.

c. Generational shifts in livelihoods and gender roles

Besides the relationship between gender and ethnicity, one should also look at the links between gender and age. The Nairobi case involving compost-making groups provides an interesting example of young people being able to develop gender roles (in this case regarding labour division and management of resources) which are partly different from the gender roles maintained by the elder people in the same community. In general, less (hidden) conflict over the application of resources and division of benefits between men and women was encountered in most young farmer groups than in other groups.

Another example of how gender roles can change over time due to shifts in the socioeconomic conditions is provided by the urban farming situation in the Niayes Valley close to Dakar, Senegal, where women are focusing more on marketing while men are more involved in production. This is quite different from the normal pattern in rural areas in Senegal where women also participate in the agricultural production and men also in marketing. The change in the Niayes Valley seems to be due to the fact that in Niayes a group of landowners with a strong tradition give access to land only to men. The migrants to the peri-urban area gradually adapted to this situation, women focusing more on the marketing and men on the production side. Now it is becoming the norm and people forgot how this norm was shaped by the local conditions.

Regarding the research methodology, the following observations/recommendations were made:

- Research on gender and urban agriculture should be focused on policy development and action planning rather than being solely academic.
- When doing such research it is important to combine qualitative and quantitative approaches, as this also facilitates the evaluation of the impacts of policies and projects that will be based on this research.
- The research methodology should be participatory and involve various stakeholders.
- The methodology also should integrate urban planning tools like GIS.
- There is a strong need for the compilation of an adequate framework and tools for research on gender and urban agriculture. Existing frameworks and tools on gender in agriculture have to be adapted for use in the specific urban context. The various partial contributions prepared during the last few years should be integrated and complemented, field tested and adapted and published / widely distributed.

#### **5.4 Policy development and action planning**

The cases presented in this workshop make it very clear that a comprehensive and gender-positive municipal policy on urban agriculture is lacking in most areas. Where a municipal policy on urban agriculture exists, it is hardly ever gender sensitive.

The development of a specifically engendered policy on urban agriculture is therefore one of the most often mentioned recommendations by the participants, as well as the inclusion of gender and urban agriculture in the urban planning and development processes.

In order to realise such policy development, the following steps are required:

- Gender-sensitive studies on urban agriculture should be commissioned. In areas for which a lot of data on urban agriculture are available, but which are mainly not genders disaggregated, specific studies on gender and urban agriculture are recommended. Studies should be participatory and action oriented.
- Training has to be provided to core staff involved in policy design and project planning and implementation in gender-based project planning and monitoring. Inclusion of a gender specialist.
- Coordination has to be achieved among various local authority departments, like economic development, health, environment, urban land use planning, etc., in order to review the existing

- sectoral by-laws and regulations related to urban agriculture and to develop a new set of harmonised and gender-sensitive policies and regulations regarding urban agriculture.
- Women farmers need to be directly (and equally) involved in the diagnosis and design of the policy/project and in project management committees. In order to ensure this, we need capacity building (public participation) and leadership training for women as well as group formation to discuss women's interests and to select female representatives.
  - Differences between men and women (knowledge, interests, resources, constraints, socio-cultural conditions) have to be taken into account during policy formulation and project design. In order to ensure this, we need:
    - > an engendered diagnosis and planning framework, collection of gender disaggregated data, participatory gender analysis
    - > promotion of gender equality to be made part of the urban agriculture policy and project objectives;
    - > gender-affirmative strategies to be identified (access to training, credit, land, leading positions, etc.)
  - New urban agriculture policies should be framed in a poverty alleviation and urban livelihood improvement context rather than as isolated agro-technical or health regulations.
  - Urban agriculture policies and projects (activities, methodologies and resource allocation) should be evaluated for their differential impacts on male and female beneficiaries before and after implementation. All indicators should be gender specified.

There are a number of topics that deserve special attention in the process of gender-sensitive policy formulation and action planning:

a. Participatory and gender-sensitive diagnosis and planning

During the workshop various recommendations were made which should be taken into account when planning and implementing urban agriculture policies and projects.

In quite a number of situations, women make up the majority of urban farmers, which makes it wise to direct projects to the women farmers in particular so as to minimise their obstacles and risks. However, male farmers should not be forgotten in the process. There are quite a number of measures that would benefit the urban farmers in general; regardless of whether these are men or women.

Most urban agriculture projects are supposedly prepared in a participatory way. However, when analysing the case studies, it was perceived that women's needs are often not adequately taken into account in the planning process, due to their low involvement in community decision-making processes, which is related to socio-cultural factors. It is therefore necessary that **specific measures** be taken to **overcome these socio-cultural barriers for women's participation** in consultations and decision making on urban agricultural projects. This may include gender awareness training for men and women, organisation of informal women's groups and their involvement in the planning process, leadership training and encouragement of women's participation in the election of farmer representatives, etc.

In some situations women are culturally not used to speaking in public, are too shy to talk or will say only what is socially expected of them. For example in Hyderabad, India, women are not allowed to talk in public or public speaking is considered taboo for women. Hence they are never able to voice their problems or proposals in a community meeting and negotiate their terms. In these circumstances, one first has to establish a relation of trust and confidence and ensure that the proper conditions are created under which it is possible for these women to speak openly (female interviewer, husband informed, but not present, etc.). This takes time but is very necessary, especially when sensible subjects are concerned, like intra-household decision-making, control over productive resources, distribution of benefits, etc.

The above should ensure that women can express their needs and interests and those projects are planned and implemented taking these needs into account. Also, women's organisations working on urban agriculture should be strengthened and supported. However, once again, it is often not only female but also male urban producers who lack access to resources for production, processing and

marketing (access to water, training, land, inputs). Therefore, we would like to stress the importance of including both men and women in the participatory planning processes.

