



# The potential of Food Assistance for Assets (FFA) to empower women and improve women's nutrition: a five country study

Final Report



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# Preface

The adoption of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) in 2015 represented a fundamental step forward for taking action toward eradicating poverty in all its forms and dimensions, in order to ensure all people can fulfill their potential in a healthy environment, with dignity and equality. Among these 17 Goals, **SDG2** pledges **to end hunger**, achieve food security, improve nutrition and promote sustainable agriculture, a priority of the World Food Programme. **Food Assistance for Assets (FFA)** is one of WFP's key initiatives that can contribute to improving the long-term food security of people and their communities.

In brief, under the FFA framework, food insecure households receive cash or food-based transfers to address their immediate food needs, freeing up their time to build or rehabilitate assets that will have long-term impacts, creating healthier natural environments, reducing risks and impact of shocks, increasing food productivity and strengthening resilience to natural disasters.

Although WFP is primarily committed to SDG2 (Zero Hunger) and **SDG17 (stronger partnerships** for sustainable development), FFA also contributes to **SDG5** to achieve **gender equality and empower all women and girls**, securing their role in determining, accessing and managing assets. In this regard, between June 2016 and April 2017, WFP's Asset Creation and Livelihoods Unit—in partnership with the Gender Office, the Nutrition Division, and the Emergencies and Transitions Unit—conducted a study across 15 communities in Guatemala, Kenya, Niger, Sri Lanka and Zimbabwe, with the aim of exploring FFA's potential in empowering women and improving women's nutrition.

The study was implemented through a qualitative approach, inspired by the Participatory Impact Assessment and Learning Approach (PIALA) and Most Significant Change (MSC) methods. Group discussions and interviews were conducted to assess the changes in **women's socio-economic empowerment (WSEE)** and **women's nutrition (WN)** resulting from their involvement in FFA activities. Subsequently, the causal linkages that may explain the rationale of the changes and the key success factors that enabled them were explored.

# Acknowledgements

This study was conducted jointly by WFP Headquarters' Asset Creation and Livelihoods Unit, Gender Office, Nutrition Division, and Emergencies and Transitions Unit. The Asset Creation and Livelihoods Unit would like to recognize and thank the WFP Niger, Kenya, Zimbabwe, Guatemala and Sri Lanka country offices, and the associated regional bureaux that followed and supported the study throughout. We would like to recognize the beneficiaries and many stakeholders who contributed to this study. Hundreds of individuals participated in detailed focus group discussions and workshops, contributing valuable and frank insights into women's empowerment and nutrition improvement across 15 communities in five countries.

The report was authored by Zalynn Peishi, with direction and leadership from the core team at WFP Headquarters of Natalia MacDonald, Quinn Marshall, Jacqueline Paul and Damien Vaquier. Many others provided contributions toward developing the final report, including Philippe Crahay, Chiara Cosentino, Mark Gordon, Zuzana Kazdova, Quinn Marshall, Natalia McDonald, Ann Nallo, Kathryn Ogden, Allison Oman, Jacqueline Paul, Scott Ronchini, and Damien Vaquier.



# Executive summary

## Study objectives and outline

From June 2016 to April 2017, a five-country study to explore the potential of WFP's Food Assistance for Assets (FFA) programmes to empower women and improve women's nutrition was conducted jointly by WFP Headquarters' Asset Creation and Livelihoods Unit (OSZPR), Gender Office (GEN), Nutrition Division (OSN) and Emergencies and Transitions Unit (OSZPH).

The purpose of the study was to:

1. Assess **changes** (outcomes or impacts)<sup>1</sup> that relate to **women's socio-economic empowerment (WSEE)** and **women's nutrition (WN)**, and to what extent they occurred;
2. Examine the **causal linkages** that may explain how and why these changes occurred in the lives of women; and
3. Identify the **key success factors**, be they FFA programme actions, complementary actions or contextual factors, which led to the observed changes.

The study also examined how FFA may contribute to protection by avoiding harm and having a positive effect on people's safety and dignity, households' dynamics and social cohesion. This study was not an impact evaluation or a performance assessment. Instead, it was an exploratory exercise to understand the potential of how FFA and complementary actions can empower women and improve their nutrition. To achieve this, qualitative methods inspired by the Participatory Impact Assessment and Learning Approach (PIALA) and the Most Significant Change (MSC) technique were employed to understand why and how complex transformative processes of women's empowerment and improved nutrition occurred in each context. The study's qualitative approach, sample size and reliance on beneficiaries' personal accounts of change were both its strength and limitation.

## Study design

This study used a case-study approach covering five countries; employing qualitative methods and drawing upon secondary data. The primary information sources were:

- semi-structured interviews;
- focus group discussions (FGDs);
- site visits to FFA assets;
- observations of FFA processes;
- sub-national multi-stakeholder participatory workshops in each country; and
- a global sense-making workshop.

Data from these information sources contributed towards four main bodies of work: (i) contextual analysis; (ii) process analysis; (iii) analysis of changes and causal links; and (iv) recommendations.

The study had five country case studies of three sites<sup>2</sup> each (15 sites in total). The countries were selected based on the WFP Country Office's willingness and resources to participate. Each Country Office was requested to select three sites where results had been observed in empowering women and improving nutrition. A 'positive deviance' approach was applied, given the focus on understanding what actions and factors needed to be in place for successful cases in WSEE and WN to occur. Given this purposive sampling, rather than being representative, the study sites were often the 'best' or 'better' FFA sites.

The scope of the study included the 'whole package' of FFA and complementary actions. FFA actions spanned planning processes, such as the Three-Pronged Approach (3PA), committees, work, technical training, transfer, and assets. Where there were complementary actions that were implemented in parallel with FFA, whether by WFP or by other actors, these were studied as well for their contributions to changes. Examples of complementary actions in the study included sensitisation<sup>3</sup>, agricultural extension, food preservation training, cooking classes, group

<sup>1</sup> Intended and unintended, positive and harmful changes were examined.

<sup>2</sup> The study sampled three sites, comprising three women-only FGDs and three men-only FGDs, as analysis has found that 80 to 90 percent of themes are discoverable in three FGDs. See Guest et al., April 2016. [How Many Focus Groups Are Enough? Building an Evidence Base for Nonprobability Sample Sizes](#). Field Methods: Vol 29, Issue 1, 2017

<sup>3</sup> Sensitisation was conducted on a wide range of topics. Examples included women's rights, sexual and reproductive health and rights (SRHR), gender-based violence (GBV), nutrition and diet, hygiene, and use of mosquito nets.

farming, value chain facilitation, enterprise development savings-and-loan groups, latrine construction, linkages with health services and women's services.

Good nutrition is especially important during the first 1,000 days from conception to a child's second birthday, however the focus in this study is on the nutrition of women aged 18 years and above. This focus aligns with the fact that women are directly engaged with FFA work and are direct recipients of complementary actions. Within this group, the focus was on all adult women; not solely on the most nutritionally vulnerable groups of pregnant and lactating women (PLW) or women of reproductive age (WRA), acknowledging that nutrition is important for all women throughout their life cycle.

## Country studies

This report summarises the key WSEE and WN findings for each of the five country case studies. The following are summaries of study areas:

- **Niger – West Africa.** Zinder, near the Nigerian border, is an agro-pastoralist area that is currently experiencing typical to good years following drought years. The program, which started in 2014, has a focus on resilience. The communities visited were predominantly Hausa-speaking and Muslim. While men had typically migrated to Nigeria each year for work, this had markedly reduced at the time of the study.
- **Kenya – East Africa.** Kilifi county, in coastal Kenya, is a low-potential mixed farming area with entrenched poverty. The program, implemented since 2009, focuses on building resilience. At the time of the study, the area had experienced two consecutive poor or failed harvests. The study sample was predominantly Christian and polygamy was a common practice.
- **Zimbabwe – Southern Africa.** Mwenezi district in southern Zimbabwe is a low-potential mixed farming area with cattle and rainfed maize and beans. The area is one of the poorest districts in Zimbabwe. The communities studied are predominantly Christian. Many young able-bodied men in Zimbabwe migrate to cities and South Africa to

work, returning once or twice a year. The program, which is implemented in annual cycles, focuses on building resilience.

- **Guatemala – Latin America.** Zacapa and El Progreso provinces are in the drought-prone hilly landscapes of Guatemala's Dry Corridor. The area had experienced six to seven years of drought across over the past ten years. The livelihoods in the area are centred around subsistence agriculture (maize and beans) and agricultural labour in the plains or coffee plantations. The communities are Christian and non-Indigenous. The program, which started in 2009, focuses on building resilience.
- **Sri Lanka – South Asia.** Mannar and Kilinochchi districts, in Sri Lanka's north, practise mixed farming and coastal fishing. The districts are among Sri Lanka's poorest. Some communities are re-establishing their livelihoods following their resettlement following the end of the conflict. The program, implemented in annual cycles, has projects that focus both on recovery (resettlement) and resilience.

The intention was to conduct the study in a range of seasons and types of years (typical, good and bad/shock years) as detailed in their Seasonal Livelihood Plans (SLPs). While there were seasonal variations in the study sites, 2016-17 had been globally challenging, and the study was conducted in a bad/shock year for all but Niger. The El Niño drought affected Kenya, Zimbabwe and Guatemala, while Sri Lanka had experienced the poorest rains in four decades.



## Changes and causal links

### Women's Socioeconomic Empowerment.

Seven domains of change, from the **individual** to **household** to **public spheres**, were identified.

At the individual level, women reported reductions in workload and hardship (WSEE Change 4); improved skills and confidence, and changed perspectives (WSEE Change 5); improved livelihoods, earning more income and reduced

Most of these changes occurred due to several FFA or complementary actions, rather than one single action. The multiple actions acted to reinforce each other. There were strong interactive effects between and among actions and changes. For example, when women were better organised, it had benefits for other domains of change, such as

**Table.** WSEE changes and the extent to which they were reported in each country case study.

WSEE Changes	Niger	Kenya	Zimbabwe	Guatemala	Sri Lanka
1. Women are better organised and experience better social cohesion, mutual support and solidarity		✓✓✓	✓✓✓	✓✓	✓✓
2. Improvements in the recognition of women, women's roles and leadership in the public sphere		✓✓✓	✓✓✓	✓✓	✓
3. Improvements in intra-household dynamics	✓✓	✓	✓✓✓	✓✓	✓
4. Reduced women's workload and hardship	✓✓✓	✓	✓✓✓		✓
5. Women have improved skills and confidence, and changed perspectives	✓	✓✓✓	✓✓✓	✓	✓
6. Women have improved livelihoods, earn more income, and reduced financial dependence		✓✓	✓✓	✓	✓
7. Women have a better understanding of their rights and can exercise them			✓✓	✓✓	

Note: No tick indicates that no change occurred; ✓ indicates that the change occurred to some extent (i.e., changes occurred for a small proportion of women participants, or limited change was experienced by most women); ✓✓ indicates that change occurred to a moderate extent (i.e., changes occurred for many but not all women, or moderate change was experienced by most women); ✓✓✓ indicates that change occurred to a significant extent (i.e., significant change occurred for most women).

financial dependence (WSEE Change 6); and a better understanding of their rights (WSEE Change 7). At the household level, women reported improvements in intra-household dynamics, including women's decision-making, women's roles and workload, greater recognition and harmony (WSEE Change 3). In the public sphere, women reported better organisation among women, and experienced better social cohesion, mutual support and solidarity (WSEE Change 1). Women experienced better recognition and improvements in their roles and leadership in the public sphere (WSEE Change 2).

their engagement in the public sphere and their livelihoods.

The extent to which each of these changes varied from country to country, and were influenced by FFA and complementary actions and contextual factors, are summarised in the report. It is important to note that many of the documented changes were also experienced by men. Women's empowerment is not a zero-sum game. Where FFA programmes empowered women, they empowered men too.

**Women's nutrition.** This study focused on

beneficiaries' perceptions of changes in immediate, underlying and basic determinants of malnutrition as presented in the conceptual framework for nutrition (Figure 4.2). At the immediate determinant level, women and men reported better diets (WN Change 2). Improvements in three underlying determinants were reported: Improved resilience and households cope better in bad seasons (WN Change 3); better care practices (including feeding, health and WASH) (WN Change 4); Better (physical, economic) access to health services (WN Change 6). Finally, changes were also reported in two basic determinants: Women's empowerment and gender equality (WN Change 1) and better living and health environment in

communities (WN Change 5).

As with the changes in WSEE, most of the WN changes occurred as a result of several FFA or complementary actions, and not one single action. Changes often required multiple actions working in concert. For example, to grow nutritious vegetables, women and men needed assets (garden and water), training, and sensitisation. The report detailed description of how each change came about and their interactions.

**Table.** Women's nutrition changes and the extent to which they were reported in each country case study.

Women's Nutrition Changes	Niger	Kenya	Zimbabwe	Guatemala	Sri Lanka
1. Women's empowerment and gender equality, and its implications		✓✓	✓✓✓	✓	
2. Better diets	✓✓✓	✓✓	✓✓✓	✓✓	✓✓
3. Improved resilience/ Households cope better in bad seasons	N/A <sup>4</sup>	✓✓	✓✓✓	✓	✓✓
4. Better care practices (including feeding, health and WASH)	✓✓✓		✓✓✓	✓	
5. Better living and health environment in communities (e.g. water and sanitation infrastructure)	✓✓	✓✓	✓✓✓	✓	✓
6. Better (physical, economic) access to health services	✓	✓	✓	✓	

Note: No tick indicates that no change occurred; ✓ indicates that the change occurred to some extent (i.e., changes occurred for a small proportion of women participants, or limited change was experienced by most women); ✓✓ indicates that change occurred to a moderate extent (i.e., changes occurred for many but not all women, or moderate change was experienced by most women); ✓✓✓ indicates that change occurred to a significant extent (i.e., significant change occurred for most women).

<sup>4</sup> This could not be determined as there had not been a bad year since the start of the FFA programme.



## Key success factors

The study identified 13 key success factors; be they FFA programme actions, complementary actions or contextual factors, which led to the observed changes. Put another way, women were empowered or their nutrition was improved when this factor, or a combination of these factors, was in place. The following is a list of key success factors identified,

along with the occurrence of each key success factor in the study.

The report also provides a detailed description of the critical actions that led to the success factor being achieved. A summary of these critical actions is included in Section 9.

<b>Women were empowered when the FFA programme (and complementary actions):</b>	<b>Occurrence in the study</b>
1. actively supported the free and fair participation of women in FFA activities;	Observed in some programmes
2. used the 3PA to analyse the context and ensure that programming is gender transformative and empowers women;	Observed in most programmes
3. actively promoted women's social cohesion and organisation;	Observed in some programmes
4. actively promoted women's leadership and engagement in community decision-making	Observed in some programmes
5. reduced women's workload and hardship;	Observed in some programmes
6. supported women's livelihoods and reduced women's financial dependency; and	Observed in some programmes
7. supported women's access to information on rights and referrals (for GBV and SRHR) and the ability to exercise their rights.	Observed in some programmes
<b>Women's nutrition improved when the FFA programme (and complementary actions):</b>	<b>Occurrence in the study</b>
8. used the 3PA to ensure programming improves nutrition outcomes for women;	Observed in some programmes
9. used FFA as platform to provide nutrition sensitisation and link to nutrition and health services;	Observed in some programmes
10. ensured that the transfers and FFA work supported good nutrition, particularly for women;	Observed in some programmes
11. identified and supported assets to reduce women's workload and hardship, and improve safety and hygiene;	Observed in some programmes
12. identified and supported actions for better diets; and	Observed in most programmes
13. identified and supported actions for better sanitation.	Observed in some programmes

## Challenges, missed opportunities, and mitigation measures

While the case studies offered successes, there were also challenges and missed opportunities that contributed to valuable learning. The report also provides a detailed description of the potential

mitigation measures for these challenges and missed opportunities. These mitigation measures are included in Section 9.

Challenge or missed opportunity	Occurrence in the study
<b>Common to both WSEE and WN</b>	
1. Women are over-burdened by the additional demands posed by FFA work norms in addition to their domestic responsibilities.	Observed in some programmes
2. Sensitisation in the areas of health, nutrition, rights, etc is not included, or sensitisation was only provided to women and not men.	Observed in some programmes
3. Single year, rather than multi-year programmes, mean that programmes cannot bring about sustainable change.	Observed in some programmes
4. FFA projects do not articulate project-level impact pathways for WSEE and WN, and consequently have few monitoring indicators to track changes WSEE and WN.	Observed in all programmes
<b>WSEE</b>	
5. Inappropriately determined transfers distort participation ratios of women and men in FFA work due to pre-existing cultural norms and economic barriers.	Observed in most programmes
6. Limited analysis and pre-existing cultural norms create the preconditions for FFA activities to reinforce discriminatory livelihood roles and options for women (and men).	Observed in some programmes
7. FFA governance structures and positions, such as committees and supervisors, reinforce unequal gender relations in communities when not correctly implemented.	Observed in some communities within programmes
<b>WN</b>	
8. Targeting nutritionally-vulnerable household members as FFA <i>participants</i> (rather than FFA <i>beneficiaries</i> ).	Observed in one programme
9. Cash transfers are not enough to afford a nutritious diet.	Observed in most programmes
10. Vegetable gardens do not provide the foods to diversify the diet as expected.	Observed in most programmes
11. Lack of alternative water sources creates the precondition for people to consume water from FFA water reservoirs that were designed for animal consumption or domestic responsibilities.	Observed in most communities where there are reservoirs



## Conclusion

The objective of the study was to explore the potential of how FFA and complementary actions can empower women and improve their nutrition. This study found that FFA programmes can indeed transform gender dynamics, empower women and improve their nutrition. From the five countries, FFA supported WSEE and WN through the following actions.

- **Gender-transformative three-pronged approach (3PA) including Integrated Context Analyses (ICAs), Seasonal Livelihood Plan (SLPs) and Community-Based Participatory and Planning (CBPPs).** Good planning and quality assets were critical to achieving women's empowerment and women's nutrition outcomes. Planning led to women's empowerment or nutrition outcomes when women and men were equitably involved in CBPPs (or other planning processes) and when the plans were developed with strong gender equality and nutrition elements.
- **Committees.** Women were empowered when they held key leadership positions in community committees that oversee FFA works (Kenya), food distribution (Guatemala) or asset management (Zimbabwe). Leadership in FFA can lead to women having a stronger role in community decision-making and governance (Guatemala). When committee members are trained in such skills as leadership, management and conflict resolution, it increases women's confidence in carrying out their leadership roles (Zimbabwe).
- **FFA work.** The process of bringing women and men together to work on a shared (group or community) asset provided valuable opportunities for women (and men) to (a) form new friendships; (b) establish and be part of support networks, and (c) strengthen their sense of self-efficacy and self-worth (Niger, Kenya and Zimbabwe). Women reported using new networks to support each other in times of crisis and to seek or provide advice. Work sites can model gender relations with women and men working together as equals (Zimbabwe and Sri Lanka). Work arrangements need to be mindful of women's needs, particularly of PLW's nutritional and health requirements.
- **Assets.** Assets, when strategically selected to consider the needs and priorities of women and men, can (a) significantly reduce

women's workload and hardship, particularly in relation to unpaid domestic work, such as carrying water; (b) create opportunities to generate an income, and (c) improve diet. Water harvesting assets, such as dams and ponds, can reduce a woman's workload by up to three hours per day. When layered with additional assets, such as wash basins and nutrition gardens, this can create an 'asset package' that yields significant change for women's lives and the nutrition of their households (Zimbabwe).