In order to arrive at gender-positive urban agriculture projects, a **comprehensive and gender-differentiated analysis framework** should be applied, as has been discussed in earlier sections of this report. Both production and reproductive activities should be taken into account.

This framework should also take into account that often women are not only involved in production but also (or mainly) in processing, transport and marketing of agricultural products and/or may be involved in non-agricultural income-earning activities (petty trade, liquor/beer making/selling, crafts, hired labour for others, office jobs). More attention is needed for such activities in our gender analysis in an urban agriculture framework (which is still mainly oriented toward agricultural production due to its rural origins).

Gender analysis should be made part and parcel of the participatory diagnosis and planning process and local stakeholders have to know and understand why gender analysis is included in the diagnosis and what benefits may be expected from it.

Follow-up should be secured from the start. In the case of the Niayes Valley in Senegal, the interviewed urban farmers were found to be tired of surveys, and did not believe that something positive would come out of it for them. They sometimes even believed that the information would be used against them. It is very important to avoid a similar situation by securing a **direct relation between diagnosis and action planning** and securing proper follow up.

As has been explained in the research section above, **differentiation for age, ethnicity and social class**, in addition to gender, during action planning and implementation can be important as circumstances, needs and possibilities are not the same for younger and older women, nor for women of different ethnic groups or social classes.

In the Niayes Valley case, it was observed that production-oriented service institutions mainly address men, since men dominate the management of cropland and livestock, whilst organisations interested in processing and marketing focus on women, since these are dedicated mainly to harvesting or grading of products, processing and marketing. Although it is good to see that the support organisations attend to male and female members of the household as independent actors in their own right and take their main roles and knowledge into account, it may be a role-confirming factor that obstructs certain changes in the position of women in the household (e.g. women's access to and ownership of crop land and livestock). Therefore a more **integrated approach** might be needed that also seeks to strengthen the role of women in agricultural production and that, for example, gives them a bigger say in determining the selling price of their agricultural products and in the use of the income. Male and female urban producers also need to be made aware of the link between reproduction and production activities within their households, as tradeoffs are involved.

In many situations, institutions present in a specific urban situation give most support to the production side and are often afraid of taking gender-affirmative actions. Moreover, there is a low level of interaction among institutions. Therefore, while planning urban agriculture projects it is important to make an **institutional stakeholder analysis** as regards their degree of gender sensitivity and activity, and gender strategies have to be designed to make these organisations more gender focused (even in areas where the Muslim belief dominates the culture). One such strategy may be to involve more women in advisory and decision-making bodies of projects and of their implementing organisations.

#### b. Equal access to land

There is a need for intelligent municipal strategies that enhances and secures access to land for urban agriculture, and that gives special attention to ensuring equal access to and control over these resources by female farmers since the male farmers use their influence, network and money to acquire land and often women farmers are marginalised. It is important to not only secure equal access of female farmers to land but also to increase their possibilities to own the land and guarantee women's

tenure and inheritance rights. Forms of joint ownership or lease arrangements have to be developed in addition to the creation of special opportunities for women (e.g. female-headed households).

Due to urbanisation and economic crises, the demand for agricultural land in and around many cities is increasing and conflicts over land are therefore on the increase. In Harare, poor men searching for work and income were initially neglecting urban agriculture, but in the 1990s they become increasingly more interested in it as an alternative livelihood strategy, sometimes resulting in men invading land belonging to women. Those who lose their urban plots can often only find alternative space at the border of the city far away from their homes. This has an especially negative effect on women who have children or who have to look after elderly relatives, in addition to their productive tasks.

Land ministries should identify idle land suitable for urban agriculture and maintain these spaces as green pockets in the urban development plan. Female farmers are especially helped by plots close to their homes, since this enables women to combine their household chores with agricultural activities.

Decision making on the distribution of communal resources in most communities is traditionally dominated by men. That is why women often encounter more resistance when they seek access to land at the community level. Hence, it is important that the municipal policy on equal access to land includes community sensitisation activities to sensitise the local decision makers regarding women's rights to equal access to and ownership of land. In this regard, it would also be helpful to hold annual forums to discuss women's rights, participation in leadership, etc.

Another policy measure that could improve the access of women to land would be to install quota for the participation of women when government land is available for distribution, in order to safeguard their interests.

#### c. Access to credit, agricultural inputs and technical advice

Many urban farmers face problems relating to limited access to technical advice, agricultural inputs and credit for urban agriculture, but female farmers are more strongly affected than male farmers. There are hardly any agricultural extension and credit programmes in urban areas and, where available, such programmes traditionally have focused on the male heads of the households while women face severe constraints to participate as independent actors and beneficiaries in such programmes. In many cases women also have no direct access to sources of funds to purchase inputs and rely on their husbands for inputs (who at times may not give high priority to the purchase of such inputs).

Therefore, it is important that governments provide (or stimulate NGOs to provide) agricultural extension, credit, animal health and input supply services (also) directly to female urban farmers and women involved in processing and marketing agricultural products. Stimulation of farmer organisations in general and active participation of female farmers in such organisations in particular should also be encouraged.

Urban NGO's and other institutions that provide credit or technical support to urban women's self-help groups and female entrepreneurs for non-agricultural activities should be encouraged to do so also for women engaged in agricultural production and/or processing and marketing of agricultural products. And organisations that provide agricultural credit and technical advice in rural areas should initiate similar programmes for female (and male) urban farmers.

#### d. Reduction of health risks

Due to the considerable lack of access to land, the urban poor often use road verges, derelict industrial sites, waste dumps and other marginal and contaminated sites upon which to grow food crops. In most cases (like in Kampala) a higher proportion of women than men farm on marginal lands and contaminated sites. Women are normally also more exposed to health risks related to management of livestock wastes and use of urban organic wastes and wastewater. Therefore, a large part of the female

urban farmers have to be considered as vulnerable groups which should be attended to by Primary Health Care programmes.

It is also recommended that female farmers be invited to participate in local committees that develop strategies and recommend policies to reduce the health risks related to the use of contaminated land or wastewater and agrochemicals in urban agriculture. Female farmers are often more exposed to and more concerned about health risks related to urban agriculture, and their interests and specific knowledge in this field should be taken into account when designing effective policies. Next to capacity development of urban farmers on the management of the various health risks during production, processing and marketing, there is a need for policies that enhance the access of urban producers to clean water for irrigation, processing and marketing (storm water collection, wells and treated wastewater)

Poor urban farmers, and especially female farmers, often complain about harassment by police officers and lower government officials. Female urban farmers (e.g. in Harare) indicate that their time in the fields is limited since they have to return home before sunset, or to solicit company, to avoid possible harassment from thugs. Therefore, laws are required to protect women farmers from harassment and their agricultural products in urban areas from being stolen.

#### d. Gender-positive technology development

The policies and action plans should include the introduction (and local testing/adaptation) of improved and women-friendly production and processing technologies to allow increased, more diversified and sustainable production processes (see further the section on research above). Also attention should be given to technologies, e.g. for water lifting, which require less energy and time.

Technology development in general has to be based on an understanding of gender roles and differentiation in knowledge, tasks, needs, resources and constraints of men and women (e.g. women often work on food crops while men work on cash crops and therefore they might use different technologies). Women should be actively involved in technology design and testing. In addition, there is a need to consider local knowledge and gender perspectives in the development of technologies in order to ensure that these are suited to the women's circumstances (e.g. time availability). This applies for example to the case of Nairobi, where the women were taught new composting techniques but they dropped out later arguing that these techniques were too time consuming and tedious. In linking credit and technology, one often sees that the limited resources available for technology investment act as a constraint: women have less access to credit facilities for technological investment.

#### e. Organisational development

In the planning and implementation of an urban agricultural policy or project, sufficient attention has to be paid to strengthening **women's participation in existing farmer organisations** and/or the **organisation of women's groups** (and the latter may work as a means to realise the former). This implies that sufficient attention be paid to inclusion of literacy/ numeracy training and leadership training for women, gender awareness courses for men and women, and affirmative actions regarding the percentage of women who are trained and appointed in the project (as local extensions and group leaders, etc.).

Furthermore, specific attention should be given within the planning and implementation process to the **resolution of conflicts** related to poverty and environmental issues and the aspect of gender within these conflicts. It is often women who farm the most unsuitable pieces of land, like wetlands, roadsides and highly contaminated areas.

Once a gender-sensitive policy on urban agriculture is in place, there should be a **gender-sensitive outreach** on the policy towards all stakeholders. The responsibility of policy makers does not stop at the development of the policy itself. As was reported in some of the cases, the policies that do exist are unknown to the urban farmers themselves. For example, often women do not know their land rights.

They manage the land but the men hold the land titles. Not knowing their rights, women are often led into insecure and disadvantageous land use arrangements. Therefore, a gender-positive outreach on the policy is needed, to keep women properly informed.

## 6. GENDER MAINSTREAMING IN URBAN AGRICULTURE

### 6.1 Introduction

Up to this point, the workshop focused on the identification and analysis of critical gender issues in urban agriculture and on developing a priority agenda for urban agriculture research, policy development and action planning.

The next step in the workshop process was the identification of effective ways to ascertain whether proper attention is being paid to gender issues in our own programmes (Urban Harvest, RUAF) and in those of our partners.

First the concept of gender mainstreaming was introduced and discussed. Subsequently, the UH and RUAF teams discussed what measures they will take to ensure gender mainstreaming in their own programmes and partner organisations.

### 6.2 Gender mainstreaming, an introduction

By Ir Henk de Zeeuw, coordinator RUAF

#### 6.2.1 *What is “gender mainstreaming”?*

Gender mainstreaming (GM) can be seen as a process or strategy to enhance the impact of a development programme on gender equality, by achieving changes in institutional policies, programmes, legislation and resource allocations of our “boundary partners” in a particular city or country, through specific initiatives and by ensuring that all of our activities support gender equality objectives.

Why is gender mainstreaming important for urban agriculture? Three main reasons can be mentioned for giving attention to gender in urban agriculture. Firstly, there is the recognition that projects, which mainly focus on improving gender equality at local level, have little impact on changing the social position of women. Secondly, the recognition that gender inequality is continuously recreated by the “mainstream”: existing gender-unbalanced policies and biased institutional practices based on dominant views and stereotyped roles for men and women. Hence, and thirdly, influencing policy and institutional levels is needed to achieve a greater impact.

What is being mainstreamed? By gender mainstreaming, we aim to bring about certain changes. Here we mention four important ones. To begin with, we would like to see that gender equality is recognised by decision makers as a strategic objective of development (rather than a “women’s issue”) that should be pursued by the leading institutions and reflected in major policies, programmes and institutional practices. Next, we aim for a situation where women -as well as men- are enabled to influence the policy agenda, the decision making and resource allocation, and are fully recognised as agents and beneficiaries of change. Another important goal is getting institutions to develop analytic, planning and management skills to identify and respond to gender issues relevant to their mandate. Lastly, we want to see that the design of policies and programmes is based on data regarding existing gender differences and focused on enhancing gender equality.