Irrigated vegetable gardens can significantly improve the stability, diversity and quality of diets when they are accompanied with good planning, agricultural training and nutrition messages for a year-round 'rainbow' diet (Zimbabwe). Small-scale irrigation infrastructure, such as pipes and watering troughs, mean that the time and energy required for watering is reduced, and that households can sustainably maintain the gardens even through seasons with household labour scarcity. Other assets, such as water reservoirs, latrines, roads and energy-saving stoves, can promote better health and hygiene (Kenya, Zimbabwe, Guatemala and Sri Lanka).

When women and men's long-term and equitable access to the assets are secured, they are more likely to be able to invest their energies and resources in them (Kenya and Zimbabwe).

- **Transfers.** Transfers provide immediate relief and provide space for women and men to work on their longer-term food security and livelihoods. Cash transfers may be used differently when provided to a woman or a man (Zimbabwe). Messaging around the use of the cash increases the chances of joint decision-making between women and men (Zimbabwe) and the cash being spent on food (Niger). Nutrition messaging can potentially lead to women and men purchasing more nutritious foods.
- **Sensitisation.** Sensitisation on hygiene, nutrition and gender equality for both women and men can potentially improve knowledge, and change attitudes and practices (Niger and Zimbabwe). Sensitisation can be used to promote joint decision-making in households and a redistribution of unpaid care and domestic work within households (Zimbabwe). FFA can be a platform from which other actors provide messaging, referrals or service delivery in GBV and SRHR for example (Niger,

Zimbabwe, Guatemala). When women and men are introduced to other actors – government entities, health centres, civil society organisations – FFA programming builds their networks and enhances their ability to seek services beyond the programme life (Zimbabwe, Guatemala).

- **Technical training.** Many women and men identified the technical training that they received, such as in agriculture, soil-water conservation and construction, as being the most significant FFA action to bring about changes in women’s empowerment and nutrition. In addition to providing the opportunity to develop knowledge and skills, training has an ‘empowering’, confidence and resilience-building effects. Training can also support nutrition-sensitive actions, e.g. growing nutrient-dense food or promoting good hygiene practices (Kenya, Zimbabwe).
- **Complementary actions.** Agricultural extension, group farming, value chain facilitation, savings-and-loan groups, and latrine construction are some of the complementary actions with reported success in empowering women and improving their nutrition.

## Recommendations

While the study confirmed the potential of FFA to empower women and improve their nutrition, there remain gaps across WFP’s FFA programmes globally. Over the past years, the focus has been on promoting women’s participation in FFA programmes. This study has found that women’s participation in FFA activities is a necessary precondition, but not a guarantee, of WSEE. A shift is required for WFP to realise its ambition for its food assistance programmes, including FFA, to be gender transformative and to empower women<sup>5</sup>.

Similarly, the emphasis is only now broadening from not only improving food security but to simultaneously improve nutrition. WFP’s recently-introduced interim Nutrition-Sensitive Guidance (March 2017), along with updates to the FFA PGM, provides much-needed guidance to support the inclusion of nutrition objectives and nutrition-sensitive activities and objectives in to FFA programming.

To advance women’s empowerment and improve women’s nutrition, the following need to be addressed:

**1. Promote women’s participation, social cohesion and leadership.** Women’s participation in FFA activities, including FFA work, technical training, and complementary services, is a precondition for their equitable benefit and empowerment. This study found that women’s participation in FFA activities brought many benefits, including better social cohesion, women’s organisation, women’s leadership, improved skills, and transformed gender dynamics.

Further action is required of FFA programmes to promote women’s participation, social cohesion and leadership. Examples include ensuring that women are not over-burdened (e.g., ensuring flexible and appropriate work times, tailored and appropriate work norms), women’s work teams, women’s group assets, supporting women’s membership in FFA committees, and providing training to FFA committee members to foster leadership skills. Further work is required to systematise and take these actions to scale across FFA programmes globally.

**2. Use appropriate transfer values.** Across most programmes studied, inappropriately determined transfers distorted the participation ratios of women and men in FFA work. When transfers were low, men were less likely to participate in the FFA work. In these situations, high women’s participation in FFA may not be a sign of gender transformation or women’s empowerment; rather it signifies pre-existing cultural norms where there is lower valuation of women and their labour, relative to men. Action is required to ensure women’s place in FFA even when the transfer value is increased. Alternatively, action is required to ensure that women receive other non-monetary benefits to improve their longer-term food security and livelihoods, such as technical training, soft skills training, access to credit and access to markets.

The study found that transfer values were often not enough to afford a nutritious diet. Transfers were often calculated based on a calorie, rather than nutrient, gap. A nutritious diet is usually more expensive as it requires more fresh food, e.g., fruit and vegetables, and protein-rich foods. While FFA assets, can – in the medium and long term – contribute to a more nutritious diet, they are often unable to support immediate food needs, particularly for nutritionally-vulnerable groups. Action is therefore required to adjust transfer values based on a nutrient gap.

**3. Promote women’s skills, livelihoods, and**

<sup>5</sup> [WFP Gender Policy 2015-2020](#), also citing Summary Evaluation Report of the WFP Gender Policy (2008–2013) (WFP/EB.1/2014/5-A\*)



**income.** Across many communities, women and men spoke of the skills gained from the FFA programme as leading to lifelong change. Livelihoods and income were high priorities for women across the five countries. It was particularly important for women household heads, who are usually solely responsible for providing for their families.

FFA has significant potential to improve women's skills, livelihoods, and income through both FFA and complementary actions delivered by partners. Supportive FFA actions include assets that support women's livelihoods or save labour, and technical training. Supportive complementary activities include training (e.g., livelihoods and financial management), value chain facilitation, and access to credit. This is a nascent area of work within WFP's programming toolbox, and the study highlighted both successes (e.g., brokering relationships with agricultural exporters and FFA groups) and pitfalls (e.g., confining women's livelihood options to small-scale and unprofitable ventures). Further work is required to develop WFP's capacity and partnerships in this area and linkages with FFA programmes.

**4. Use FFA as a platform for nutrition messaging and awareness raising on rights and referrals.** The study highlighted the potential of using FFA programmes as a platform for sensitisation on a wide range of topics including women's rights, GBV, SRHR, malaria prevention, diet, hygiene, care practices, infant and young child feeding (IYCF), and child growth monitoring. WFP can potentially act as an enabler, with the sensitisation delivered by partners such as Government or other service providers. This appeared to be most successful when partners provided the sensitisation to both women and men (not only women).

Despite the potential benefits, currently only a few FFA programmes deliver sensitisation initiatives. Further work is required to document good practice and develop guidance and partnerships to take this to scale.

#### **5. Impact pathways and measurement.**

Although WFP staff have a clear vision of how their FFA projects contribute to women's empowerment and improving nutrition, the study found that FFA projects currently do not have project-level impact pathways documenting how FFA (and complementary) actions empower women. Mechanisms to measure changes in women's empowerment and nutrition are limited.

To improve the quality of programming, with tangible and empowering impacts, putting in place

impact pathways and indicators are essential. Findings from monitoring during programme-life can inform adjustments to implementation. Further guidance on WFP gender equality indicators will be drafted by the end of August 2017, and these will need further nuancing for FFA programming and rolled out.

In addition to the above general recommendations, detailed recommendations are provided for action by Regional Bureaux, Country Offices, and HQ.

### **Summary of critical actions and mitigating measures**

Through the study, critical actions and mitigation measures were documented to improve the potential of FFA to empower women and improve nutrition. The following are highlights of critical actions and mitigation measures discussed in the report:

#### **Take action to ensure that women are not over-burdened by the additional demands posed by FFA work norms in addition to their domestic responsibilities.**

- ▶ Adjust timing for implementation of FFA and existing workloads, particularly on women and caregivers.
- ▶ Adopt fair work norms.
- ▶ Accommodate specific requirements for those households over-burdened with work related to the care of children or other responsibilities but willing to participate in FFA activities.
- ▶ Establish specific work norms for PLW and households with less or no labour capacity.
- ▶ Establish specific but physically light tasks for PLW and households with limited labour capacities; such as child caring or distributing water for FFA workers.
- ▶ Provide unconditional assistance for highly vulnerable and food insecure households that have no labour capacity.
- ▶ Provide sufficient breaks for care taking and feeding activities.
- ▶ Provide a set of alternatives to women with young infants and children, such as baby-sitting and crèches.

#### **Incorporate sensitisation in the areas of rights, health, nutrition etc., and ensure sensitisation is provided to both women and men.**

- ▶ Working with partners, use FFA as a platform to raise awareness on rights and referral services, including in relation to:
  - women's legal rights;
  - gender roles, relations and responsibilities;
  - sexual reproductive health and rights (SRHR) and services;

- ◊ gender-based violence (GBV), including legal rights and services; and
  - ◊ nutrition sensitisation and messaging, including on women's nutrition in all life cycle stages, care practices, hygiene and sanitation, maternal and child health.
  - ▶ Model good practices by sensitising on SEA for FFA work sites, and assigning a gender focal point for complaints.
  - ▶ Explicitly invite both women and men to sensitisation sessions.
  - ▶ Consider making attendance at sensitisation sessions a work norm or a soft condition.
- ▶ Form partnerships with actors with the capacities to identify and support viable livelihoods for women.
  - ▶ Carefully assess livelihood options that are being proposed for women, including questioning assumptions that underlie selecting livelihoods.

### **Support women's leadership and social cohesion.**

- ▶ Ensure that women are represented in committees. At a minimum, this should be equal participation. Depending on context, women-only committees can ensure that men do not 'take over'.
- ▶ Actively provide opportunities for women to meet, work together and collaborate in ways that are aligned with their needs and priorities. This may include women-only committees, women's work teams, group assets owned by women, training events, and savings and loan groups.
- ▶ Ensure that women can attend meetings by, for example, holding meetings at times that suit women, providing children with a space to play while mothers meet, supporting breastfeeding.
- ▶ Provide leadership and soft-skills training for committee members to equip them to perform their roles skilfully and with confidence.
- ▶ Provide beneficiaries – women and men – with sensitisation about the benefits of women's leadership.

### **Support women's livelihoods and reduce financial dependency.**

- ▶ Based on participatory gender and market analysis, support women in pursuing viable livelihoods of their choice, and reflecting their capacities and priorities.
- ▶ Promote household and/or community assets that support women's livelihoods, including indirectly by reducing women's hardship and workload.
- ▶ Provide technical or complementary training to support women's livelihoods, such as agricultural extension, financial services and value chain facilitation.
- ▶ Support complementary actions, like group formation, savings and loan groups, business skills training, and value chain facilitation.
- ▶ Link with other actors that can support women's livelihoods, such as:
  - ◊ market actors, such as input suppliers, buyers, processors, or transporters;
  - ◊ other WFP programmes, such as home-grown school feeding, FFT, smallholder

programmes, and Purchase for Progress (P4P);

- ◊ agricultural value chain development programmes, like those of FAO and IFAD; and
- ◊ training organisations, NGOs, business incubation programmes, and cooperatives.

- ▶ Form partnerships with actors with the capacities to identify and support viable livelihoods for women.
- ▶ Carefully assess livelihood options that are being proposed for women, including questioning assumptions that underlie selecting livelihoods.

### **Use appropriate transfer values.**

- ▶ Ensure that the timing and composition / value of the transfer supports good nutrition, in line with WFP Nutrition-Sensitive Guidance and WFP Cash and Voucher Manual. The transfer should be sufficient to enable access to a nutritious diet (including not only quantity but quality and thus meet macro and micronutrient requirements); not just a calorie-adequate diet.
- ▶ Ensure that the transfer is accompanied by sensitisation on nutritious foods to support informed decision making and use of the transfer.
- ▶ Add a fortified complementary food or an extra transfer for nutritionally-vulnerable groups.
- ▶ Ensure that PLW have tailored work norms and that facilitative services, such as child care for breastfeeding mothers.
- ▶ Adjust work norms and/or transfers to respond to changes in women's workload.

### **Identify and support actions for better diets.**

- ▶ Use the CBPP to identify pathways to better diets, and select actions to support better diets (which may not be through own production).
- ▶ Provide messaging on better diets; tailored to the different beneficiaries (gender, age, disability, literacy etc.).
- ▶ Support asset packages that can increase own production, income, or physical access.
  - ◊ Ensure the assets are packaged or layered with other assets to be sustainable.
  - ◊ Ensure that assets are of sufficient size or scale to improve diets.
  - ◊ Assuring permanent tenure / access to land and ownership of assets.
  - ◊ Establish an asset management committee (with gender balance in membership).
- ▶ Link to nutrition-sensitive agricultural extension services to promote a nutritious diet comprising rainbow fruit and vegetables and animal protein.
- ▶ Link to other complementary services (value chain actors) so that women and men can derive the maximum benefit from assets.
- ▶ If introducing new foods, provide cooking classes (to women and men) to ensure consumption.

# Acronyms

<b>3PA</b>	Three-Pronged Approach
<b>BMI</b>	Body mass index
<b>CBPP</b>	Community-Based Participatory Planning
<b>C2C</b>	Joint UN Communes de Convergence approach in Niger
<b>CO</b>	WFP Country Office
<b>ComRes</b>	Guatemala's Resilient Communities programme
<b>CP</b>	WFP Cooperating Partner
<b>CSP</b>	Country Strategic Plan
<b>EFP</b>	Essential Family Practices (in Niger)
<b>FAO</b>	UN Food and Agriculture Organisation
<b>FCS</b>	Food consumption score
<b>FDC</b>	Food Distribution Committee (in Guatemala)
<b>FFA</b>	Food Assistance for Assets
<b>FGD</b>	Focus group discussion
<b>FHH</b>	Female-headed household, also referred to as woman-headed household
<b>GBV</b>	Gender-based violence
<b>GEN</b>	WFP Gender Office
<b>GEWE</b>	Gender equality and women's empowerment
<b>GFD</b>	General food distribution
<b>HQ</b>	WFP's Headquarters
<b>ICA</b>	Integrated Context Analysis
<b>IFAD</b>	UN International Fund for Agricultural Development
<b>IGA</b>	Income-generating activity
<b>IRM</b>	Integrated Road Map
<b>ISAL</b>	Internal Savings and Lending Scheme (in Zimbabwe)
<b>IYCF</b>	Infant and young child feeding practices
<b>LTTE</b>	Liberation Tigers of Tamil Eelam
<b>M&amp;E</b>	Monitoring and evaluation
<b>MAGA</b>	Guatemalan Ministry of Agriculture, Livestock and Food
<b>MDD-W</b>	Minimum dietary diversity - women
<b>MDG</b>	Millennium Development Goal
<b>MSC</b>	Most Significant Change
<b>NGO</b>	Non-government organisation
<b>OSN</b>	WFP HQ's Nutrition Division
<b>OSZPH</b>	WFP HQ's Emergencies and Transitions Unit, covering protection issues
<b>OSZPR</b>	WFP HQ's Asset Creating and Livelihoods Unit
<b>P4P</b>	WFP's Purchase for Progress initiative
<b>PGM</b>	Programme Guidance Manual (typically in reference to WFP's FFA PGM)
<b>PIALA</b>	Participatory Impact Assessment and Learning Approach
<b>PLW</b>	Pregnant and lactating woman
<b>PWD</b>	Person living with a disability
<b>WASH</b>	Water supply, sanitation and hygiene



<b>WFP</b>	World Food Programme
<b>WHH</b>	Woman-headed household, also referred to as female-headed household
<b>WN</b>	Women’s nutrition
<b>WRA</b>	Woman of reproductive age (aged 15 to 49 years) As this study focuses on women aged 18 years and above, the WRA interviewed in this study were aged 18-49 years.
<b>WSEE</b>	Women’s socio-economic empowerment
<b>RB</b>	Regional Bureau
<b>RBA</b>	UN Rome-Based Agencies, comprising FAO, IFAD and WFP
<b>SDG</b>	Sustainable Development Goal
<b>SEA</b>	Sexual exploitation and abuse
<b>SLP</b>	Seasonal Livelihood Plan
<b>SRHR</b>	Sexual reproductive health and rights
<b>SWC</b>	Soil-water conservation
<b>UNICEF</b>	United Nations Children’s Fund
<b>VAM</b>	Vulnerability analysis and mapping
<b>VSLA</b>	Village savings and loan groups (as in Kenya case study)
<b>WASH</b>	Water supply, sanitation and hygiene

# Glossary of key terms

## TERMS USED IN THIS STUDY:

<p><b>FFA actions and complementary actions</b></p>	<p>The scope of the study included the ‘whole package’ of FFA and complementary actions. <b>FFA actions</b> spanned planning processes, such as the Three-Pronged Approach (3PA), committees, work, technical training, transfer, and assets. Where there were complementary actions that were implemented in parallel with FFA, whether by WFP or by other actors, these were studied as well for their contributions to changes. Examples of <b>complementary actions</b> in the study included sensitisation<sup>6</sup>, agricultural extension, food preservation training, cooking classes, group farming, value chain facilitation, enterprise development savings-and-loan groups, latrine construction, linkages with health services and women’s services.</p>	<p>See Section 2.1</p>
<p><b>Significant change and most significant change</b></p>	<p>In this study, ‘<b>significant change</b>’ refers to the changes subjectively identified by where FGD participants as being significant. It does not mean a statistically significant change. Similar, the ‘<b>most significant changes</b>’ were selected using a ranking process of the significant changes.</p>	<p>See Section 2.1</p>
<p><b>Key success factor and critical action</b></p>	<p><b>Key success factors</b> are the FFA programme actions, complementary actions or contextual factors, which led to the observed WSEE and WN changes. These were framed as “Women were empowered when the FFA programme (and complementary actions)...” and “Women’s nutrition improved when the FFA programme (and complementary actions) ...”.</p> <p>The success factors were contingent on <b>critical actions</b> to bring about change. Multiple action needed to act in concert to bring about change. Each critical action is necessary – but insufficient on its own – to lead to the success factor.</p>	<p>See Section 4.2</p>
<p><b>Technical training</b></p>	<p>In this study, technical training was defined as the training relating to the construction or usage of the asset. While technical training is an FFA action, other training beyond construction or usage of the asset is regarded as a complementary action.</p>	<p>-</p>

<sup>6</sup> Sensitisation was conducted on a wide range of topics. Examples included women’s rights, sexual and reproductive health and rights (SRHR), gender-based violence (GBV), nutrition and diet, hygiene, and use of mosquito nets.

<b>Women's nutrition</b>	The focus of this study is on the nutrition of women aged 18 years and above. This focus aligns with the fact that women are directly engaged with FFA work and are direct recipients of complementary actions. Within this group, the focus was on all adult women; not solely pregnant and lactating women (PLW) or women of reproductive age (WRA), acknowledging that nutrition is important for all women throughout their life cycle.	See Section 2.1
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Unless otherwise specified, the following key terms are drawn from the [FFA Programme Guidance Manual \(PGM\)](#), the [Gender Toolkit](#), and the [Nutrition-Sensitive Guidance](#).

<b>3PA</b>	An innovative programming approach developed by WFP in consultation with governments and partners to strengthen the planning and design of resilience building, productive safety nets, disaster risk reduction, and preparedness programmes. It informs plans and policies, promotes operational partnerships, and strengthens the design and planning of long-term programmes. The 3PA brings people, governments and partners together to identify context-specific actions required, using converging analyses, consultations, and participatory approaches. It is made up of three processes that take place at different levels: Integrated Context Analysis (ICA) at the national level; Seasonal Livelihood Programming (SLP) at the sub-national level; and Community-Based Participatory Planning (CBPP) at the local level	<a href="#">FFA PGM</a>
<b>Care practices</b>	An individual caregiver's typical practices for feeding and caring for infants, young children, mothers/selves and others in the family.	<a href="#">Nutrition-Sensitive Guidance</a>
<b>Diet</b>	The kinds of food and drink an individual usually consumes	<a href="#">Nutrition-Sensitive Guidance</a>
<b>Dietary diversity</b>	The number of food groups consumed over a given period of time that can be used as an indicator of household food security, or diet quality.	<a href="#">Nutrition-Sensitive Guidance</a>
<b>FFA beneficiary</b>	FFA beneficiaries are those benefiting from the transfer that is received for the assets built.	<a href="#">FFA PGM</a>
<b>FFA participant</b>	FFA participants are those who do the FFA activities.	<a href="#">FFA PGM</a>
<b>Food environment</b>	The food environment is one of the emerging concepts associated with food systems and nutrition. It designates the interface between the food system and consumers. Food market environments constrain and signal what consumers purchase; wild and cultivated food environments also can provide access to foods. Food environment is defined as the availability, affordability, convenience and desirability of various foods. Fundamental elements of the food environment are: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Availability: whether a food is present within a given geographic range.</li> <li>• Affordability: price of a food, relative to cost of other foods and/or population income.</li> <li>• Convenience: time and labour cost of obtaining, preparing and consuming a food.</li> <li>• Desirability: the external influences on how desirable a food is to consumers, including freshness/integrity of a food, how it is presented, and how it is marketed.</li> </ul>	<a href="#">Nutrition-Sensitive Guidance</a>



	<p>This definition does not include intrinsic tastes/preferences of an individual, which influence consumption but are individual rather than environmental factors.</p> <p>The food environment is directly affected by the food system and, in turn, affects diet quality and nutritional status.</p>	
<b>Gender transformative</b>	An initiative (law, policy, programme, project etc.) that changes gender relations in favour of the equal sharing of power by women and men, and girls and boys. The action involves revising the socio-cultural, political and economic structures and norms that underpin inequalities.	<a href="#">Gender Toolkit</a>
<b>Health and sanitation environment</b>	The factors in the physical environment where a person lives that pose health risks or protections.	<a href="#">Nutrition-Sensitive Guidance</a>
<b>Maternal undernutrition</b>	Refers to the poor nutritional status of a mother at pre-conception / pregnancy / post-natal stages, and refers to both anthropometric and micronutrient status.	<a href="#">Nutrition-Sensitive Guidance</a>
<b>Nutrition knowledge</b>	Refers to an individual’s understanding of food and nutrition-related terminology and information, which, when remembered, assimilated and put into practice, helps contribute to good nutritional status. Nutrition knowledge encompasses the range of topics - food, diet, care, hygiene and health – which are determinants of/impact nutrition outcomes.	<a href="#">Nutrition-Sensitive Guidance</a>
<b>Nutrition-sensitive programmes</b>	Interventions or programmes that address the underlying determinants of foetal and child nutrition and development—food security; adequate caregiving resources at the maternal, household and community levels; and access to health services and a safe and hygienic environment—and incorporate specific nutrition goals and actions	<a href="#">Nutrition-Sensitive Guidance</a>
<b>Overweight and obesity</b>	Body weight that is above normal for height as a result of an excessive accumulation of fat. It is usually a manifestation of over nourishment. Overweight is defined as a BMI of more than 25 but less than 30 and obesity as a BMI of 30 or more; a BMI >25-30.	<a href="#">Nutrition-Sensitive Guidance</a>
<b>Productivity work norms</b>	Associated to each asset that is to be created through FFA, productivity work norms indicate the number of outputs or work units, by FFA intervention (or sub-intervention), expected from an FFA participant (or a defined number of FFA participants), within a required timeframe (e.g. per day), in line with the required qualitative technical standards, and depending on the FFA project and context	<a href="#">FFA PGM</a>
<b>Protection</b>	Designing and carrying out food assistance activities that do not increase the protection risks faced by the crisis-affected populations receiving assistance, but rather, contribute to the safety, dignity, and integrity of vulnerable people.	<a href="#">WFP’s Humanitarian Protection Policy</a>
<b>Women’s empowerment</b>	Women’s empowerment refers to the process through which women obtain and exercise agency in their own lives, with equal access alongside men to resources, opportunities and power. Women’s empowerment involves awareness-raising, building self-confidence, expanding choices, increasing access to and control of resources and reforming institutions and structures so that they contribute to gender equality, rather than perpetuate discrimination and oppression.	<a href="#">Gender Toolkit</a>

# 1 Introduction

## 1.1 Study objectives and outline

From June 2016 to April 2017, a five-country study to explore the potential of WFP's Food Assistance for Assets (FFA) programmes to empower women and improve women's nutrition was conducted jointly by WFP Headquarters' Asset Creation and Livelihoods Unit (OSZPR), Gender Office (GEN), Nutrition Division (OSN) and Emergencies and Transitions Unit (OSZPH).

The purpose of the study was to:

1. Assess **changes** (outcomes or impacts)<sup>7</sup> that relate to women's socio-economic empowerment (WSEE) and women's nutrition, and to what extent they occurred;
2. Examine the **causal linkages** that may explain how and why these changes occurred in the lives of women; and
3. Identify the **key success factors**, be they FFA programme actions, complementary actions or contextual factors, which led to the observed changes.

The study also examined how FFA may contribute to protection by avoiding harm and having a positive effect on people's safety and dignity, households' dynamics and social cohesion.

This study was not an impact evaluation or a performance assessment. Instead, it was an exploratory exercise to understand the potential of how FFA and complementary actions can empower women and improve their nutrition. To achieve this, qualitative methods inspired by the Participatory Impact Assessment and Learning Approach (PIALA) and the Most Significant Change (MSC) technique were employed to understand why and how complex transformative processes of women's empowerment and improved nutrition occurred in each context. The study's qualitative approach, sample size and reliance on beneficiaries' personal accounts of change were both its strength and limitation.

## 1.2 Background to the study

The WFP FFA initiative addresses immediate food

needs through cash, voucher or food transfers, while at the same time it promotes the building or rehabilitation of assets that will improve long-term food security and resilience. FFA is one of WFP's largest areas of investment. Since 2013, FFA programmes in more than 50 countries have rehabilitated hundreds of thousands of hectares of degraded land back into productive use; planted thousands of hectares of forests, built scores of wells, ponds and feeder roads, and trained countless individuals in livelihood and agricultural practices<sup>8</sup>. In 2016, 1.9 million people participated in the implementation of FFA programmes, out of which 47 percent were women. In total, the outputs achieved through FFA programmes directly benefited 10.1 million people.

FFA is a powerful tool in efforts to achieve Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) Goal 2 to end hunger, achieve food security and improved nutrition, and promote sustainable agriculture. FFA can contribute to SDG Goal 5 to achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls. The study took place at a time when WFP was undergoing significant organisational change to align itself with the SDGs through the Integrated Road Map (IRM), including to more effectively and efficiently achieve food security and improve nutrition; for which gender equality and women's empowerment (GEWE) are requirements.

This study succeeded the 2014 FFA evaluation series, which covered six countries: Bangladesh, Ethiopia, Guatemala, Nepal, Senegal and Uganda<sup>9</sup>. The 2014 synthesis report revealed that overall WFP was effective in providing food through FFA to people in underserved communities during periods of civil unrest or natural disaster. Medium- and long-term impacts were seen in livelihoods, income-generating opportunities, land productivity, social cohesion and gender dynamics; albeit with mixed results emerging in terms of food security. The results were achieved despite different contextual constraints, such as disruption of the social fabric by conflict and recurrent disasters or, frequently, insufficient funding and resources and limited technical assistance. Women benefited significantly from FFA activities through increased access to resources and increased control of and benefit from

<sup>7</sup> Intended and unintended, positive and harmful changes were examined.

<sup>8</sup> <http://www1.wfp.org/food-assistance-for-assets>

<sup>9</sup> WFP 2014. [Synthesis Report of the Evaluation Series on the Impact of Food for Assets \(2002-2011\) and lessons for building livelihoods resilience](#). OEVI/2014/11

the assets created. Improvements were seen in women's positions in communities and households, including in relation to budget management, with an increased social connectivity and freedom of movement that resulted from FFA activities affecting women's roles more broadly in their communities.

The synthesis report also highlighted concerns relating to women participating directly in FFA activities, as some activities were seen to lead to:

- Possible additional burden being put on women with a risk of trade-off between FFA work and childcare or other family duties, such as fetching wood and water;
- Possible compounding negative effects (especially on nutrition and health) of physical labour, particularly for pregnant and lactating women (PLW);
- Security issues when traveling to remote FFA sites; and
- Remaining long-term disparities between female and male-headed households.

As a result, the evaluation synthesis report recommended that WFP carry out two specific studies, including one aimed at further exploring the "impacts of FFA activities on women, particularly their nutrition and health and on opportunities for additional linkages with nutrition generated by a focus on gender issues".

For the current study, **women's empowerment** is understood as the process through which women obtain and exercise agency in their own lives, with equal access alongside men to resources, opportunities and power. Women's empowerment involves awareness-raising, building self-confidence, expanding choices, increasing access to and control of resources and reforming institutions and structures so that they contribute to gender equality, rather than perpetuate discrimination and oppression<sup>10</sup>.

**Women's nutrition.** In March 2017 (prior to the fifth country case study, Sri Lanka), WFP released interim guidance, [Unlocking WFP's potential: Guidance for nutrition-sensitive programming](#). The guidance supported the 2017-2021 Nutrition Policy, which emphasises nutrition-sensitive programming as an integral part of efforts to reduce malnutrition. As distinct from nutrition-specific programmes,

nutrition-sensitive programmes take place in sectors complementary to the nutrition sector. They are designed to address some of the underlying and basic determinants of malnutrition. By providing a platform for scaling up delivery of nutrition-specific interventions, they may also address the immediate determinants of malnutrition. Nutrition-sensitive actions can be introduced in a wide variety of programmes which include agriculture and food security, social safety nets, early childhood development, women's empowerment and health. WFP's Guidance identifies FFA, General Food Assistance (GFA), School Meals (SM) and Smallholder Agricultural Market Support (SAMS) as programme areas within WFP with the most potential to be nutrition-sensitive.

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<sup>10</sup> For further information, see the WFP [Gender Toolkit](#).



# 2 Study methodology

## 2.1 Study design

In line with the ToR, this study used a case-study approach covering five countries; employing qualitative methods and drawing upon secondary data. The primary information sources were:

- Semi-structured interviews;
- Focus group discussions (FGDs);
- Site visits to FFA assets;
- Observations of FFA processes;
- Sub-national multi-stakeholder participatory workshops in each country; and
- A global sense-making workshop.

Data from these information sources contributed towards four main bodies of work: (i) contextual analysis; (ii) process analysis; (iii) analysis of changes and causal links; and (iv) recommendations (see Figure 2.1).

the national and sub-national levels. In all countries, representatives from government, UN agencies, civil society and Cooperating Partners were interviewed. FGDs with beneficiaries provided local contextual information.

**Process analyses** were necessary to understand women’s and men’s roles in, and experiences of each stage of, FFA implementation. The primary informants for the process analyses were the FFA participants or beneficiaries through the women-only and men-only FGDs. The information was triangulated against interviews with WFP and Cooperating Partner staff and project documentation. To better understand what occurred and how, there was an **analysis of changes** that occurred in women’s and men’s lives, as well as their **causal links**; that is, how FFA or complementary actions led to the reported changes. Through in-depth discussions in the FGDs, the beneficiaries were the primary informants regarding changes. The information gathered from the FGDs



**Figure 2.1.** The study’s bodies of work and their information sources

A **contextual analysis** was conducted for each study location; constituting three sites per country. Consideration was given to food security, gender, nutrition, protection and other factors that could explain the outcomes in the different local economic, socio-cultural or political contexts, or the socio-economic characteristics of beneficiaries. Contextual information was drawn from secondary data (reports, surveys, evaluations, analyses) and interviews with WFP staff and other stakeholders at

was then validated at the sub-national and global workshops.

**Recommendations** were developed for each country case study following the sub-national multi-stakeholder workshop and debriefing discussions with Country Offices (COs), Regional Bureaux (RBx), and HQ. Global recommendations were developed during the global sense-making workshop and refined after checking consistency

with existing literature.

The study's approach was qualitative, relying on beneficiaries' perceptions and personal accounts of change and attribution. For each country, the study teams sought to gather and analyse data from multiple sources (e.g. beneficiaries, implementers, government officials) and multiple fora (e.g. FGDs, interviews, sub-national workshop) to identify explanations consistent with a causal relationship. Alternative explanations for the changes were sought, to see if they could be ruled out.

For nutrition, the study was not designed to collect quantitative data, such as pertaining to women's nutritional status, changes in diet or incidence of diarrheal disease. Rather, the study focussed on understanding changes to the basic and underlying determinants of women's nutrition, including food environment, access to income, health and living environment, nutrition knowledge, and household access to food, WASH, and health services.

**Rationale for the study design.** This study was an exploratory exercise to strengthen programme process and impact, rather than an impact evaluation. The emphasis was on gathering *ideas* and *good practices* on how FFA programmes can potentially contribute to WSEE and WN, not statistically-representative *evidence* of impact.

Collecting statistically-representative evidence was not possible within the resource parameters of the study. Neither was it the aim of this study. Furthermore, few WFP FFA programmes have been designed with gender equality, women's empowerment and/or nutrition objectives. None of the FFA programmes examined had a theory of change that explained how WSEE or WN could be achieved. None had collected indicators, beyond the corporate aggregated results<sup>11</sup>. Due to these limitations, the study could not rigorously assemble evidence of changes and causal links. For such evidence, there would typically need to have a *counterfactual*. Counterfactuals are usually *before-after* (requiring a baseline) or *treatment-control* (requiring a comparison group). The before-after counterfactual was not possible as WSEE and WN indicators were not measured at baseline. Identifying and studying appropriately-matched comparison groups requires resources greater than those available for this study. During the study's inception, a third type of counterfactual was considered: comparing outcomes or impacts to the

quality of programme actions. This option was employed, wherein 'treatments' (e.g. programme actions) are considered to lead to outcomes because in their absence, or if the actions are poorly delivered or experienced, the outcomes do not occur<sup>12</sup>.

The approaches used were inspired by the **MSC** technique<sup>13</sup> and **PIALA**. **MSC** was a good match to study WSEE because WSEE is a complex transformative process. While there are universal aspects to WSEE, many parameters are locally defined; what constitutes empowerment to an individual woman or to a group of women in one location may not be the same as in another context. MSC does not use pre-defined indicators, but instead asks about changes that have occurred. The starting point was to ask women and men, in FGDs, "What changes happened in your lives and your households as a result of FFA and complementary actions?". MSC is also useful in capturing



**Figure 2.2.** The PIALA approach

unintended consequences – both positive and negative. Where the term 'significant change' is used through this study, it is in reference to using this MSC approach, where FGD participants subjectively identify a change as being significant. It does not mean a statistically significant change.

Two key elements of **PIALA** are inclusiveness and rigour. PIALA uses methods such as impact ranking, causal flow analysis, and participatory sense-making in its analysis. PIALA is most useful for complex transformative development programmes engaging multiple partners<sup>14</sup>. Given that both WSEE and WN are complex transformative processes that need to be contextualised, a strongly inclusive process focusing on 'sense-making', such as PIALA, is essential.

<sup>11</sup> See the section on challenges relating to M&E (Section 6.1.1) for further detail about indicators that were collected.

<sup>12</sup> Van Hemelrijck, Adinda and Kyei-Mensah, Glown (2014). Design Paper for the impact evaluation of the Root and Tuber Improvement Marketing Program (RTIMP). For: Ghanaian Ministry of Food and Agriculture, IFAD and Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation.

<sup>13</sup> Davies, Rick and Dart, Jess. 2005. [The 'Most Significant Change' \(MSC\) Technique – A Guide to Its Use](#).

<sup>14</sup> Van Hemelrijck and Kyei-Mensah (2014).

While this study could not replicate PIALA’s rigour and sample sizes, it drew inspiration from many of PIALA’s features. For example, the study’s focus -on changes, causal links and key success factors- is drawn heavily from PIALA (see Figure 2.2). This study used PIALA’s logic in testing the counterfactual: comparing outcomes or impacts to the quality of FFA programme actions. This study used a lighter version of PIALA’s multi-stakeholder participatory sense-making workshops.

**Sampling.** The study had five country case studies of three sites<sup>15</sup> each (15 sites in total). The countries were selected based on the WFP Country Office’s (CO’s) willingness and resources to participate. Each Country Office was requested to select three sites where results had been observed in empowering women and improving nutrition. A ‘positive deviance’ approach was applied, given the focus on understanding what actions and factors needed to be in place for successful cases in WSEE and WN to occur. Given this purposive sampling, rather than being representative, the study sites were often the ‘best’ or ‘better’ FFA sites.

In many countries, additional selection criteria were applied. For example, in Niger, the study examined sites where the Communes de Convergence approach was in place; there was co-location of a range of programmes, and FFA was used as a

platform to provide sensitisation and agricultural training. In Kenya, Kilifi County was selected as it was the site of a nutrition-sensitive pilot and concerns over gender-based violence that had been highlighted in a preceding programme evaluation. In Zimbabwe, Guatemala and Sri Lanka, the study focused on understanding what WSEE or WN changes occur or are sustained beyond FFA project life.