#### 6.2.2 *How can “gender mainstreaming” be implemented in urban agriculture projects?*

In discussing the ways to do this, there are three levels that need attention:

- our own project
- our own organisation
- our boundary partners

When implementing gender mainstreaming into **our own projects**, various measures can be taken related to each stage of the project cycle:

- At the formulation stage, one can:
  - > train the staff involved in the design in gendered situation analysis and gender-based planning
  - > ensure that female beneficiaries are as equally consulted as male beneficiaries during diagnosis and design of the activity
  - > disaggregate all data gathering by age, sex and ethnic origin
  - > apply gender analysis to identify and interpret differences between male and female intended beneficiaries in terms of ascribed roles, access to and control over resources, participation in decision making, knowledge and skills, etc., as well as differences in interests and priorities
  - > apply gender-based planning frameworks and tools; take both practical and strategic interests of women into account
  - > develop clear gender-affirmative strategies and ensure that these strategies are reflected in the budget
  - > evaluate the project/activity design for differential impacts on men and women
  
- In the implementation phase, one should:
  - > make the partner organisations that are involved in this project or activity fully aware of the gender dimensions of the project and get their commitment
  - > ensure a gender-balanced composition of the staff involved in project implementation and train them in the gender dimensions of the project or activity
  - > ensure equal opportunity of the intended female (and male) beneficiaries to participate in the project activities and to reap its maximum benefits
  - > design specific means to help overcome barriers to women's full participation in training and extension activities, technology development, credit schemes, leadership training and functions in farmer organisations, as farmer extension officers, etc.
  - > raise and attend to gender dimensions during periodic planning and coordination meetings, and ensure proper follow up
  - > provide backstopping and support of a gender expert in urban agriculture during implementation.
  
- In the phase of project/activity monitoring and evaluation, one should:
  - > make all indicators of project results gender specific and ensure that indicators are included to monitor the impact of the project on critical gender issues
  - > ensure that gender issues are covered in the reporting of activities, and that all information is disaggregated by sex
  - > ensure that relevant gender issues are raised during monitoring and evaluation meetings
  - > ensure participation of women –as well as men- in monitoring and evaluation activities
  - > make sure that the gender focus of the project is reflected in the terms of reference and in the composition of evaluation missions.

When gender mainstreaming **our own organisations**, there are a number of issues that should receive attention. Preferably, one should:

- > explain why gender should be taken seriously in the organisation
- > seek the commitment of the management level and together make a simple action/time plan for development of a gender policy
- > facilitate development of a gender statement and ensure that promotion of gender equality is made an explicit aim of the organisation
- > promote the availability of gender expertise in the organisation
- > organise staff gender training and diffuse gender guidelines
- > help to ensure that gender integration becomes a routine concern of all units and all staff members
- > facilitate changes in the organisational culture

- > promote incorporation of gender analysis and gender planning in standard procedures for project design and facilitate gender specification of institutional reporting and monitoring systems
- > promote the engendering of staff recruitment and enumeration policies
- > evaluate whether budget allocations reflect the gender policy of the organisation.

At the level of our “**boundary partners**”, we should:

- > discuss the gender dimensions of our programme right from the start with our local partner organisations; provide gender-differentiated information on urban agriculture and seek the commitment of the management
- > raise gender issues relevant to your programme and the mandate of the partner organisation during planning, coordination and monitoring meetings; seek inclusion of these issues in the institutional agenda of the partner
- > provide staff training of local partners in gender-based analysis and planning and on specific gender issues in urban agriculture and ways to tackle these issues
- > provide support for an expert on gender in urban agriculture when partners are formulating local urban agriculture policies and action programmes and promote active participation of female (as well as male) farmers in the planning process
- > promote the inclusion of indicators for impacts on gender equality in the institutional monitoring system and periodic discussion of the results (self-learning)
- > analyse the project’s policy recommendations for gender equality issues before rendering policy advice and engaging in policy dialogue
- > stimulate exchange with other organisations regarding gender issues in urban agriculture and related subjects and cooperation with organisations that have strong expertise in gender in agriculture.

### 6.3. RUAF strategy for mainstreaming gender in urban agriculture

#### a. Background

The RUAF network consists of seven partner organisations spread across the globe. The RUAF partners are:

1. IAGU, Dakar – regional coordination for Francophone West Africa
2. IWMI-Ghana, Accra – regional coordination for Anglophone West Africa
3. MDP, Harare – regional coordination for Eastern and Southern Africa,
4. IWMI-India, Hyderabad- regional coordination for South and South-East Asia
5. IPES, Lima – regional coordination for Latin America,
6. IGSNRR, Beijing – regional coordination for China
7. ETC RUAF – Programme Coordination and international linkages

All RUAF partners work with boundary partners that include municipalities, NGOs, farmer organisations, research and training institutions and government departments. The second phase of the RUAF programme is named “Cities farming for the Future” (CFF; 2005-2008) and will be implemented in 20 cities of 15 countries.

The RUAF-CFF strategies are:

1. **Capacity development:** training of trainers, development of training modules, organisation of policy workshops and training courses, organisation of study and exchange visits, design of an Internet-based self-learning package
2. **Policy development and action planning in 20 cities:** establishment of multi-stakeholder forums and interdisciplinary working group in each city, joint situation diagnosis, policy formulation and action planning, implementation and monitoring of pilot projects
3. **Knowledge management:** preparation and publication of policy papers, production of guidelines and manuals, publication of *Urban Agriculture Magazine* in four languages; dissemination of experiences to another 30 cities.

4. **Learning from experiences:** introduction of participatory impacts monitoring systems at all levels, systematisation of experiences, participatory evaluation of pilot projects, regional partner consultations
5. **Gender mainstreaming:** see below

b. Gender mainstreaming at programme level

The following actions have already been taken to ensure gender mainstreaming in RUAF-CFF:

- Definition of gender statement (see Annex 9.6).
- Establishment of RUAF Gender Advisory Committee: The first training workshop will be held in Johannesburg, February 2004, focusing on gender concepts and tools.
- Two discussion papers have been developed: 1. gender issues in urban agriculture (see the summary in this report by Joanna Wilbers) and 2. PRA tools for gender analysis in urban agriculture (available on [www.ruaf.org](http://www.ruaf.org)).
- Provision of funds for the implementation of case studies on gender and urban agriculture by the RUAF partners.
- Preparation and Implementation of this workshop.

In addition, we will have to:

- include gender mainstreaming in the cooperation agreement with the Regional Partners and monitor uptake of gender in partner institutions
- maintain a coordinating role regarding gender mainstreaming in RUAF and facilitate further capacity development and exchange of experiences on gender in urban agriculture
- create a gender window on the RUAF website
- include articles on gender in each thematic issue of *Urban Agriculture Magazine*
- include the gender dimension in all training materials
- include gender in RUAF monitoring and evaluation system (Outcome Mapping and Impact Indicators)
- review progress of gender mainstreaming during annual review and planning meetings.

c. Gender mainstreaming in RUAF at regional level

At the regional level, we plan to:

- select gender resource persons who will work closely with the regional RUAF partners and take part in the regional RUAF advisory board
- establish cooperation agreements with local partners that include a gender mainstreaming dimension
- collect research data and experiences on gender in urban agriculture in the region and its diffusion to local partners
- develop capacity of local partners on gender-sensitive planning, implementation and monitoring
- make gender mainstreaming part of the policy seminars and training courses; this requires the preparation of gender-sensitive training materials.

d. Gender mainstreaming at local level (multi-stakeholder process formation and programming)

- Representatives of female farmers will be included in the multi-stakeholder forum and working group, and forum partners will be encouraged to commit to mainstreaming gender in urban agriculture policies and projects. Local partners will facilitate the application of a gender-sensitive diagnosis and planning framework and provide appropriate tools and instruments.
- The first step will be a gender differentiated baseline survey on urban agriculture; the second step will be engendered specification of problems, interests, activities, knowledge and recommendations.
- Local RUAF partners will provide technical assistance on gender during formulation of the policies and action plans and provide examples of gender-affirmative actions.

- Local RUAF partners will ensure that gender-differentiated monitoring and evaluation indicators are applied.
- Local RUAF partners will organise exchanges between cities on gender and urban agriculture.

## 6.4 Gender mainstreaming in Urban Harvest

### a. Background

Urban Harvest is a global program of the Consultative Group on International Agricultural Research (CGIAR) based at the International Potato Centre (CIP), Lima. Its main task is to mainstream urban agriculture in the CGIAR research system.

The main research themes are:

1. Research - policy dialogue
2. Improving livelihoods of the urban poor (income, nutrition)
3. Urban agriculture and health
4. Reuse of urban by-products

### b. Gender mainstreaming at programme level

The following activities will be undertaken:

1. A preliminary review of participatory tools for analysis of urban agriculture will be made in order to incorporate both gender and urban-relevant perspectives. The participatory gender and urban agriculture tools will involve design, data collection and analysis, monitoring and evaluation, and policy development, and they will incorporate the whole gender mainstreaming approach from project organisation to institutionalisation in the boundary partners.
2. Capacity building for researchers participating in UH activities on the preliminary - reviewed participatory tools on gender and urban agriculture.
3. The gender analysis tools, both qualitative and quantitative, will be applied in three focal regions of Urban Harvest (Africa, Asia and Latin America) to obtain gender baseline data in the three regions. The gender baseline in the three regions will address the following themes:
  - > Food crops and livestock used for subsistence
  - > Food crops and livestock used for income generation
  - > Who does what in production, processing and marketing systems for crops and livestock products
  - > What are the constraints, opportunities, benefits and risks involved in the production system and what action is needed (male, female)?
4. Review and modification of participatory tools through a consultative process in order to arrive at a set of engendered participatory appraisal and planning tools for urban agriculture projects'. This process would include the following steps:
  - > modification of the available PRA tools on the basis of the experiences gained in the three regions
  - > preparation of guidelines on how to apply the tools
  - > consultation with the RUAF Gender Advisory Group
  - > application of the tools in selected locations by Urban Harvest (and RUAF) partners
  - > review of the experiences gained and finalisation of the tools and guidelines
  - > use of the guidelines to review and further develop local UH research projects in order to ensure gender content and approach (methods, budget).

### c. Gender mainstreaming within each organisation participating in Urban Harvest

Each organisation will:

- > include gender in its mission statement in the context of human rights and human development
- > include gender in its strategic plan
- > address gender in the selection of themes and within each theme and articulate outcomes
- > ensure an adequate budget is available to work towards gender goals
- > ensure adequate time is allotted in work plan to work towards gender goals

- > develop the gender capacity of all Urban Harvest staff (ensure not just a gender balance, but also gender training)
- > make gender a priority criterion for project approval
- > ensure that evaluations include gender performance, policy impacts
- > give feedback for forward planning
- > ensure a gender balance in human resource development (do not exclude men, but give them an opportunity to work towards gender mainstreaming themselves).

d. Gender mainstreaming at local level (in collaboration with local partners and local policies)

Within these boundary partners, we would like to:

- > encourage the use of gender research tool(s)
- > encourage allocation of resources towards gender mainstreaming
- > conduct capacity building workshops on the use and application of a gender framework and tools
- > include gender in urban agriculture materials for education
- > encourage information exchange
- > mobilise resources for gender capacity building
- > expose policy makers and NGO advocates to gender data/information (e.g. gender in urban agriculture policy brief).
- > promote inclusion of gender issues in policy/legislative processes; hold multi-stakeholder policy forums on gender issues; involve policy makers in research teams and apply other tactics to persuade politicians/policy makers.

This programme is strategically focused on fostering incremental changes in attitudes towards gender mainstreaming and incremental improvements in gender-relevant research and policy making. Successes will be built on and information on them will be disseminated to encourage and inspire others.