**Scope.** The scope of the study included the ‘whole package’ of FFA and complementary actions. FFA actions spanned planning processes, such as the Three-Pronged Approach (3PA), committees, work, technical training, transfer, and assets. Where there were complementary actions that were implemented in parallel with FFA, whether by WFP or by other actors, these were studied as well for their contributions to changes. Examples of complementary actions in the study included sensitisation<sup>16</sup>, agricultural extension, food preservation training, cooking classes, group farming, value chain facilitation, enterprise development savings-and-loan groups, latrine construction, linkages with health services and women’s services.

Good nutrition is especially important during the first 1,000 days from conception to a child’s second birthday, however the focus in this study is on the

**Table 2.1.** Typical programme for country studies

<b>Day 1</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ Briefing with CO</li> <li>▶ Interviews with national stakeholders</li> </ul>
<b>Day 2 – 3</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ Travel to WFP Sub-Office or project location</li> <li>▶ Interviews with sub-national stakeholders</li> <li>▶ Preparation with study team</li> </ul>
<b>Day 4 – 6</b>	Visit to three sites: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ Asset visits</li> <li>▶ Women-only FGD</li> <li>▶ Men-only FGD</li> </ul>
<b>Day 7</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ Workshop preparation</li> </ul>
<b>Day 8</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ Sub-national multi-stakeholder workshop</li> </ul>
<b>Day 9</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ Debrief with WFP Sub-Office and any sub-national stakeholder</li> <li>▶ Travel to capital</li> </ul>
<b>Day 10</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ Debrief with WFP Country Office and other national stakeholder</li> </ul>

<sup>15</sup> The study sampled three sites, comprising three women-only FGDs and three men-only FGDs, as analysis has found that 80 to 90 percent of themes are discoverable in three FGDs. See Guest et al., April 2016. [How Many Focus Groups Are Enough? Building an Evidence Base for Nonprobability Sample Sizes](#). Field Methods: Vol 29, Issue 1, 2017

<sup>16</sup> Sensitisation was conducted on a wide range of topics. Examples included women’s rights, sexual and reproductive health and rights (SRHR), gender-based violence (GBV), nutrition and diet, hygiene, and use of mosquito nets.



nutrition of women aged 18 years and above. This focus aligns with the fact that women are directly engaged with FFA work and are direct recipients of complementary actions. Within this group, the focus was on all adult women; not solely on the most nutritionally vulnerable groups of PLW or women of reproductive age (WRA), acknowledging that nutrition is important for all women throughout their life cycle. While the focus does not include girl children and adolescents, this was a topic of discussions in the country studies due to its linkages to women’s work, income and education.

**Country studies.** Study teams were formed for each country and comprised of WFP staff drawn from Area, Sub or Satellite Offices, COs, RBx, and HQ (OSZPR, GEN, OSN, and OSZPH)<sup>17</sup>.

In each country, the study programme spanned ten days as outlined in Table 2.1. Detailed information about the study tools, including interview questionnaires and FGD facilitators guides, are included in Annex 2.

A total of six FGDs were conducted in each country; one women-only FGD and one men-only FGD for each site. Twelve participants were requested for each FGD. The FGDs provided the study teams with an opportunity to understand what, why and how



**Image 2.1.** FGD pictograms showing FFA and complementary actions (blue cards) and beneficiaries changes (beige cards). Image from an FGD in Kenya.

WSEE and WN changes occurred. To help focus discussion, and to overcome literacy challenges, pictograms (see Image 2.1) were used.

In all FGDs, a **process analysis** was first conducted, taking beneficiaries through the FFA and

complementary actions (as depicted by the blue cards). FFA and complementary actions were different for each FFA programme, and sometimes different for each site. The actions for each programme is described in Section 3. For each action (as represented on a card), FGD participants were asked to talk about the different roles and experiences of women and men. Then participants were asked about what **changes** (if any) occurred in their lives and the lives of their households as a result of the FFA actions. New cards (see beige cards) were then added to depict the changes. Of the changes (beige cards), FGD participants were asked to select the most significant changes. The facilitator then probed about the **causal links**: how the FFA or complementary actions (blue cards) led to the MSC (selected beige cards), if at all.

After the FGDs and semi-structured interviews, the sub-national multi-stakeholder workshop brought women and men beneficiaries, FFA implementers, and other stakeholders (e.g., government counterparts or civil society representatives) together to validate and gain different perspectives on the key:

- changes for WSEE and WN and their causal links.
- success factors that led to the changes.
- recommendations to improve FFA programs in similar contexts.

**Global sense-making workshop.** Following the completion of the five country studies, a global workshop brought together representatives of the five participating COs<sup>18</sup>, six RBx and HQ to:

1. improve understanding of key changes (outcomes) that FFA can bring about;
2. agree on key success factors for FFA programmes and mitigation measures to avoid any harmful effects on women; and
3. recommend actions.

## 2.2 Strengths, limitations and challenges

WFP’s research is typically quantitative with large sample sizes. A study of this nature, with its small sample sizes, purposive-sampling, qualitative methods and perception-based approaches, is unusual for WFP. Given that the purpose on the study was on learning, with an emphasis on understanding how change happens and assembling

<sup>17</sup> A list of study team members is included in Annex 1.

<sup>18</sup> Sri Lanka COUNTRY OFFICE attended remotely

ideas for better programming, the methodology was a good fit.

The study strengths were in gathering information that was frank, rich, complex and sometimes unexpected. Country case studies elicited personal accounts of how FFA changed women's and men's lives. Given its qualitative nature, the study gathered opinions and explanations of changes and observed trends. For example, in Kenya, explanations were provided as to why women worked in FFA, rather than men. In Zimbabwe, women and men were asked about their preference for food or cash as a transfer modality. Across all country studies, study teams developed an understanding of the complex interplay of factors or trends leading to WSEE or WN. For instance, in Niger, Kenya, Zimbabwe and Guatemala, male migration was a factor leading to the feminisation of subsistence agriculture.

Another strength of the methodology was that it enabled study teams to better understand the nature of WSEE in each country. While WSEE has many universal dimensions, how it is experienced tends to be specific to a society, a community, a household, and an individual. The nature of the study provided an opportunity to explore WSEE without pre- or externally-defined indicators. Instead, indicators of empowerment were defined in each country by participating women and men.

With the strengths, there were limitations too. A major limitation in the methodology was the inability to quantify changes, particularly in WN. For example, a challenge in each country was to understand to what extent diet had improved. This was particularly challenging as a woman who thinks she has a 'better diet'. She may be eating more food and more satisfying food, but perhaps not the nutrient-rich food she requires.

Due to the study's relatively small sample size and perception-based nature, caution is needed when extrapolating or applying successful actions from one FFA site to other locations. Documented successful actions need to be tested in context, prior to scaling.

The study had several field-level challenges. The emphasis on FGDs and a sub-national workshop meant that the quality of facilitation was fundamental. Across four countries, the quality of the facilitation was very high. In one country, the facilitator was inexperienced in facilitating research studies; although was experienced in leading sensitisation sessions. Due to insufficient time in training this facilitator, responses may have been

biased. Ideally the study would have had women facilitators for women-only groups, and men facilitators for men-only groups. Women facilitators were only available in two countries. There were cultural variations in how comfortable women felt in talking in FGDs and in workshops. While in some countries women expressed themselves freely, in one country women were much more reticent.







# 3 Country summaries

A range of contexts was included in the study to allow for broad applicability. Across the three sites in each of the five countries, various programming cycle phases, livelihood zones, focus area (crisis response/recovery or resilience), asset type, and contextual and cultural factors were covered. The following are summaries of study areas.

- **Niger – West Africa.** Zinder, near the Nigerian border, is an agro-pastoralist area that is currently experiencing typical to good years following drought years. The program, which started in 2014, has a focus on resilience. The communities visited were predominantly Hausa-speaking and Muslim. While men had typically migrated to Nigeria each year for work, this had markedly reduced at the time of the study.
- **Kenya – East Africa.** Kilifi county, in coastal Kenya, is a low-potential mixed farming area with entrenched poverty. The program, implemented since 2009, focuses on building resilience. At the time of the study, the area had experienced two consecutive poor or failed harvests. The study sample was predominantly Christian and polygamy was a common practice.
- **Zimbabwe – Southern Africa.** Mwenezi district in southern Zimbabwe is a low-potential mixed farming area with cattle and rainfed maize and beans. The area is one of the poorest districts in Zimbabwe. The communities studied are predominantly Christian. Many young able-bodied men in Zimbabwe migrate to cities and South Africa to work, returning once or twice a year. The program, which is implemented in annual cycles, focuses on building resilience.
- **Guatemala – Latin America.** Zacapa and El Progreso provinces are in the drought-prone hilly landscapes of Guatemala's Dry Corridor. The area had experienced six to seven years of drought across over the past ten years. The livelihoods in the area are centred around subsistence agriculture (maize and beans) and agricultural labour in the plains or coffee plantations. The communities are Christian and non-Indigenous. The program, which started in 2009, focuses on building resilience.
- **Sri Lanka – South Asia.** Mannar and Kilinochchi districts, in Sri Lanka's north, practise mixed farming and coastal fishing. The districts

are among Sri Lanka's poorest. Some communities are re-establishing their livelihoods following their resettlement following the end of the conflict. The program, implemented in annual cycles, has projects that focus both on recovery (resettlement) and resilience.

The intention was to conduct the study in a range of seasons and types of years (typical, good and bad/shock years) as detailed in their Seasonal Livelihood Plans (SLPs). While there were seasonal variations in the study sites, 2016-17 had been globally challenging, and the study was conducted in a bad/shock year for all but Niger. The El Niño drought affected Kenya, Zimbabwe and Guatemala, while Sri Lanka had experienced the poorest rains in four decades.

- ▶ **Niger.** This study was conducted during the peak of the lean season in August when households are receiving an unconditional lean season transfer. Niger was the only country in the five-country study that reported 'typical year' conditions.
- ▶ **Kenya.** The study was conducted in September prior to the start of the short rains. There are two rain seasons in Kenya. The study was conducted in a shock year. Communities had experienced two poor or failed harvests due to the El Niño; their previous normal harvest was in July/August 2015. The upcoming October-December 2016 short rains were forecast as poor.
- ▶ **Zimbabwe.** The study was conducted in October 2016 prior to the start of the rain season in November. Communities had experienced poor harvests for the previous three growing seasons (2013-14, 2014-15 and 2015-16) due to erratic rainfall (2013-14) and El Niño (2014-15 and 2015-16).
- ▶ **Guatemala.** The study was conducted in February 2017, during the dry season. At the time of the study, the communities had experienced at least three consecutive years of poor or failed harvests due to the El Niño weather patterns. The last normal harvest of rainfed crops for one community, Colonia Nueva Esperanza, was six years ago.
- ▶ **Sri Lanka.** The study was conducted in late March and early April 2017, at harvest time for the main Maha planting season. However, due to



erratic and far below average rains, the Maha season was reported by many as being the worst drought for over 40 years (since 1974)<sup>19</sup>.

The country case studies are described here in chronological order to reflect the sequential learning that occurred as the study progressed.

### 3.1 Niger case study

#### 3.1.1 Nigerian context

**Study context.** The study was conducted in Niger's south in Zinder. The study sites were agropastoral, where cereal (typically millet, sorghum or maize) was intercropped with a pulse during the rainy season. Vegetables are grown for home consumption or sale during the dry season where there is sufficient water and labour for irrigation.

**Gender context.** In Zinder, men are traditionally responsible for most of the agricultural production, including cereal/pulse production, and the production of cash crops (e.g., dry-season vegetable production). Women are responsible for dry-season vegetable production for household consumption.

In these three communities, poorer men often migrate to Nigeria or other neighbouring countries in the dry season for petty trade (e.g., selling tea and working in bakeries). When men migrate, they often return too late to plough the fields for cereal/pulse production<sup>20</sup>. Women take on some of men's agricultural roles when men migrate, but are often only able to plant half the rainfed fields that men can due to time constraints and a 'lack of strength'. Many poor households therefore described their situation before WFP's interventions as a one where low agricultural production would cause seasonal

migration and vice-versa. High levels of debt exacerbated the situation, with households losing access to their land to their creditors until their debts are repaid.

Men and women both own livestock, with men typically owning larger livestock (cattle) and women typically owning smaller livestock (small ruminants and poultry). Women also undertake income generating activities (IGAs) in the sites, such as food processing and preservation, food preparation, and peanut oil production. Income earned by women (through livestock and IGAs) is typically controlled by women, though men may veto women's decisions.

**Women's nutrition context.** Based on 2012 surveys, 23.5 percent of women are underweight (as measured by body mass index - BMI < 18.5) in Zinder, compared to the average rural population of 16.5 percent<sup>21</sup>. Nationally, 45.8 percent women of reproductive age (WRA) are anaemic, and 82 percent of women are illiterate. Female-headed households are twice as likely to be food insecure compared to other households (22.6 percent compared to 11.5 percent for male-headed households).

#### 3.1.2 FFA description

Niger was selected for this study in part due to interest in the Joint UN-Niger Government Communes de Convergence (C2C) approach, which aims to create programme, thematic and geographical synergies to improve the resilience of vulnerable communities in 35 priority communes. Within these, WFP Niger implements an integrated package of activities (FFA, nutrition and school meals) particularly in 37 C2C communes and 10 other communes with strategic partners.

**Implementation arrangements.** The study sites

**Table 3.1.** Summary of FFA characteristics across the three sites in Niger study

	Korama	Gaffati	Don Goudaou
<b>Asset type</b>	Cleared swampland for growing rice and sugarcane, and 6ha for dry season irrigated veg farming (both for 3 to 5-year access for group farming)	Water pond (water source and fisheries), 3ha vegetable farming (3 to 5-year access for group farming)	Water pond (water source and fisheries), SWC structure (half-moons) on grazing and agricultural land
<b>Complementary action</b>	Agriculture training and inputs, sensitisation on care practices	Agriculture training and inputs, fingerlings, sensitisation on care practices	Agriculture training and inputs, fingerlings, sensitisation on care practices

<sup>19</sup> Sri Lanka Joint Assessment of Drought Impact on Food Security and Livelihoods, 15 March 2017

<sup>20</sup> Note that seasonal migration duration and patterns vary significantly from one community to another in Zinder. While in the three sites, migration was primarily a coping mechanism, local stakeholders explained that for other communities it is an integral part of the livelihood strategy. This is notably the case for communities that have strong economic ties with their diaspora in Nigeria or in other countries. In some other communities, women and children would also migrate.

<sup>21</sup> Enquête EDS Niger 2012



**Image 3.1.** Area of rehabilitated swamp in Korama that is planted with rice and sugarcane.

are C2C sites. The FFA programme is implemented by NGO Cooperating Partners. Due to the convergence (co-location) of actions in the C2C sites, partnerships with other agencies especially with Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO), International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) and United Nations Children’s Fund (UNICEF) played a significant role.

There had been three seasons of work under FFA focusing on the resilience building of the vulnerable households and an integrated and multi-sectoral approach has been developed and implemented.

**3PA.** In Niger, the 3PA process had been adopted by the Government-led HCl3N initiative<sup>22</sup> and for the C2C approach. That is, the SLP and CBPP are the region and commune-level planning processes. Zinder’s SLP and CBPPs were developed in 2014. CBPPs are reviewed annually to promote the coordination of priority activities by Government, UN and NGOs.

There was good recall by both women and men of the participatory discussions which took place as part of the CBPP process. Individuals who did not participate in the CBPP process clearly received feedback about the decisions made during the CBPP process. Both women’s and men’s priorities were taken into account in the CBPP, but FFA focused mainly on the priorities that were initially put forward by men, such as pond deepening and swamp clearing. This was due to (i) the fact that these were seen as potentially benefiting the community as a whole, and (ii) the need to engage in significant works requiring labour for 600 people

over seven months. FFA could not always deliver on women’s priorities, such as access to credit or women’s livelihood improvement (livestock, food processing, IGAs).

**FFA assets.** Assets studied included cleared swamp for agriculture (rice and sugarcane), water ponds (water source for irrigated agriculture, livestock and fisheries), and soil-water conservation (SWC) structures. Two communities had temporary vegetable gardens (adjacent to ponds) which serve as sites for demonstration and training. The FFA project was only able to negotiate beneficiaries’ access to most assets (cleared swampland, vegetable gardens, and fish in ponds) for a two to five-year period. Presumably after this period, access to the asset will have to be paid for; alternatively, the asset owners may deny access.

Some assets, such as the cleared swampland in Korama and half-moons in Don Goudaou, focused on men’s livelihoods. The ponds in Gaffati and Don Goudaou were accessible to both women and men for watering their livestock, although only men fish. Men had more control of the assets across the three sites, though there were benefits that were experienced by all household members.

**Committees or leadership.** Women were represented on the management and complaints committees, though were often in the minority. This was not seen as a challenge by communities, as women knew of a woman committee member to go to if there was a problem. Each work group of 20 FFA workers had an elected team leader. Given the

<sup>22</sup> Haut-Commissariat à l’initiative Les Nigériens Nourissent les Nigériens or High Commission for the Nigerians feeding Nigerians Initiative.

very high ratio of men to women among the FFA participants, all the team leaders were men.

**FFA work.** With some variations from season to season, FFA works were mostly undertaken by men. Women participate in limited numbers (<5 percent), and typically if they are the only able-bodied household member or to temporarily replace their husbands. In line with good practice, work norms were adjusted for women by having lighter tasks or reduced volume of work. For pond digging, men dug while women transported and disposed the earth away. For half-moons, women dug two half-moons while men dug three. The sensitisation and training were one day out of six days of FFA activities.

While there is no formal policy on PLW and FFA work, WFP sensitises partner NGOs that pregnant women and breastfeeding mothers of babies should not work. This is not, however, systematically monitored. There was no formal child care. In Gaffati, women described how they left young children under the shade of tree being looked after by older children, and went to them to breastfeed when they were hungry.

**Transfer.** FFA transfers were provided for seven months along with four months of lean season unconditional transfer. A total of 11 months' transfer was provided to each household.<sup>23</sup>The exception to this was Don Goudaou site where only three months of FFA transfers were provided for a total of seven months' transfer due to delays. All transfers were provided in cash, and the transfer was provided to cover a full ration of 2,100 kcal per person. In the study sites, the FFA transfer was provided to the person who worked (typically male) whereas lean season transfer was provided to women.<sup>24</sup> This appeared fair and reasonable in this context.<sup>25</sup>

There was joint decision making on the use of the transfer on two sites. For one site, Koroma, men were the primary decision makers, though consulted with women. This did not appear to be a change from how decisions are made normally. Women reported that the only resource over which they can exert significant control is the income they

are earning through their own livelihoods. There was sensitisation about the transfer being for the whole household (and primarily to purchase food).