## 7. FOLLOW-UP

RUAF and Urban Harvest partners agreed to jointly undertake the following follow-up activities:

**1. Finalisation and publication of the paper on “gender in urban agriculture”**

The paper on “gender in urban agriculture” drafted by ETC-RUAF will be further upgraded on the basis of the results of this workshop and published as a joint RUAF-Urban Harvest publication.

**2. Gender Advisory Committee**

The RUAF Gender Advisory Committee will be transformed into a joint RUAF and Urban Harvest Gender Advisory Committee and advice both projects on gender mainstreaming issues.

**3. Extension of the RUAF gender mailing list**

For more than a year, RUAF has been using a “listserv” to facilitate communications among the members of the Gender Advisory Group.

During the Women Feeding Cities workshop, it was commonly felt that there is a need to extend the current reach of the e-mail mailing list, by including the workshop participants as well as other colleagues interested in the field of gender and urban agriculture. This mailing list will serve as a forum where all members can share and discuss their own experiences with a group of committed practitioners and researchers, jointly analyse problems encountered and how to overcome such problems, and make each other aware of information that is of relevant for gender mainstreaming in urban agriculture (conceptual frameworks, tools and instruments, research reports, publications on important project experiences, videos, interesting web links, important events, etc.). Most of the list members will be connected to the RUAF and Urban Harvest programmes in one way or another, but all interested persons are most welcome to participate. RUAF will extend and manage the list.

**4. Further development of gender and urban agriculture tools**

RUAF and Urban Harvest will jointly develop a project proposal for the further development, testing, revision and publication of guidelines and tools for gender and urban agriculture analysis and planning. The guidelines will approach gender and urban agriculture from the perspective of the project cycle. For every phase in the project cycle, specific tools and methodologies will be recommended. Attention will be given to both the implementation of projects and research, as the guidelines should be applicable to both work areas. The guidelines will draw on the RUAF conceptual framework for gender and urban agriculture, among other sources. The target group for this publication consists of urban agriculture researchers and practitioners (project design and implementation).

In a first phase draft guidelines for gender-sensitive analysis and planning in urban agriculture will be put together and the existing set of quantitative and qualitative tools (see RUAF paper and case studies) will be complemented and adapted on the basis of the results of this workshop. These guidelines and tools will then be tested in practice in five cities from the RUAF network and in five cities from Urban Harvest network. The testing could possibly involve Agropolis awardees. After testing, feedback will be collected through the mailing list and a follow-up workshop. Subsequently, a publication (book/CD ROM/website) will be prepared.

## 8. ANNEXES

### 8.1 Annex 1 - About the organisers

#### ***International network of Resource Centres on Urban Agriculture and Food security (RUAF)***

RUAF is an international network of regional resource centres that, since 2000, facilitates the integration of urban agriculture in the policies and programmes of national and city governments and international organisations.

The RUAF partners include: IPES in Lima (Latin America), MDP in Harare (South and East Africa), IAGU in Senegal (Francophone West Africa), IWMI in Ghana (Anglophone West Africa), IWMI in India (South East Asia) and IGSNRR (China).

RUAF is coordinated by ETC Foundation, an independent professional -but not-for-profit- organisation that supports local initiatives aimed at sustainable urban and rural development.

The RUAF partners seek to realise their mission through:

- **knowledge management:** collecting and disseminating research data and project experiences in the field of urban agriculture; maintenance of databases; publication of *Urban Agriculture Magazine* (four languages); preparation of policy guidelines, manuals and other selected materials requested by the various types of stakeholders in urban agriculture
- **capacity development:** development of training modules, training of trainers and implementing training courses at regional and local level tailored to the needs of specific stakeholder categories
- **multi-stakeholder policy development and action planning:** the organisation of policy awareness seminars, establishment of multi-stakeholder forums, GIS and PRA studies, participatory appraisals, multi-actor policy formulation and action planning and budgeting, design and implementation of pilot projects
- **learning from monitoring:** design and introduction of integrated and participatory monitoring of processes and impacts of the multi-stakeholder planning and implementation
- **gender mainstreaming:** strengthening the integration of gender in all methodologies and instruments, training activities and working materials; commissioning case studies and preparation of guidelines and publications on gender and urban agriculture, systematisation of experiences

RUAF is funded by DGIS (Directorate General for International Development Cooperation of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the Netherlands) and IDRC (International Development Research Centre, Canada) and receives contributions for specific activities from FAO, UNDP, GTZ, CTA, Cordaid, Miserior and Oxfam-Netherlands.

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#### ***Urban Harvest***

In late 1999 the CGIAR Consultative Group on International Agricultural Research (CGIAR) launched a system-wide initiative to direct and coordinate the collective knowledge and technologies of the Future Harvest Centres and thereby work toward strengthening urban and peri-urban agriculture (UPA). The Initiative, formerly known by its acronym SIUPA, and now renamed Urban Harvest helps centres link together their own efforts and become partners with many national and international efforts.

The goals of Urban Harvest are to:

- contribute to enhanced food security, improved nutrition and higher incomes for poor urban and peri-urban families
- reduce the negative environmental impact of UPA and enhance its positive potential
- establish the perception of UPA as a productive, essential component of sustainable cities.

Urban Harvest has been involved in a participatory process with many national and international partners in urban and peri-urban agriculture to jointly come up with an adequate framework to study the complex, dynamic, and multi-sectoral reality of the urban environment. This framework focuses on four essential themes in UPA, which provide the basis for guiding activities at the practical level of research and development projects in regional settings, as well as in alliance-building initiatives at global and regional level.

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***IWMI-Ghana***

The International Water Management Institute (IWMI) is a non-profit scientific research organisation focusing on the sustainable use of water and land resources in agriculture and on the water needs of developing countries. IWMI works with partners in the South to develop tools and methods to help these countries eradicate poverty through more effective management of their water and land resources. IWMI's mission is to improve water and land resources management for food security and a sustainable environment.

The objectives of IWMI's work are to:

- identify the larger issues related to water management and food security that need to be understood and addressed by governments and policy makers
- develop, test and promote management practices and tools that can be used by governments and institutions to manage water and land resources more effectively, and address water scarcity issues
- clarify the link between poverty and access to water and help governments and the research community better understand the specific water-related problems of poor people
- help developing countries build their research capacities to deal with water scarcity and related food security issues.

IWMI's research is organised around five themes. The themes were selected based on two criteria: 1) they address issues crucial to developing countries, and 2) they comprise areas where IWMI has the resources and expertise to make a significant contribution. IWMI has research projects running in 21 countries in Asia and Africa. Work is coordinated through regional offices located in India, Pakistan, South Africa, Sri Lanka and Thailand. The Institute has sub-regional offices in Ethiopia, Ghana, Nepal, Uzbekistan, China, and Laos.

IWMI is a member of the Future Harvest group of agricultural and environmental research centres. It receives its principal funding from governments, private foundations, and international and regional organisations known as the Consultative Group on International Agricultural Research (CGIAR), which contribute to poverty eradication.

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### 8.3 Annex 3 Overview of case studies

No.	Title	Case presenter	Institute
1.	Engendering agricultural research: A case study of <b>Hyderabad</b> City, India	Gayathri Devi Mekala	IWMI-India
2.	The role of women in urban food production and food security in <b>Kampala</b> City, Uganda. Gender mainstreaming in urban food production and food security	Grace Nabulo	Department of Botany, Makerere University, Kampala
3.	Key gender issues in urban food production and food security: Case study of Kenya ( <b>Kisumu</b> )	Zarina Ishani	Mazingira Institute, Nairobi
4.	Gender and coping strategies for access to land for urban agriculture in <b>Kampala</b> City, Uganda	Juliet Kiguli	Department of Social Anthropology, Institute of Languages, Makerere University, Kampala, Uganda
5.	Changing role of women in China for urban agriculture ( <b>Beijing</b> )	Jianming Cai	IGSNRR, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing
6.	Case study on gender and urban agriculture from Villa Maria del Triunfo ( <b>Lima</b> -Peru)	Gunther Merzthal	PGU-LAC, Quito
7.	Gender and urban agriculture: The case of <b>Accra</b> , Ghana	Olufunke Cofie	IWMI-Ghana
8.	Gender and urban agriculture: A case study of three communities in Greater <b>Freetown</b> , Sierra Leone	Catherine Sandy Margao	IDRC/Cornell University/Njala University College
9.	Integration of women in farming activities in the Niayes Valley of <b>Pikine</b> (Senegal) – Exploratory case study	Moussa Sy	IAGU (African Institute of Urban Management)
10.	Gender case study – Musikavanhu Project ( <b>Harare</b> )	Shingirayi Mushamba	MDP-ESA, Harare
11.	Women in urban agriculture: The case of the Sampaguita garland livelihood system in Metro <b>Manila</b> , Philippines	Raul Boncodin	CIP-UPWARD, Los Banos, Philippines
12.	Gender and urban agriculture: Experiences from a previous project in the <b>Bamenda</b> Highland Plateau of Cameroon	Moki Princewill Ogen	Bugh-suh Organic Farmers CIG
13.	Gender mainstreaming and women's role in small-scale vegetable production in a dynamic urban environment ( <b>Lagos</b> )	Vide Anosike	Department of Geography, University of Lagos
14.	Urban Agriculture and gender in Latin America: A case study of Carapongo, <b>Lima</b> , Peru	Blanca Arce	CIP-Urban Harvest
15.	Analysis of gender roles in resource recovery for urban and peri-urban agriculture in <b>Nairobi</b>	Mary Njenga	CIP-Urban Harvest

## 8.4 Annex 4 Workshop programme

	Morning	Afternoon	Evening
<b>Sunday</b> 19 September	Arrival of participants in Accra		<b>21.00 Welcome drinks at pool bar</b>
<b>Monday</b> 20 September	<p>07.30 Breakfast</p> <p><b>09.00 Welcome address</b> by Dr. Pay Drechsel, Research coordinator IWMI-Regional Office for West Africa</p> <p>09.15 <b>Opening</b> of the workshop by Dr. Adzorkor Doku, Head Food and Agriculture Department, Accra Metropolitan</p> <p>09.45 <b>Women feeding cities: A research agenda</b> by Dr Diana Lee-Smith, Regional coordinator CGIAR-Urban Harvest</p> <p>10.15 Break</p> <p>10.45 <b>Getting to know each other</b></p> <p>11.45 <b>Presentation of the workshop objectives and programme</b> by Ir Henk de Zeeuw, Coordinator ETC-RUAF</p> <p>12.00 <b>Gender issues in urban agriculture</b> by Drs Joanna Wilbers (Research assistant ETC-RUAF) and Ir Henk de Zeeuw</p> <p>12.30 – 14.00 Lunch</p>	<p>14.00 - Introduction to this session - Division into <b>three mixed groups</b></p> <p>14.15 In each group: - <b>Presentation of two case studies</b> (15-minute presentation followed by 15 minutes of questions for clarification and 30 minutes of analysis: identification of key issues).</p> <p>NB The analysis of the case studies focused on the <b>identification of key issues regarding gender in urban food production and food security</b> for</p> <p>a. Capacity development, HRD b. Research c. Policy development / laws and regulations d. Action planning/ - implementation/ monitoring</p> <p>16.15 Break</p> <p>16.45 Continuation of group work - <b>Presentation of one case study</b> (15-minute presentation followed by 15 minutes of questions for clarification and 30 minutes of analysis and discussion).</p> <p>18.00 Group leaders start preparing the presentation of group results</p>	<p>19.00 Dinner</p> <p>after dinner: <b>Preparation of the social evening</b> (teams of three participants prepare one “act” or game or other group activity of max. 15 minutes)</p>
<b>Tuesday</b> 21 September	<p>07.30 Breakfast</p> <p><b>09.00</b> Taking the temperature. Introduction to the day's programme</p> <p>09.20 Continuation of group work - <b>Presentation of one case study</b> (15-minute presentation followed by 15 minutes of questions for clarification and 30 minutes of analysis and discussion).</p> <p>10.30 Break</p> <p>11.00 <b>Presentation of group results in the plenary meeting</b> (3 15-minute presentations followed by questions for clarification)</p> <p>12.30 – 14.00 Lunch</p>	<p>14.00 - Formation of <b>four thematic discussion groups</b>:</p> <p>a. Capacity development, HRD b. Research c. Policy development / laws and regulations d. Action planning/ - implementation/ monitoring</p> <p>14.15 In each group: Integration of group results day 1 &amp; 2 and <b>development of a prioritised agenda for one theme</b></p> <p>16.00 Break</p> <p>16.15 <b>Presentation of group results</b> (4 15-minute presentations followed by questions for clarification)</p>	<p>19.00 Dinner</p> <p><b>20.30 Social evening</b></p>