**Sensitisation.** Essential Family Practices (EFP) sensitisation was provided at FFA work sites and also during the distribution of the transfer. The EFP messages were on exclusive breastfeeding, complementary feeding, use of bed nets, handwashing, use of health services, treatment of diarrhoea, treatment of pneumonia and malaria, and family planning. The materials for the sensitisation are provided by UNICEF and are delivered by various actors, including UN agencies, governments and NGOs. The same EFP sensitisation was also provided through co-located programmes, such as those of UNICEF. The consistency of messaging appeared to have contributed to improved knowledge, attitudes and (possibly) practice.

The same EFP sensitisation messages were provided to both women and men, with both women and men reporting it to be of value. At a minimum, the messages were associated with increased knowledge, and many FGD participants reported that it had changed attitudes and practices, such as in relation to the use of a bed net and better diet.

**Technical training.** Cooperating Partners provided training on the construction of assets. FAO and IFAD provided agricultural technical training and provision of inputs, like planting material and fingerlings. This was predominantly attended by men in all sites; however, women were also able to attend.

**Complementary actions.** In some sites, there was also co-location with WFP school meals, WFP local purchase, WFP community based screening in collaboration with UNICEF and treatment of malnutrition, *Ecoles des Maris* ('husbands' school' aiming at promoting reproductive health and fostering behavioural change at community level), NGO livelihood actions, health actions (bed net distribution), WASH actions (well and latrine construction) and others.

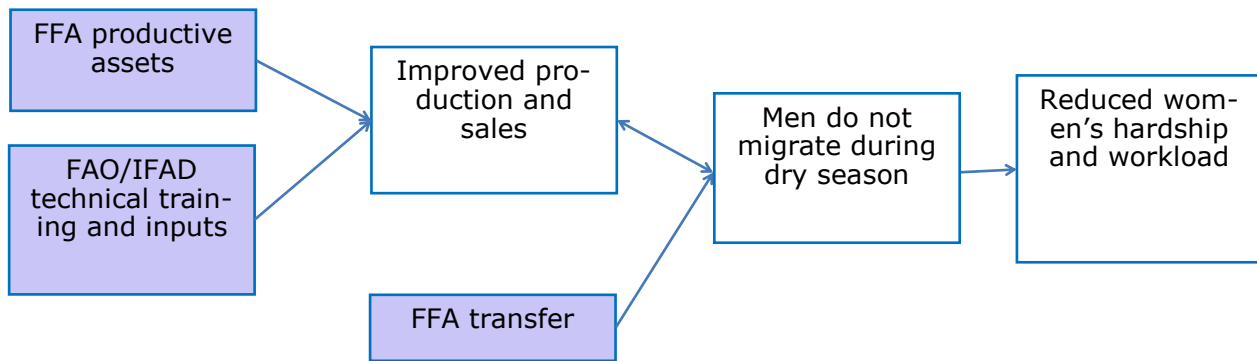
### 3.1.3 Niger WSEE findings

<sup>23</sup> This corresponds to an unusually long transfer duration. Other FFA programs in the Sahel region are typically provided for a period of three to five months, depending on the extent of the estimated food gap, and are usually not associated with an unconditional transfer for the same households during the lean season.

<sup>24</sup> This is not applicable to all sites. For the lean season transfers, in-kind transfers are provided to men, whereas cash transfers are provided to women. In-kind food transfers tended to be provided to the men as they are more able to transport it home, given its weight. In 2015, 90 percent of the unconditional cash transfers during the lean seasons across the Niger program were provided to women. Women are given preference over cash transfers as they are more likely to use the cash for food.

<sup>25</sup> The lean season transfer included blanket supplementary feeding with Supercereal Plus or Supercereal or for children 6-23 months or PLW respectively.

<sup>26</sup> Women's hardship here refers to the toil and difficulty associated with physical labour and managing multiple roles. Women said this caused fatigue and ill health.



**Figure 3.1.** Causal links leading from FFA and complementary actions to reduced women’s hardship and workload.

The most significant change that relates directly to WSEE and WN was reduced women’s hardship<sup>26</sup> and workload. Other significant changes were reduced (a) men’s seasonal migration, and (b) tension within the household.

Women’s hardship and workload were reduced by men not migrating for work during the dry season. Prior to the FFA, many men in Zinder -particularly poorer men- would migrate to Nigeria and elsewhere for several months. Given that women would take on many of the traditionally men’s roles, including in rainfed agriculture, this would cause women significant increases in their workload and hardship. Reducing seasonal migration was a deliberate objective of the FFA program, as it was seen as causing a vicious circle of food insecurity. Poor harvests lead to men migrating to earn money, which would then lead to poor harvests as women are only able to prepare half as much land than men, due to their multiple responsibilities; and the cycle goes on. All FGD participants expressed a strong preference for men to not migrate for a multitude of reasons, not only because it reduces women’s hardship and workload. Men remaining in the community leads to many household benefits, including more food production, ‘better behaved’ children and increased school attendance, and wellbeing in the household.

In the last three years, most men from the three sites had stopped migrating as there was income from the FFA transfer. A secondary factor was that there had been increased agricultural production of both subsistence and cash crops. With the combined income from the FFA transfer and the improved sales (e.g., sugarcane in Koroma), most men found that they were financially better off staying rather than migrating.

When men do not migrate, both women and men grow vegetables during the dry season where water is available for irrigation. Men’s vegetable produce is typically sold, whereas women’s is for household consumption.

Men linked the improved production and sales with the FFA transfer, new FFA productive assets and the FAO/IFAD technical training and inputs. The link between the FFA transfer and improved production and sales was very strong. During the previous crisis period, men had taken out loans to buy food for their households. When they were unable to repay their loans, they lost their households’ farming lands, which had served as collateral for the loans. As the transfer was sizeable, men used part of it to repay debts, thereby claim back their lands that had been forfeited as collateral. With their lands being reclaimed, men reported being able to now resume agricultural production. Many also reported buying new tools or livestock with the transfer, and using these purchases to improve their production. Following sensitisation from FAO, men also used their transfers to buy cereal (millet and maize) at harvest time when it is cheap, and to sell stored cereal during the lean season when the price is high.

The transfer also had other effects on women’s hardship and workload. Previously many women worked for wealthier women in the villages doing chores such as pounding millet for a cash income. Now they do not need to and are able to spend time on other activities such as their own livelihoods, such as livestock and groundnut oil production. In Gaffati, where some women were spending significant amounts of time on water collection, some are now renting carts to collect water.

The link between the assets and the increased production was not as strong, with the exception of Koroma due to their sugarcane production and sales following the swamp clearing. For Gaffati and Don



Goudaou, FGD participants did not report significant increases in production from the assets (pond, demonstration vegetable plots and half-moons). Men did report that the FAO/IFAD technical training and inputs had markedly improved their agricultural practices and production.

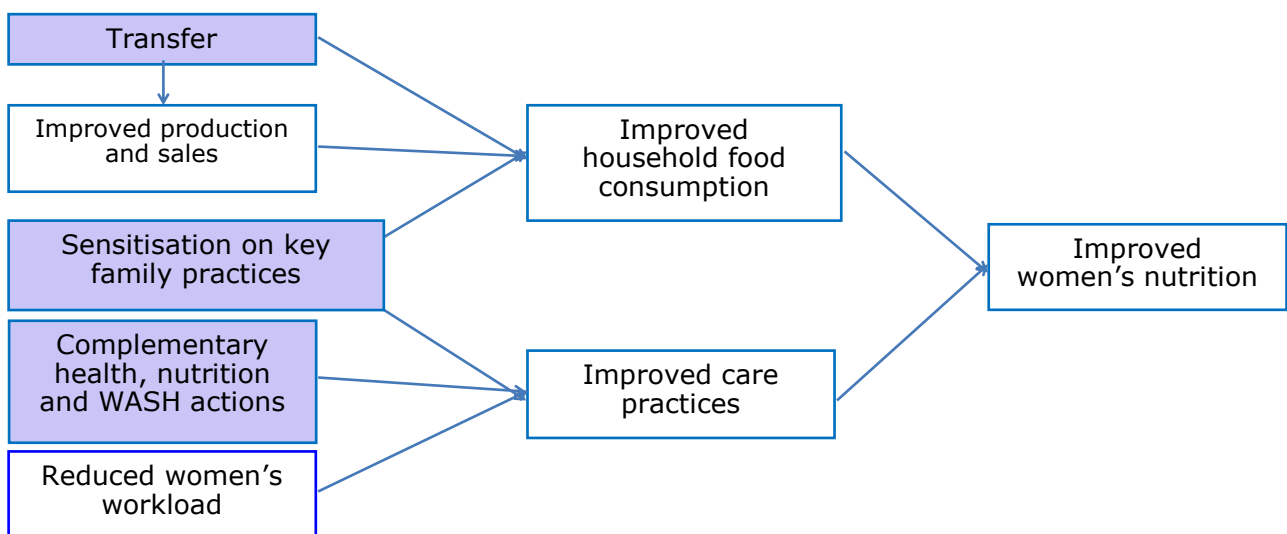
When asked if men will resume migration once the transfer stops, most participants responded that they would not. This was most emphatic in Korama because of their income from sugarcane. When asked if the increases in production will be sufficient to cover their entire food needs, many responded that it would because they have repaid their debts, invested in production, and learned many improved techniques. "What we have learned now, we cannot unlearn. This will last beyond the FFA program", said one male FGD participant. There were participants, particularly from Don Goudaou, who were more circumspect. They indicated that they would not migrate in good years, but will need to migrate if there is a drought year or if their households have unexpected expenses. However, migrations may not have to be for as long.

### 3.1.4 Niger WN findings

In the women-only FGDs, women were emphatic that their household members are now better nourished (not so underweight, healthier and sick less often). The women said that they are themselves better nourished; some women pinched the flesh on their arms to show the study team how they are no longer underweight. They attributed this to improved household food consumption and improved health practices.

The improved household consumption was due to the transfer as well as, to a lesser extent, to improved production and sales. Both women and men described having enough to eat, and eating a better variety of food. Men at one site described how they had previously sold all their dry-season vegetables, but are now retaining part of it for the household consumption. This was following nutrition sensitisation provided as part of the FAO technical training (but also to the fact that the availability of the transfer made such sales less critically needed). During the short fishing season, households in Gaffati and Don Goudaou were eating fish from the pond several times a week. Women in Gaffati also said that they were buying vegetables when none were available from their own production.

In the FGDs, women strongly attributed their own improved nutrition to improved care practices (that is, better able to care of themselves, but also their children too). Improved care practices were in turn due to the sensitisation on EFP and *Ecole de Maris*, health and nutrition services, and reduced women's workload. Both women and men were able to cite the eight EFP, which had been sensitised on FFA sites as well as in villages. A key factor in the success of this messaging is that the same messages and materials were used by all agencies – Government, WFP, UNICEF and NGOs. Female and male community health workers had provided the messages to both women and men. The men had reported about how they found it useful to know about messages such as exclusive breastfeeding and safe birth practices so that they could encourage their wives to adopt these practices.<sup>27</sup>



**Figure 3.2.** Causal links leading from FFA and complementary actions to improved women's nutrition

<sup>27</sup> While these were not directly related to women's nutrition in this study, this spoke to the importance of communicating messages to both women and men, so that both are able to make collaborative decisions about changes in practice.

Women also spoke of how they felt knowledgeable having received the sensitisation, and how they could speak about this with other members of the community.

All three sites included complementary actions, which supported the improved care practices. For example, there were distributions of bed nets by an NGO, nutrition treatment by UNICEF, and wells by the Government. During the workshop, it was emphasised by beneficiaries that a key factor in improving care practices was women's reduced workload. This has allowed women to spend more time caring for and feeding herself and her children.

## 3.2 Kenya case study

### 3.2.1 Kenyan context

**Study context.** The study was conducted in Kilifi County, one of the poorest counties in Kenya with an absolute poverty level of 71.7 percent.<sup>28</sup> Study sites practise low potential mixed farming with rainfed maize, cassava and cowpeas grown in the long rains (Apr-Jul) and the short rains (Oct-Dec). The long rain production typically accounts for 60 percent of annual production; and the short rains account for 40 percent.<sup>29</sup> Cash crops, such as pineapple, mango, chillies, cashews, vegetables and casuarina trees (for construction materials), are grown in Kilifi as large commercial scale or small-scale enterprises. Cattle, goats and poultry are commonly reared in sites visited. Casual labour on commercial farms and charcoal production are income-earning activities.

At the time of the study, Kilifi had experienced poor rains, resulting in production of 30 percent of long term average for maize and 20 percent for cowpeas.<sup>30</sup> Study sites reported very poor or no harvest for the previous two seasons. Since 2004, there have been five bad years (mainly droughts) in Kilifi County.<sup>31</sup> In bad years, households have a longer, more severe hunger gap period with little

respite. Workloads for both men and women are extremely high, and they are fully engaged in water collection, charcoal burning and trying to cope with the severity of the shock.<sup>32</sup>

**Gender context.** In Kilifi women traditionally farm while men hunt and gather food. FGD participants explained that women work towards obtaining food with a longer timeline, while men obtain food or cash on a more immediate (daily or weekly) basis. In the present-day context, women farm while men burn charcoal to sell, hunt for wild meat, engage in casual labour, or engage in farm labour at commercial farms. In bad years or in high tourism seasons (Oct-Feb), men (sometimes women or whole families) migrate to towns for work. Women reported that men typically send money home, but sometimes a man may meet another woman, in which case he would stop remitting money. Livestock, primarily cows, sheep, goats and chicken, can be owned by either a woman or a man. Ownership tends to be by the individual, not by the household.

Polygamy is commonly practiced, though more so by poorer households as a strategy to maximise the households' labour force. Men pay a dowry to marry women in Kilifi. The dowry is typically 'owed' to the bride's family and paid in instalments over several years. In the Kahingoni FGD, men said that because they paid a dowry, they own their wives as well as any money their wives earn.

Women in Kilifi have lower levels of educational attainment than men. 75.1 percent of women aged 15-49 are literate, compared to 94.1% of men. The median years of school attainment in Kilifi is 6.4 years for women aged 15-49, compared to 7.4 for men. 20.4 percent of women aged 15-49 have had no education at all (compared to 2.6% for men), and 34.1 percent of women aged 15-49 have had some primary education (compared to 34.4% for men).<sup>33</sup>

<sup>28</sup> Kenya Integrated Household Budget Survey 2005/6, as cited in Kilifi County Integrated Development Plan 2013 – 2017 page 27-28.

<sup>29</sup> Kilifi County 2016 Long Rains Food Security Assessment Report. A joint report by the Kenya Food Security Steering Group (KFSSG) and the Kilifi County Steering Group. August 2015. p.5

<sup>30</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>31</sup> The bad years have been 2004/5, 2005/6, 2008/9, 2010/11, and 2015/2016. Information on earlier drought years are taken from the Livelihood Programming Consultation Findings for Kilifi County (WFP, 2011).

<sup>32</sup> Seasonal Livelihood Programming consultations findings for Kilifi County (WFP, 2011).

<sup>33</sup> 2014 Kenya Demographic and Health Survey.

<sup>34</sup> [http://www.the-star.co.ke/news/2016/07/02/domestic-violence-most-common-in-kilifi-800-cases-in-2015-cs-kariuki\\_c1379149](http://www.the-star.co.ke/news/2016/07/02/domestic-violence-most-common-in-kilifi-800-cases-in-2015-cs-kariuki_c1379149)

<sup>35</sup> As reported by beneficiary women, Cooperating Partners, and Government representatives.

<sup>36</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>37</sup> 2014 Kenya Demographic and Health Survey. p. 107

<sup>38</sup> 2014 Kenya Demographic and Health Survey. p. 60

Kilifi has a high rate of GBV, with 800 cases reported in the last year.<sup>34</sup> Another challenge is early pregnancy, with girls as young as 12 years old being pregnant. The social factors leading to this are unclear, with some saying that it is due to incest perpetrated by adult men in the family, others saying it is adolescent boys in the community, and yet others saying that girls seek older boyfriends to provide gifts such as clothes.<sup>35</sup> When a girl is pregnant, she typically drops out of school, and some head their own households.<sup>36</sup> Early pregnancy was listed as a community problem in the Kahingoni CBPP, leading to poverty. Across Kilifi, 21.8 percent of girls or women have begun childbearing by the time they are 15-19 years old.<sup>37</sup> The median age of first marriage among women in Kilifi is 18.9 years compared to men at 24.8 years.<sup>38</sup>

**Women’s nutrition context.** In the sites visited, there appeared to be multiple causes for undernutrition. Access to clean water was limited, with piped water in only one site (Shakadulo). As it is costly, poorer households cannot afford it. The other two sites were reliant on unprotected wells and water pans for water. Some beneficiaries knew of water purification sachets that are available from health centres, but said not everyone uses them. Not all households boil water before consuming either. Sanitation appeared to be another challenge, with open defecation commonly practiced.

Poor diet appeared to be another cause of undernutrition. According to the Shakadulo CAP, the poorest households would eat one meal a day prior to the commencement of the program. This would normally comprise of *ugali* (maize meal) or cassava with leafy greens and occasional wild foods.<sup>39</sup> Food was typically sourced from the beneficiaries’ own farms, although maize meal was purchased when supplies from own production ran out. Greens would not commonly be purchased but collected from near

the house when in season. When there were no greens, *ugali* would be eaten with salt or *omena*, small dried fish.<sup>40</sup> Livestock and their products (including milk and eggs) are typically not consumed, but bred and sold when money is needed. Better-off families may consume milk and eggs from their livestock. In Kilifi the cost of the minimum healthy food basket is high at 44 shillings per person per day in December 2015.<sup>41</sup> With these prices, the monthly transfer of 2,000 shillings would buy a healthy food basket for 7.6 days for a family of six. This is fewer than the number of days worked, which is 12 days a month.

Early pregnancies, as well as insufficient birth spacing, are likely to have impacts on maternal and child health and nutrition outcomes.<sup>42</sup>

### 3.2.2 FFA description

**Implementation arrangements.** FFA in Kenya is a part of a resilience-building program aiming at contributing to improved food security in arid and semi-arid lands through rainwater harvesting and management. In Kenya, WFP works through NGO Cooperating Partners.

WFP has worked with the same caseload of beneficiaries in the three sites since 2004 when there was a severe drought. From 2004 to 2009, the beneficiaries were provided with general food distribution (GFD). This spanned a period of three bad years. From 2009 to 2011, the program changed to FFA, using in-kind food as the transfer modality. In 2012, the FFA transfer modality shifted to cash. WFP and Cooperating Partners have been implementing FFA in all three sites since 2009.