	Morning	Afternoon	Evening
<b>Wednesday</b> 22 September	07.00 Breakfast  <b>08.00 Excursion to urban agriculture sites in Accra</b>  12.30 – 14.00 Lunch	14.00 – Taking the temperature. Introduction to the day's programme  14.15 <b>Introduction to gender mainstreaming</b> by Ir Henk de Zeeuw and Drs Joanna Wilbers (ETC-RUAF)  15.00 Formation of two groups: <b>Urban Harvest + and RUAF+</b>  In each group: - <b>Identification of effective strategies to strengthen gender mainstreaming in Urban Harvest and RUAF programme</b> (research plus policy development, and participatory project planning and policy development, respectively) 18.00 Group leaders prepare the presentation of their "case"	19.00 Dinner  <b>Video show</b>
<b>Thursday</b> 23 September	07.30 Breakfast  <b>09.00</b> Taking the temperature. Introduction to the day's programme <b>09.15 The court room:</b> both groups present and defend their gender mainstreaming strategies * Presentation group 1 (20 minutes) * Presentation group 2 (20 minutes) * Deliberations in both groups (30 minutes)  10.30 Break  11.00 Court room continued: * Challenges by group 2 and responses of group 1 (30 minutes) * Challenges by group 1 and responses of group 2 (30 minutes) * The judges: Some lessons learned (30 minutes)  12.30 Lunch	14.00 Summary of <b>main outcomes of the workshop</b> by Dr Diana Lee Smith and Ir Henk de Zeeuw  - Final discussions  15.00 <b>Evaluation of the workshop</b>  16.00 Break  16.30 <b>Closure</b>	<b>18.00 Farewell drinks</b>  <b>19.00 Closing dinner</b>
<b>Friday</b> 24 September	Departure of the participants		

## 8.6 Annex 6 RUAF gender statement

RUAF is a global network of regional resource centres and their local partners, both public and private, which share a common vision on the important role of urban agriculture in sustainable and equitable urban development, urban poverty reduction and employment generation, enhancing urban food security and nutrition, improving urban environmental management and stimulating participatory city governance.

In cities of developing countries, the RUAF network has been striving for recognition of the value of urban agriculture as an integral part of effective urban management and poverty alleviation by local authorities, governmental and private organisations and international programmes. In this effort, it has been envisaged that urban men and women who are, or want to be, engaged in urban agriculture to grow food and to generate income are given access to land and water and are assisted with adequate educational, technical, credit and marketing services. Related micro- and small enterprises (in input supply, production, processing and marketing of food and non-food agro-products) are also being supported and strengthened. RUAF recognises that gender and gender equity play an integral role in this process, and that both women as well as men are agents and beneficiaries of change.

RUAF applies the IDRC-CFP definition of gender, which reads as follows:

*“The term gender refers to the culturally-specific roles, rights and obligations of women and men, and the relationships between women and men. These roles, obligations and rights are not fixed; they are contested and vary widely within and between cultures. They also vary according to other social factors such as class, race, ethnicity, age and marital status. Women and men continually participate in defining gender relations. It is therefore essential to explore the multiple meanings given to gender roles, obligations and relationships in historically and spatially-specific contexts.”*

The partners in the RUAF network promote the exchange of experiences and the generation of knowledge regarding gender issues in urban agriculture. We continue to educate ourselves on this topic and are committed to keeping our knowledge up-to-date about new developments. We share this knowledge with our local partners so that they are enabled to adequately address gender issues in their activities.

The RUAF partners work towards the goal of gender equity in partner countries by both specific initiatives and by ensuring that all of their activities support gender equity objectives. This means that gender differences relevant to urban agriculture projects and policies will be identified in order to improve the relevance and impacts of such projects and policies for both women and men. RUAF partners acknowledge that in all their initiatives, the participation of both women and men – both quantitatively and qualitatively – needs to ensure. They also promote equal access to and control over productive resources for urban agriculture for men and women and the development of participatory mechanisms that enable women, as well as men, to participate in decision-making processes and to influence the policy agenda and the priority setting for development projects in the areas where they live.

In concrete terms, this means that the RUAF partners are committed to integrating gender into their strategies and their methods; showing the importance of gender differences by developing case studies; using gender analysis in their research activities; integrating gender in their training and communications activities; applying gender-sensitive project and policy planning and implementation; using gender-specific monitoring and evaluation methods; and building the capacity of local partner organisations in gender analysis and planning.