In mid-2016, 22 percent<sup>43</sup> of beneficiaries were transitioned out of the programme. Volunteers were

**Table 3.2.** Summary of FFA characteristics across the three sites in Kenya study

	Kahingoni	Viragoni	Shakadulo
<b>Asset type</b>	Water pan, a farm pond, SWC structures (zai pits, sunken gardens, negarims, terraces, bunds, and percolation pits)	Water pan, 0.75ha group farm (planned) with micro-irrigation, zai pits	Water pan, a group farm, plant nurseries, household latrines, cattle dips and traps, SWC structures
<b>Complementary action</b>	Group farming (planned), microcredit (VSLAs, merry-go-rounds, table banking), beekeeping	Group farming (planned), microcredit (VSLAs, merry-go-rounds, table banking)	Group farming, agricultural training, market facilitation, microcredit

<sup>39</sup> Beneficiary’s input from the multi-stakeholder workshop.

<sup>40</sup> The *omena* has limited nutritive value as only a few small fish are cooked in a soup.

<sup>41</sup> Kenya Food Security and Outcome Monitoring, WFP, December 2015

<sup>42</sup> See WFP Nutrition-Sensitive Guidance, p. 9.

<sup>43</sup> The 22 percent proportion had been determined from a 2014 study entitled *PRRO Household Food Security Resilience and Graduation Study* (also referred to as the CoBRA study). The CoBRA study found that 22 percent of households not only recovered, but were stable following the 2010-2011 drought.



**Image 3.2.** Madiwini Market Gardeners group farm adjacent to water pan in Shakadulo

sought among the beneficiaries to leave the program. When there were insufficient volunteers, committees were charged with the responsibility for selecting beneficiaries to transition out. These were typically those who were seen to be 'better off' or those who did not attend FFA or community contribution work.

**3PA.** FFA in Kenya undertook a simplified 3PA process, where CBPPs were simplified to focus on food security and resilience. Using a WFP planning tool, the priorities developed by communities were heavily focused on water management and production of food crops. Other priorities, such as sanitation, were not always identified because they were not seen within the scope of the programme.

There appeared to be strong participation of women in CBPP process. Both women and men were part of the official Planning Teams, with women forming the majority.

**FFA assets.** There was a wide range of assets in the three sites including water pans, agroforestry, farm ponds, group farms, latrines and SWC structures (zai pits, sunken gardens, terraces, trenches, bunds and percolation pits). There was a good mix of community assets (e.g., water pans), group assets (e.g., farm pond, agroforestry and group farms), and household assets (zai pits, sunken gardens, latrines). Assets appeared to be spread across the target communities and of benefit to a range of women. Each site had examples of integrating group farm assets with water pans or farm ponds, though Shakadulo was the most advanced in terms of the scale of its garden. The

other two sites were only beginning this work.

**Committees.** Committees were required to be a majority of women. There were two committees: the 'main' committee and the complaints committee. Depending on the Cooperating Partner, committee members' roles included: cascade training of FFA participants, monitoring attendance and the delivery of work norms, and looking after children at the work sites. Women and men committee members delivered the training and conducted monitoring, but only women committee members looked after children. Committee members did not perform the normal FFA work norms.

**FFA work.** FFA work for 12 days per month, 7 months per year during April-June and September-December during the growing season. Households work on the same assets for the remaining five months (January-March and July-August) as self-help or community contribution. There is no transfer during these months as it is assumed that households would have their harvests during this time. However, the last two seasons had poor or failed harvests. The work is for 12 days per month, and is implemented under the same arrangements as the FFA activities. The community contribution was previously for three months, but increased to five months for this PRRO period starting in 2015. Across sites, beneficiaries expressed challenges in fulfilling the work norms in bad years when beneficiaries had to spend longer hours earning an income (as there is no harvest) or collecting water (as nearby water sources have dried up).

Women comprised approximately 70 percent of

<sup>44</sup> PLW were regarded as being able-bodied, but received an unconditional transfer for some months (see Box 1 for further details).



workers in Kilifi. This is in part because women were the registered FFA beneficiary, and because men needed to obtain a regular income for their households. Work norms were the same for women and men. Work typically took four hours for a woman, less for a man. Vulnerable households, such as child-headed households or households with no able-bodied persons<sup>44</sup>, were not required to work though some performed light duties such as child care. Up to 20 percent of households in each site could be provided with unconditional transfers.

PLW were provided with temporary exemption from performing FFA work and were provided unconditional transfers. The duration of exemption was set by each community's committee. This was little as three months – two months before delivery and one month after. In two sites, work norms were not adjusted for PLW unless requested. Breastfeeding women typically took longer to complete their work as they ensured that their child was breastfed throughout the working day.

**Sensitisation.** Nutrition-sensitive training is currently being piloted by WFP and the Government of Kenya across 80 sites in Kilifi County. Kilifi was selected in part due to its high rates of child stunting. The pilot provides FFA beneficiaries with 33 lessons (one per week) on gender, agriculture, food utilisation, food preparation and cooking, hygiene and sanitation, and food preservation. For each beneficiary household, a care giver and a decision maker (likely a female and male) are required to be at the training. Participation in the training is regarded as a day's FFA work. As this has just begun at the time of the study, its impacts could not be examined.

**Technical training.** Training was provided on asset creation, particularly on construction of SWC structures. In Shakadulo where there was a group vegetable garden, was training provided on agriculture, including on how to build nurseries and growing and prepare vegetables. Training was also provided on the nutritional value of vegetables. Training or support was provided on registering farming groups and group savings in all three sites

At Kahingoni and Viragoni, the Cooperating Partner used a cascade training model; only committee members were trained, and in turn provided cascade training to other community members in asset creation. At Shakadulo, the Cooperating Partner trained all beneficiaries directly.

**Transfer.** A transfer of 2,000 shillings (about US\$

20) was provided per month. The transfer was initially pegged to a calorific half monthly ration, and was as high as 2,700 shillings depending on market prices. In recent years, the transfer has been reduced to 2,000 shillings. This is intended to be the cost of purchasing a half month's household ration to cover the food gap. Based on December 2015 prices for a minimum healthy food basket in Kilifi,<sup>45</sup> the 2,000 shillings buys a healthy food basket for 7.6 days for a family of six, or half of the intended 15 days. The transfer was typically provided to women because of WFP Kenya's policy of providing cash transfers to women. In reality, the cash may not be collected by the woman, but by a proxy. Transportation to the bank where the cash is transferred to cost between 400 and 800 shillings per return trip. This is a significant amount of the 2,000-shilling transfer.

**Complementary actions** included group farming of fruit and vegetables, group savings, and value chain facilitation. A linkage between the Shakadulo group farm was brokered with a chilli exporter.

### 3.2.3 Kenya WSEE findings

It was clear from the FGDs and the workshop that women felt transformed and empowered by their experiences of seven years' FFA. The most significant changes that relate directly to women's empowerment were:

- women are more independent and can provide for themselves;
- women developed agricultural skills;
- women improved production and sales of maize; and
- being able to send children or grandchildren, including girls, to school.

Many women described the pride they felt at being able to provide for themselves and their families. Women are also proud of the savings they now have (typically as group savings), and investments they have made in livestock. Some women replaced their grass roofing with iron sheet roofs, which they felt improved their social status.

Women spoke of how they are more knowledgeable and skilled, particularly in agriculture. One woman in Shakadulo spoke with pride about how she was engaged by her neighbour to be a 'consultant' on how to dig zai pits. These skills, along with assets, led to improved production and sales, particularly of maize. For example, a Viragoni woman reported

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<sup>45</sup> Kenya Food Security and Outcome Monitoring, WFP, December 2015

improving yield threefold from 45 kg to 135 kg in a normal year when zai pits were formed on her land. Similarly, the group farm in Shakadulo yielded a good quantity of vegetables in their sunken gardens.

The transfers, along with increased income, meant that women could pay school fees and send children or grandchildren, including girls, to school. With better school attendance, women were hoping that their children, especially girls, would have better prospects than they had.

In addition to the most significant changes the women selected, women also spoke of the benefits of being part of a group. For many women, their social sphere had very much been limited to the household and immediate neighbours. FFA and group farming activities have extended their networks. These networks have provided mutual support in times of hardship. In addition, women also spoke of the much wider experiences they have had through their involvement in FFA. For most women, engagement with FFA had brought with it an identity card and a bank account. Many women in Shakadulo said they had never been to the nearest town, Malindi, which was an hour's drive away. Collecting their transfer from a bank branch in Malindi therefore became an eye-opening experience and transformed their perspectives.

Men also acknowledged changes in women. A man in the Viragoni FGD said that women participating in FFA now have wider perspectives on life. He said they are less 'passive' and take action to get income and food for their households regardless of the opportunities presented by FFA. This has resulted in

greater harmony in households. Some women and men reported a shift in how communities view women and their capacities.

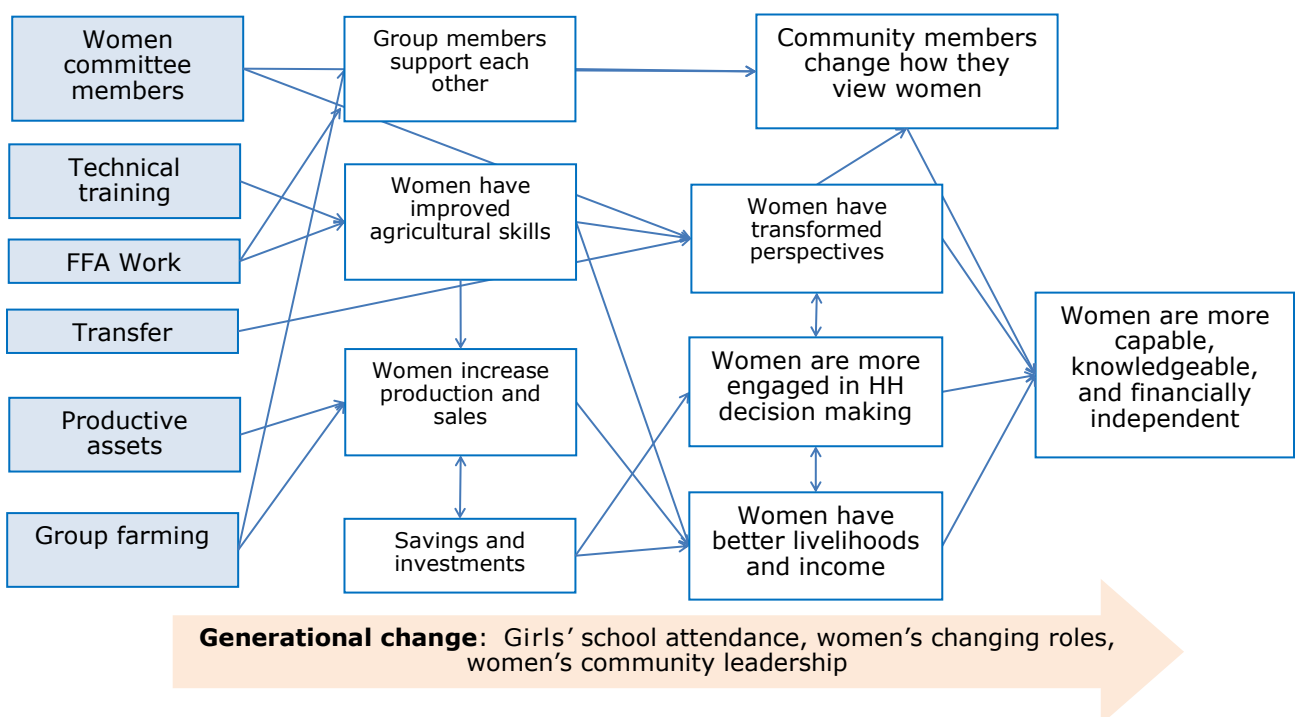
From these descriptions, there are four main pathways to WSEE:

- the 'livelihood and income' pathway, which led to less financial dependence;
- the 'transformed perspectives' and 'household decision making' pathway is about women having a greater sense of agency and transformed gender dynamics in their household;
- the 'community views' pathway refers to the changing views in the community about women's capacity and role; and
- the 'generational change' pathway shows how FFA is driving change for young and adolescent girls now.

While much had been achieved, looking to the future, women felt that more can be done to empower them. During the sense-making workshop, women beneficiaries defined an empowered woman as one who:

- is more capable, knowledgeable, and financially independent;
- has the space and freedom to express herself and make decisions; and
- has a leadership role in her community; and
- has opportunities for work and social engagement.

To achieve this, women need to be given opportunities for leadership in their communities. At



**Figure 3.3.** The overall WSEE outcomes and impact and their linkages

the household level, there needs to be an enabling environment free of conflict when women choose to take up economic or leadership opportunities. For future women, reduced early pregnancy and education is imperative. Women said that parents need to be role models for this to be achieved. Boys mimic their fathers, and it is therefore important that men treat their wives respectfully.

### 3.2.4 Kenya WN findings

Women felt that they were better nourished, that is that they were eating more (and sometimes better) food and had improved health. The most significant changes relating to WN were:

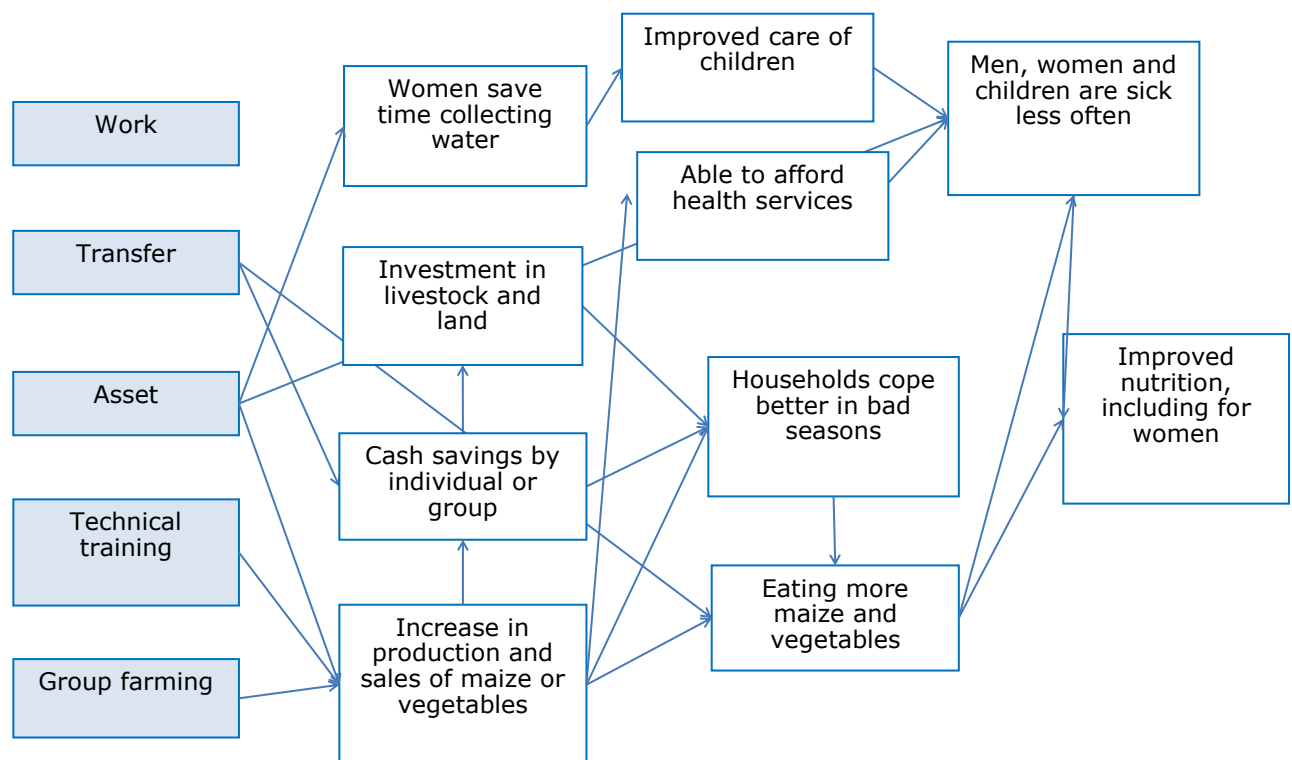
- food is more available at the household;
- improved production and sales of maize;
- improved agricultural technical skills; and
- improved health and reduced expenditures on health.

There were improvements in the diversity, quantity and frequency to what households (including women) would eat. Prior to the FFA programme, households would eat only one meal per day comprising ugali or cassava with mchunga (a bitter green leafy) and occasional wild foods. Women reported that they currently eat at least two meals per day (with children eating three meals), and they now eat a greater variety of vegetables and fruit.

Women now report eating sukuma wiki (kale), eggplant, banana, sweet potatoes, pineapples, green grams, cowpeas, beans, cassava and paw paw. In Kahingoni, men reported that household dietary changes were more related to quantity of food than diversity, but the other two communities reported more diversity as well.

Most household consumption of vegetables was from own production and wild vegetables as opposed to purchases in markets, with transfers and additional income being used mainly to purchase more maize (and for school fees). Markets were often a distance from households; men and women reported visiting them on a weekly basis.

There remains very little protein, whether from animal or vegetable sources, in diets. Tea is typically consumed without milk, and only 'better off' households drink tea with milk. The only common animal protein consumed is game meat, kadzora (wild rats) and insects (caterpillars, crickets, grasshoppers and locusts). These are eaten in normal years, with kadzora and mithali caterpillars being local delicacies. Women and men usually eat the same food, although if the man brings home wild game, then men are likely to have their choice of the food first. There appeared to be limited understanding from women and men



**Figure 3.4.** The overall WN outcomes and impact and their linkages

beneficiaries of the specific nutrient needs of a woman at various points in her life cycle.

In addition to changes in diet, beneficiaries reported being able to afford health services. At one site (Shakadulo), it was reported that there was improved health and reduced health expenditures following latrines being built through FFA.

### 3.3 Zimbabwe case study

#### 3.3.1 Zimbabwean context

**Study context.** The study was conducted in Mwenezi District, Masvingo Province, in Zimbabwe's south. Mwenezi has an average poverty prevalence of 80.9 percent<sup>46</sup>, making it one of the poorest districts in Zimbabwe. The average household income in Masvingo Province was US\$55 for April 2016, compared to US\$ 79 in April 2015 (a 30 percent drop).<sup>47</sup>

Agriculture is Masvingo Province's main economic activity. With semi-arid with low and erratic rainfalls<sup>48</sup> and poor rocky landscapes, Mwenezi practices low-potential mixed farming with cattle, small ruminants, and rainfed maize and legumes. Around 90 percent of households own livestock, although most households (60 percent) own less than five cattle.<sup>49</sup> Livestock is a critical source of income, and is also a necessary for draught power and manure for agriculture.<sup>50</sup> Other sources of income for Mwenezi households include casual labour, remittances, beer brewing and gold panning.<sup>51</sup> Households typically have small areas for irrigated vegetable growing, but these tend to be small and for household consumption only.

In the past Mwenezi District experienced a drought on average every 10 years. This, however, is changing. Since 2000, there have been six shocks in Mwenezi: one cyclone, one drought and five poor rain seasons. The five erratic rain seasons have been in the past decade. In Mwenezi, and across

Zimbabwe, households have experienced three consecutive poor seasons. The 2015-16 harvest of the main staple, maize, was about a tenth of a normal year.<sup>52</sup>

**Gender context.** As with many rural societies, there are strong traditional gender roles in Mwenezi in agriculture. Traditionally, both women and men are engaged in rainfed agriculture (cereals and pulses). Men and boys herd cattle while women grow vegetables, particularly for irrigated agriculture as it is culturally 'unseemly' for a man to carry water.

The past two decades has seen a large change in Mwenezi. Due to its proximity to South Africa, many men (and sometimes young women) migrate there for work. Masvingo Province has the highest net rate of outmigration in Zimbabwe at 13.5 percent<sup>53</sup>, likely resulting in Masvingo having the lowest sex ratio in Zimbabwe of 87 men to every 100 women.<sup>54</sup> In the study area, most of the young, able-bodied men had reportedly migrated to South Africa for work, remitting money home regularly. Some women reported that their husbands left over a decade ago, and they have not heard from them since. In Mwenezi, these women are unable to re-marry though many have boyfriends.

Male migration has had several implications for gender roles. 40.8 percent of households in Masvingo Province are headed by women<sup>55</sup>, the highest proportion in this study. Women have taken on 'men's jobs', such as taking cattle to dip tanks, and building and repairing houses or chicken pens. Despite women's expanding role in agriculture, land is still owned by men. Women often do not inherit land.

GBV, including intimate partner violence, sexual assault, child marriage and trafficking, continue to be a challenge in Zimbabwe. The perpetrator for both types of violence was most commonly the intimate partner, including current or former

<sup>46</sup> Zimstat, 2015. Zimbabwe Poverty Atlas, Small Area Poverty Estimation. Supported by UNICEF and the World Bank. p. 196.

<sup>47</sup> Zimbabwe Vulnerability Assessment Committee 2016 Rural Livelihoods Assessment. Food and Nutrition Council. (ZimVAC 2016), p. 70.

<sup>48</sup> In key informant interviews, the Agritex Officer at district level indicated that rainfall had previously been 400mm per annum, but now 250-300mm and more erratic.

<sup>49</sup> Mwenezi Rural District Council and WFP, 2013. Seasonal Livelihood Programming, Mwenezi District.

<sup>50</sup> *ibid*

<sup>51</sup> *ibid*

<sup>52</sup> ZimVAC 2016, p. 48.

<sup>53</sup> Zimstat, 2012. Census 2012 National Report. p. 33

<sup>54</sup> Zimstat, 2012. Census 2012 National Report. p. 17

<sup>55</sup> Zimstat, 2012. Census 2012 National Report. p. 52 and p. 62

<sup>56</sup> ZimVAC 2016, p.164.

<sup>57</sup> Zimbabwe National Gender Based Violence Strategy 2012-2015, Ministry of Women Affairs, Gender and Community Development. p.3

<sup>58</sup> <http://www.masvingomirror.com/2016/09/apostolic-churches-meet-to-end-child.html>

<sup>59</sup> Zimstat, 2015. Zimbabwe Demographic and Health Survey 2015 (DHS 2015), p. 9



husband/boyfriend.<sup>56</sup> 40 percent of women in Masvingo Province report to have been experience intimate partner violence in their lifetime.<sup>57</sup> Zimbabwe has a National Gender Based Violence Strategy 2012-2015, as well as a legal framework that seeks to prevent and protect GBV survivors.

Child marriage and early childbearing were challenges frequently mentioned during this study. Nationally, one in three girls is married before they reach the age of 18.<sup>58</sup> 22 percent of adolescent females age 15-19 in Zimbabwe have begun childbearing.<sup>59</sup> Early childbearing among teenagers is almost three times higher in rural areas compared to urban areas. There are multiple causes leading to these, including cultural and economic.<sup>60</sup> Regardless of the cause, early marriage and early childbearing leads to cycles of poverty, gender inequality and GBV.<sup>61</sup>

Zimbabwe has a National Gender Policy (2013-2017), where the vision is for a gender just society in which men and women enjoy equity, contribute and benefit as equal partners in the development of the country. There are eight priority areas: Legal rights, economic empowerment, politics and decision making, health, education and training, GBV, environment and climate change, and media.

**Women’s nutrition context.** The major nutritional challenges for women in Zimbabwe are micronutrient deficiency (iron, vitamin A, zinc, and folic acid) and growing numbers of overweight and obese. In Masvingo Province, 23.1 percent of women are anaemic.<sup>62</sup>

There is a strong dietary factor for poor nutritional

indicators. Only 56 percent of Masvingo households have an acceptable diet.<sup>63</sup> Although most households have vegetable gardens, they were small and provided only green leafy vegetables (instead on the ‘rainbow’ range of different coloured vegetables necessary to provide a fuller range of micronutrients) over three months of the year.<sup>64</sup> Only three percent of households consume iron-rich food on a daily basis in Masvingo Province; 54 percent of households never consume iron-rich foods.<sup>65</sup> Although iron-folate supplements are provided to pregnant women at health centres, many women do not take them complaining that it makes them feel nauseous. In remote rural areas, the health centres are difficult to access. While Zimbabwe had a National Food Fortification Strategy promoting fortified maize meal, most households in Masvingo Province consume their own production, or source unfortified cereals locally from other households in their area.<sup>66</sup>

Poor access to safe water and sanitation is also a likely cause of poor nutrition. Only 69 percent of households in Masvingo Province have access to improved water sources.<sup>67</sup> Thirty-five percent of households must travel less than 500 metres for water; 30 percent of households must travel over one kilometre.<sup>68</sup> Open defecation is practiced by 45 percent of the Masvingo population.<sup>69</sup>

### 3.3.2 FFA description

**Implementation arrangements.** Across Zimbabwe, FFA is planned to reach 67,700 women and 154,800 men and their households (a total of 322,500 households). FFA is implemented as a once

**Table 3.3.** Summary of FFA characteristics across the three sites in Zimbabwe study

	Matande	Tsvimborume	Magomana
<b>Timing of project</b>	2012, 2013 and 2015	2015	2016 (in process during study)
<b>Asset type</b>	Weir, laundry wash basin, 4.5ha nutrition garden (36m <sup>2</sup> of beds per person) including water pump, watering troughs and pit latrine	Weir, laundry wash basin, 1ha nutrition garden (45m <sup>2</sup> of beds per person) including water pump, watering troughs and pit latrine	Dip tank, latrines, access road

<sup>60</sup> Interviews with UNICEF, the Cooperating Partner, and WFP Country Office staff. October 2016.

<sup>61</sup> *ibid.*

<sup>62</sup> DHS 2015, p. 29.

<sup>63</sup> ZimVAC 2016, p.120.

<sup>64</sup> Key informant interview with UNICEF nutrition advisor. This was supported by information from FGDs.

<sup>65</sup> ZimVAC 2016, p. 121.

<sup>66</sup> ZimVAC 2016, p. 92.

<sup>67</sup> ZimVAC 2016, p. 108.

<sup>68</sup> ZimVAC 2016, p.111.

<sup>69</sup> ZimVAC 2016, p.113.



**Image 3.3.** Matande weir downstream from a dam

-off six-month program in Zimbabwe by NGO Cooperating Partners. Each year Cooperating Partners develop proposals for FFA work and identify a new cohort of beneficiaries. Even when a Cooperating Partner decides to work at the same site for more than one year, the FFA workers (but not asset beneficiaries) are selected anew for each cycle. Each year, WFP provides Cooperating Partners with training.

**3PA.** The 3PA process was used, and the CBPP was developed in 2012 with representatives of both women and men across socio-economic classes. CBPPs were developed with a strong gender lens.

**FFA assets.** The assets were all community assets focused on access to water and food production / livelihoods.<sup>70</sup> Assets were designed in collaboration with government technical agencies. The study visited two asset types: weir and nutrition garden, and cattle dip tank. Assets are concentrated and 'layered' upon to maximise usage and sustainability. This layering of multiple assets at one location seemed to bring about transformative change quickly. All community assets, including nutrition gardens, were situated on donated land. The donation is legally-binding and permanent. This was important for the long-term investment in the assets.

**Committees.** The three types of committees were formed as part of the FFA project: Project Implementation Teams (PITs), Food Distribution Committees (FDCs) and the Asset Management

Committees (AMCs). Each committee comprised of four women and three men, and had a gender focal point, responsible for gender-related issues, e.g., ensuring that PLW do lighter work. Committee members were trained in the more technical aspects of their roles, as well as softer skills such as communication, leadership, people management, and conflict resolution. This provided committee members with the skills and confidence to do their jobs well. Committees appeared to have the effect of providing women (and men) a safe space to grow their community leadership skills.

**FFA work** was undertaken for 4 hours per day, 15 days per month for 6 months. Over 50 percent of workers were women. Six of the 60 work hours per month are dedicated to sensitisation and training. Women and men did different work. Women mainly did haulage and broke rocks into aggregate for concrete; men did construction and broke boulders into rocks. Women's work was physically lighter and required limited skills; men's work was physically more strenuous and complex. The complexity of men's construction work meant that on-the-job training was required, such as in stone masonry.

Each worksite had a child care area, where elderly women looked after babies and toddlers as their mothers worked. Breastfeeding was encouraged and supported.

**Sensitisation** on the FFA programme included topics such as included interpersonal communication, conflict management, sexual abuse and exploitation, workplace safety and the need for

<sup>70</sup> There was a complementary WFP programme, sometimes targeting the same beneficiaries, to provide lean season assistance for a soft condition to construct soil-water conservation (SWC) structures, such as contour ridges, basins and potholes (similar to zai pits) on household-level rainfed fields.

work norms for PLW. FFA was used as a platform to link with a range of government line agencies including the Ministry of Health and Child Care, Ministry of Women Affairs and Community Development, Ministry of Social Services, etc. These government agencies delivered sensitisation on topics including gender roles, shared decision making, harmonious living, GBV prevention, reporting and referral, infant and young child feeding (IYCF), child growth monitoring, sexual and reproductive health, diversified and good quality diet, health and hygiene messaging. In FGDs, beneficiaries said that these sessions were important as it helped them forge linkages with the line agencies.

**Technical training.** Both women and men were trained on the selection on stones and safety on the worksite. However only men were trained on the building – mixing concrete, stone masonry, plastering, etc. Builders – both women and men – trained by the Cooperating Partner elsewhere in the district had been brought in to provide on-the-job training for men. Women who were previously apprehensive about learning to build as it was “a man’s job” changed their opinion when they met female builders.

**Transfer.** The transfer modality depended on the food security situation as well as market assessments. This year, due to food insecurity, the transfer was provided as two months’ cash (immediately after harvest) and four months of food. The monthly cash transfer was US\$55 (cash in transit); the monthly food ration was 50kg maize, 3.75kg oil and 10kg pulses. Both comprised a 75 percent ration for a household of five for a month.

**Complementary actions.** A range of complementary actions were delivered as part of the FFA program, or using FFA as a platform. These included:

- **Agricultural extension**, particularly in the correct method for growing nutritious vegetables for a ‘rainbow’ diet, SWC structures, drought-tolerant small grains, livestock management, marketing of produce.
- **Community enterprise development.** This included solar drying of vegetables and agricultural marketing. In other sites (not

visited), there were also beekeeping and aquaculture activities.

- **Internal Savings and Lending Schemes (ISALs)** which enabled women and men to borrow, save, and make a profit.
- **Latrine construction** supported by the Cooperating Partner and managed by the communities.
- **Social activities** such as netball, football, drama and singing groups, contribute to social cohesion and fun in the community.
- **Food fairs** featuring nutritious foods (e.g. small grains) and local foods (e.g. mopani worms and amarula fruits).

### 3.3.3 Zimbabwe WSEE findings

Women (and men) across all communities reported being empowered through FFA activities. The most significant changes reported relating to WSEE were:

- women had better and more diverse livelihoods [Matande and Tsvimborume];
- women had increased income [Matande and Tsvimborume];
- women (and men) had improved social standing and experienced improved social cohesion; and
- women had changed perspectives.

Given the chronic poverty, high proportion of female-headed households (FHH - 40.8 percent of households) and uncertainty of remittances, livelihoods and income are high priorities for women in Masvingo province. In Matande and Tsvimborume, where women were specifically targeted for the nutrition gardens, they reported having increased income from the gardens – about US\$50-60 from vegetables sales per season. While decision making for this income was joint, money earned through the vegetable garden was perceived as the woman’s income. In Matande, a woman said that now her husband comes to her for money, whereas the reverse was true previously. In Tsvimborume women and men reported that their livestock was in better condition because they did no longer had to walk for 7km each way to water them. The risk of losing the livestock en route was reduced. Better access to water has allowed women to start other livelihoods, like brick making in

<sup>71</sup> Matande and Tsvimborume reported putting better food (vegetables) on the table. Magomana reported having more food (from the transfer) available. Women said this was important as men would sometimes eat ‘takeaway’ at a local eatery or find a girlfriend who would cook better food.

<sup>72</sup> In FGDs, women had not spoken as strongly about changes in decision making power. This is likely because the women FGD participants were typically women household heads, and were already made day-to-day decisions.

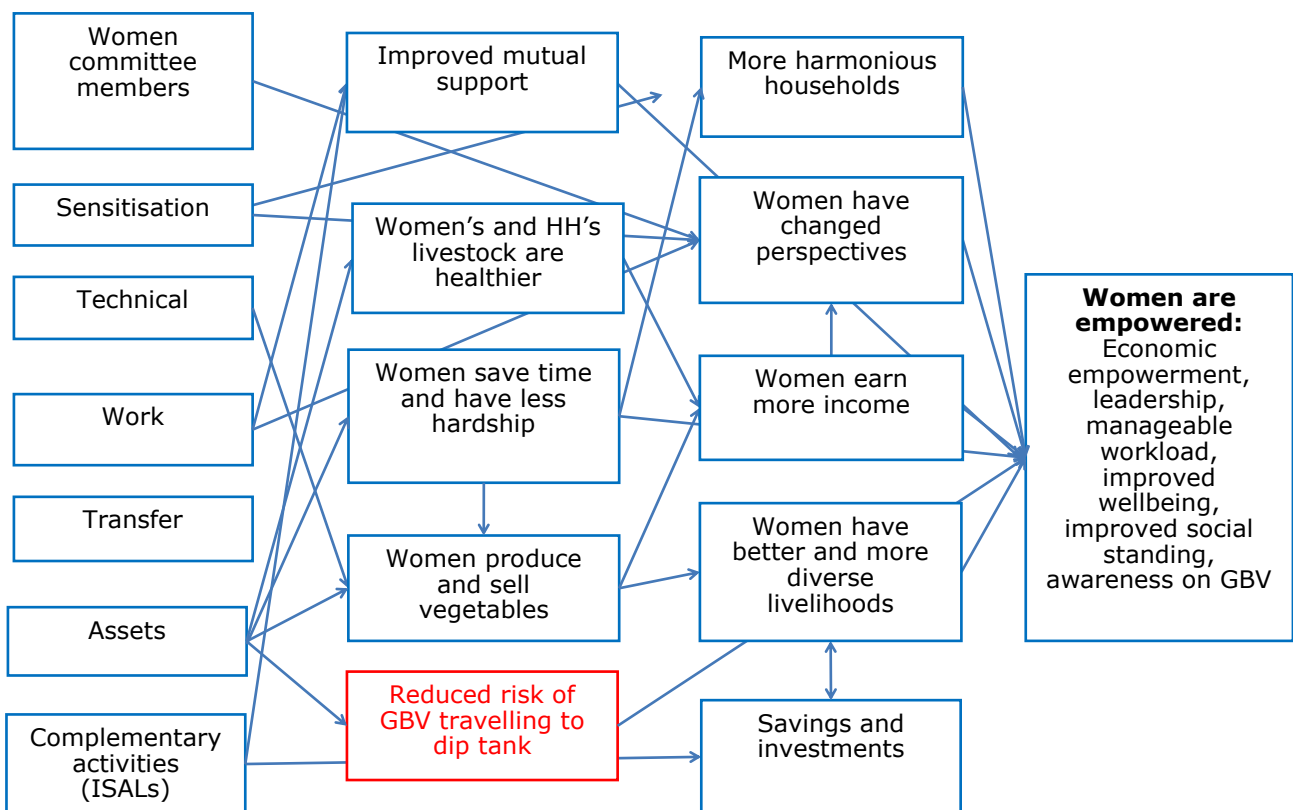
Tsvimborume.

Another strongly expressed outcome was improved social standing and social cohesion. Prior to the FFA programme, many of the beneficiaries said that they worked for food or money for on other community members' land. Now that they have access to valuable irrigated land in the nutrition gardens, they have a source of food and income even in the past two years, which were bad years. In the past year, Matande beneficiaries had non-beneficiaries offering to work on their garden beds in exchange for vegetables. They had a sense of pride that now -in effect- they were employers. Because of the nutrition garden harvests, their children's lunch boxes are the envy of others at school. Matande and Tsvimborume beneficiaries reported improved dignity from having a better diet (from the nutrition gardens), more skills and knowledge (from the sensitisation and training programs) and being able to wash and launder more frequently (because of the weir and wash basins). Some were also able improve their houses from ISAL savings.

The improved social cohesion was intra-household, between households in a village, and between villages. In the context of Mwenezi where there are many more adult females than males, women are constantly anxious of losing their men either to migration for work or a 'girlfriend'. Women place a

premium on household harmony to prevent this. As a result of FFA, women reported better household harmony from: more food or better food in the house; being able to wash more often and therefore could 'sleep' with their husbands more often; and less fatigue from reduced work burden of carrying water. Some women also talked about how their daily social sphere was previously very much limited to their households; now their daily social spheres have increased markedly because of the nutrition gardens, ISALs and social organisations. As one woman in Tsvimborume stated: "When we just stayed at home, we would just get cranky with our husbands. Now we see many more people during the day, we have more to talk to our husbands about." The FFA sensitisation on topics such as conflict resolution, gender roles and GBV also had a role to play in the intra-household changes. In all sites, men spoke about how they are more likely to make joint decisions with their wives, and not hit their wives because of the sensitisation.

The improved social cohesion within and between villages that is attributable to the joint work on an asset. This was particularly evident in Matande where three years following the FFA work in 2013, women and men still meet regularly for the ISALs and the social organisations (e.g., twice-weekly netball sessions attended by women). This had many flow-on impacts including mutual support and



**Figure 3.5.** The overall *experienced* WSEE outcomes and impact and their linkages. Note that the red box indicates an *anticipated* change when the dip tank is completed.



solidarity for women, especially elderly women who were looking after orphans and vulnerable children.

Women (and men) in all three sites have had changed perspectives because of FFA. As a key part of the sensitisation was about gender and gender roles, some households spoke of exchanging their roles. In Matande, women reported that some men cook if their wives are working. In Tsvimborume, men are doing the laundry and asking their sons to learn how to cook. In Magomana, a man reported that he now can work alongside women without seeing them as sex objects.

Women perceive themselves differently. They are earning more cash income than previously. Some could save, and invest in livestock. Some women bought cattle, which is something that they said only men previously did. Women played community leadership roles when they were committee members in FFA. In Magomana, some women now aspire to learn building skills after having seen women builders from another community train men. It is worth noting that both women and men perceived themselves differently. Men felt great pride in constructing the weirs and dip tank, and felt that they had greater economic opportunities arising from their newly-acquired skills.

In the completed sites in Matande and Tsvimborume, it was clear that both women and men felt that their lives were transformed by FFA. Given that previous two FFA programmes studied were multi-year processes (three years in Niger and eight years in Kenya) it was surprising that women reported a similar extent of WSEE change reported in Kenya, and more WSEE change than reported in Niger. The FFA programme in Mwenezi seems to have had very high impact. There may have been contextual factors that supported this, such as very high levels of education and capacity, and is in many ways more advanced than the previous two contexts; Mwenezi's 93 percent literacy compared to 75 percent in Kilifi, Kenya and under 20 percent in Zinder, Niger. It could also be due to the concentration or layering of assets in Zimbabwe leading to accelerated changes and amplified impact. Another potential factor is that Zimbabwe is the only country case study where there was deliberate sensitisation on intra-household gender roles.

There were three main pathways that led to WSEE, namely the:

- 'livelihood and income' pathway;

- 'household harmony' and 'wellbeing' pathway; and
- 'changed perspectives' pathway.

### 3.3.4 Zimbabwe WN findings

Overall, women reported being better nourished; that is, eating more and better food and being sick less often. The most significant changes that they reported that relate directly to WN were:

- better diet from both own production and the transfer; and
- access to water

There were changes in the **diversity, quantity and frequency** to what households (including women) would eat. In Matande and Tsvimborume, the effects were largely from the nutrition garden. Households reported to eat much more vegetables and pulses than previously. Previously, they only ate vegetables (typically leafy greens such as kale) for a few months in a year during the rainy season. They are now eating a better variety of vegetables, including carrots and butternut pumpkins. Beneficiaries reported now having 'enough food' compared to previously. They reported weathering this El Nino drought better than other households. Although the beneficiaries' rainfed crops (maize and pulses) had failed, they said they still had vegetables and maize from the irrigated nutrition garden. The nutrition gardens also provided crop residues and fodder with which they could feed their livestock. In both sites, beneficiaries reported eating animal products (milk and eggs mainly, but also poultry) on a regular basis. Milk was mainly given to children. Eggs from guinea fowl and chickens were plentiful and were an important part of the diet.

In Magomana, the changes in diet were due to the food transfers. Households reported being able to eat more regularly now, and that what they were now eating was better food than previously. Interviewed beneficiaries were particularly appreciative of the pulses and the oil in the ration, saying that children and adults are now healthier, children are more playful, and their skin texture has improved. Looking to the future, beneficiaries from Magomana were hoping that the dip tank will lead to improved health of their livestock and improved milk production.<sup>73</sup> This would result in increased earnings and increased milk consumption in the household.

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<sup>73</sup> Ticks usually affect the udders of cows, leading to reductions in milk production.



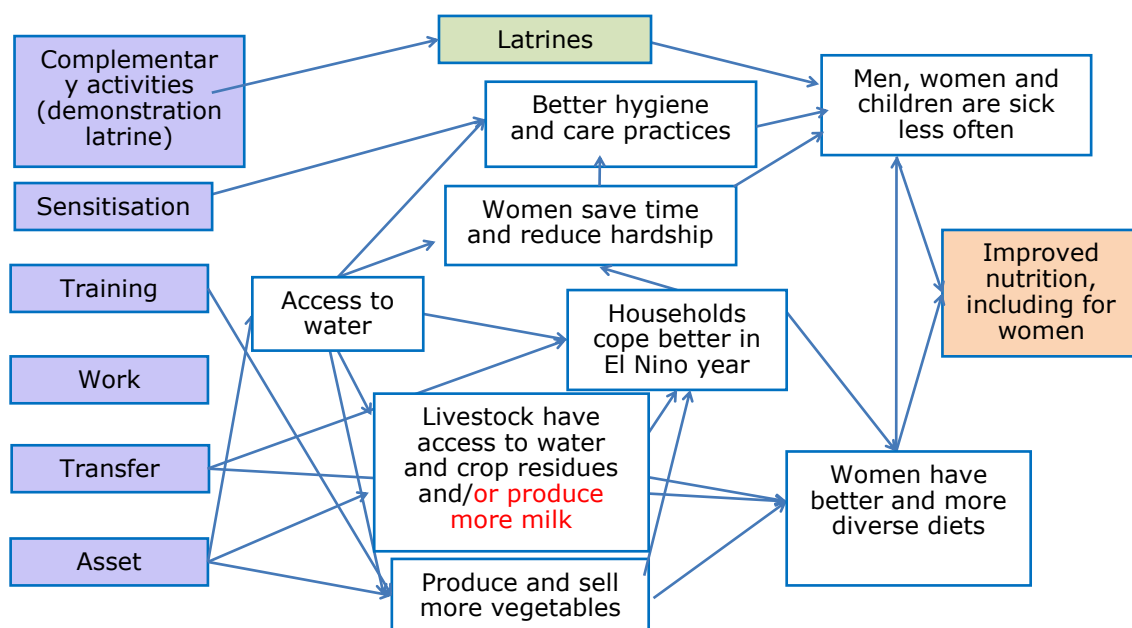
**Image 3.4.** Female and male beneficiaries with kale and cabbage from in the nutrition garden in Matande

**Access to water** in Matande and Tsvimborume led to several changes, such as improved hygiene from bathing more frequently, improved health from being less burdened (from daily collection of water), and more time for improved care practices.

In addition to these changes that were identified by the women as 'most significant', there were other changes reported that clearly lead to improved nutrition, such as the better care practices (resulting from sensitisation), improved sanitation and hygiene (from latrines, sensitisation and access to water), and improved resilience (from irrigated agriculture and savings).

**Figure 3.6** illustrates how FFA and complementary actions contributed to improved nutrition, including for women. There were two main pathways that led to improved nutrition.

- The '*sick less often*' pathway. In FGDs, many reported getting sick less often. Across all sites, this was due to better hygiene and care practices. In Matande and Tsvimborume, this was a direct outcome of latrines being built. While household latrines were not built as FFA assets, there was training and sensitisation regarding latrine construction. In Tsvimborume, it was also from saving time and reducing hardship in collecting water and being able to bathe more frequently.
- The '*better diet*' pathway. The main pathway that led to better nutrition was through better diet – eating greater diversity, quantity and



**Figure 3.6.** The overall *experienced* WN outcomes and impact and their linkages. Note that the red text indicates an *anticipated* change when the dip tank is completed. Latrines are in a green box to indicate that it is an action facilitated but not delivered by the FFA project.

more frequently. For Matande and Tsvimborume, this was primarily the result of having vegetables and pulses to eat from the nutrition garden. While the nutrition garden was critical in this, training from Agritex helped beneficiaries to plan their gardens to reflect a 'rainbow' diet.

## 3.4 Guatemala case study

### 3.4.1 Guatemalan context

**Study context.** Although a middle-income country, there is high and persistent extreme inequality of income (Gini index of 0.57).<sup>74</sup> The study was conducted in two departments (or provinces) of the Dry Corridor, Zacapa and El Progreso. They are departments with the lowest proportion of indigenous population in Guatemala.<sup>75</sup> The population is predominantly Spanish speaking and Christian. The Dry Corridor is characterised by irregular annual rainfall distribution, affecting crop production.<sup>76</sup> In addition, Guatemala is badly affected by climate change.<sup>77</sup> The Zacapa Seasonal Livelihood Plan (SLP) indicates there have only been two 'typical' years in the last ten years, with other years being poor years. Similarly, El Progreso has experienced only three 'typical' years in the last ten.

There are two livelihood zones in Zacapa and El Progreso.<sup>78</sup> In the plains of the Motagua Valley, there are large-scale irrigated fruit agribusinesses and mines. In the hilly areas that typify the study area, the livelihoods focus on growing coffee and subsistence food (primarily maize and beans), as well as providing agricultural labour. The hilly terrain in Zacapa and El Progreso has very limited agricultural potential. Where there are opportunities, these are adjacent to streams or in narrow valleys.

**Gender context.** Guatemala has a patriarchal social structure with prevalent machismo culture.

Many women need permission of the husband or father for participating in social and economic sphere.<sup>79</sup> Over the last decade, the proportion of female-headed households has been approximately 10 percent (Zacapa 23.8 percent; El Progreso 14.4 percent<sup>80</sup>).

There is a clear gender division of labour, particularly in rural areas. Women tend to undertake unpaid domestic and care work, work on vegetable gardens, look after small livestock (poultry etc.) while also supporting family's agricultural activities.<sup>81</sup> Women household heads either are supported by other members of household, or carry out all the work by themselves. Men carry out harder physical labour, such as cultivating the rainfed maize and beans. In the study area, some men engage in seasonal migration during the dry (lean) season for a period of several weeks (up to 2-3 months), or as day labourers in nearby coffee or fruit farms. National statistics indicate that women spend an estimated 6.1 hours per day for non-compensated labour contributing to family's wellbeing and community development and 7.5 hours per day paid labour. In comparison, men spend 2.6 hours per day in non-compensated labour and 8.5 hours per day in paid labour.<sup>82</sup>

Gender-based violence is a significant rights violation and protection concern in Guatemala. Guatemala has one of the highest rates of girl and adolescent pregnancy in the Latin American region; over 4,000 girls aged 10-14 years give birth every year.<sup>83</sup> Many of the adolescent pregnancies are due to sexual violence<sup>84</sup>; over 80 per cent of cases of sexual aggression against girls under 14 are committed by a family member.<sup>85</sup> Guatemala ranks among the countries with the highest rate of violent deaths among women (9.7 in 100,000).<sup>86</sup> Sexual abuse is strongly linked to domestic sphere: 7 out of every 10 rapes or sexual abuse cases are perpetrated by a member of the household.<sup>87</sup>

<sup>74</sup> UN Women's [Guatemala profile](#).

<sup>75</sup> Instituto Nacional de Estadística (INE), 2016. Encuesta Nacional de Condiciones de Vida (ENCOVI), p.21.

<sup>76</sup> FAO. 2012. Estudio de caracterización del Corredor Seco Centroamericano, as cited in WFP, January 2017. Evaluation Assessment of Guatemala FoodSECuRE Project: A Global Synthesis.

<sup>77</sup> German Watch, *Global Climate Risk Index 2015: Who Suffers Most from Extreme Weather Events? Weather-Related Loss Events in 2013 and 1994 to 2013*, p. 6 (as cited in the FoodSECuRE 2017 evaluation)

<sup>78</sup> FEWSNET / USAID Guatemala Livelihood Zones.

<sup>79</sup> Interview with CO Gender Focal Person Josefina Tamayo, February 2017, National Maternal and Child Health Survey 2008–2009 (ESMI) and UN Women's [Guatemala profile](#).

<sup>80</sup> Instituto Nacional de Estadística (INE), 2016. Encuesta Nacional de Condiciones de Vida (ENCOVI), p. 45-46.

<sup>81</sup> Women's and men's FGDs, February 2017.

<sup>82</sup> UN Women, Guatemala profile (<http://lac.unwomen.org/en/donde-estamos/guatemala>)

<sup>83</sup> UN Women's [Guatemala profile](#).

<sup>84</sup> Interview with CO Gender Focal Person Josefina Tamayo, February 2017.

<sup>85</sup> UNICEF Guatemala Country Programme Document 2015-2019, p.4.

<sup>86</sup> UN Women's [Guatemala profile](#).

<sup>87</sup> Interview with CO Gender Focal Person Josefina Tamayo, February 2017.

<sup>88</sup> UNICEF Guatemala Country Programme Document 2015-2019, p.3.

There is a closing gender gap in education. There is no major difference between boys' and girls' enrolment and completion rate for primary school, but there is a gap for secondary education where 54 percent of students are boys.<sup>88</sup>

**Women's nutrition context.** Guatemala has significant malnutrition challenges, with high rates of child undernutrition and adult overnutrition. Nationally, 47 percent of children under the age of five are stunted,<sup>89</sup> while 52 percent of adults are overweight.<sup>90</sup> Women are more likely to be overweight compared to men (56 percent for women compared to 48 percent for men). The maternal mortality rate in Guatemala is 140 maternal deaths per 100,000 live births<sup>91</sup> had not reached the Millennium Development Goal (MDG) of 55 per 100,000. Maternal short stature (<145 cm) and anaemia are risk factors for maternal deaths, contributing to at least 20 percent of maternal deaths worldwide.<sup>92</sup> In Guatemala, 25 percent of women of reproductive age (WRA, aged 15-49 years) have short stature and 26 percent are anaemic, placing them at increased risk of maternal death.

While there are multiple causes of poor nutrition, inadequate intake of nutritious food is likely to be a contributing factor. According to a recent Fill the

Nutrient Gap 2016 study, the daily cost of a minimum adequate diet is 80.4 Quetzales (US\$ 10.89) per day for a household of five. 69.2 percent of households are not able to afford the minimum adequate diet. In addition to affordability, there appears to be a strong food preference for a diet based on maize and beans. As per the results of the FGDs, interviews and the FoodSECuRE evaluation<sup>93</sup>, the typical diet in the study area is maize and beans, complemented by coffee with sugar. Intake of fruit, vegetables and animal protein is limited, leading to micronutrient deficiencies, particularly anaemia and zinc deficiency. While elements of this food preference are likely cultural, it is also due to difficulties in growing vegetables and rearing livestock in the drought-prone and hilly conditions of Zacapa and El Progreso. Due the lack of water harvesting technologies and poor cultivation skills, existing vegetable production is laborious and time-consuming, with poor or low-quality yield.

Anecdotally, causes of poor child nutrition are poor housing (including unsealed dirt floors), poor sanitation, access to health care services, low levels of education among mothers, poor infant and young child feeding practices, early pregnancy and maternal nutrition.<sup>94</sup>

### 3.4.2 FFA description

	San Miguel	Tecuz	Colonia Nueva Esperanza
<b>WFP's presence</b>	WFP started work in 2014.	WFP started work in 2009. Work included Emergency Preparedness Programme.	WFP started work in 2010 and exited in 2012. <sup>95</sup> Work included a women-focused program, Las Mujeres.
<b>Asset type or work</b>	Household SWC structures only	Household SWC structures Community work to clear rubbish and plant trees <sup>96</sup>	Household assets of six types <sup>97</sup> Group vegetable gardening
<b>Training delivery method</b>	Cascade by CADER	Directly delivered by MAGA extension worker	Cascade by two promoters
<b>Food distribution committee (FDC)</b>	Men only, possibly mixed	Women-only	Women-only

**Table 3.4.** Summary of FFA characteristics across the three sites in Guatemala

<sup>89</sup> Ministerio de Salud Pública y Asistencia Social (MSPAS), 2015. VI Encuesta Nacional de Salud Materno Infantil (ENSMI) 2014-2015, pp. 48-51.

<sup>90</sup> WHO 2015, as cited in Global Nutrition Report 2015, Nutrition Country Profile, Guatemala.

<sup>91</sup> [National Maternal and Child Health Survey 2014-2015](#) (January 2017), p.347.

<sup>92</sup> Black et al, 2008. [Maternal and child undernutrition: global and regional exposures and health consequences](#). The Lancet Series on maternal and child nutrition.

<sup>93</sup> The FoodSECuRE January 2017 evaluation noted that the food consumption score (FCS) did not accurately describe the diet in Sinaneca community in Zacapa. It asked, "Can a 7 days maize and beans consumption, in the absence of other food groups (fruit, vegetables, meat, etc.) be truly considered an acceptable diet?"

<sup>94</sup> Interview with CO Nutrition Advisor, Ms Maritza Oliva, February 2017

<sup>95</sup> Although WFP exited, MAGA training has continued beyond 2012.

<sup>96</sup> The community work may not have been 'official' ComRes FFA work, but it was agreed during a community meeting that labour was provided (by beneficiaries) to undertake this communal work.

<sup>97</sup> The six asset types were septic tank / latrine, compost pit, vegetable garden, level soil bunds, a small water reservoir, and live barriers (trees). It was a requirement from MAGA that all six assets were constructed by each household.



**Implementation arrangements.** FFA, as part of the Resilient Communities (ComRes) programme, has been implemented in Zacapa and El Progreso departments since 2014 reaching a total of 9,470 households. The Ministry of Agriculture, Livestock and Food (MAGA) is WFP's partner in the implementation of ComRes. Due to the funding constraints, WFP provides the food transfers, and MAGA provides the technical training, technical supervision and complementary training. ComRes works with the same beneficiary caseload for multiple years, however funding is often secured on a year to-to-year basis.

**3PA.** The 3PA process took place in 2013. Women and men were reportedly involved in the SLP and CBPPs.



**Image 3.5.** Level soil bund and live barriers in Colonia Nueva Esparanza, Guatemala

**FFA assets.** At the time of the study, funding shortages meant that the FFA assets were limited to household-level SWC structures: level soil bunds, live barriers (trees) and walls that were built on the contours of the steep slopes used for maize and bean cultivation. Previously, when funding was available, community and group assets including joint vegetable gardens were developed.

**FFA work.** Work was initially intended to be undertaken as groups of five workers (presumably from five households). Given that the assets constructed were at the household level, work was primarily undertaken at the household level, where whole households -men, women and children- worked together to

complete the work. Exceptions are in Tecuiz where a group of single women came together to work as groups of five, and in Colonia Nueva Esperanza where women worked on group assets (vegetable gardens) together.

Most household members contribute to the work, including children under 14.<sup>98</sup> Most of the most laborious and heavy work, such as digging, is undertaken by men. An estimated 75 to 80 percent of the work was undertaken by men (by time), and the remainder by women and children who do lighter tasks. Work norms, roughly equating to digging 81 metres and 31 metres of level soil bunds per year across two seasons, were not adjusted for households with less labour capacity. Households with only women or elderly take up to 15 days per season to undertake the work, whereas able-bodied men take as little as four days.

**Training and sensitisation.** Training on how to create the SWC structures were conducted by MAGA. Complementary training was provided on poultry management, vegetable growing, and growing moringa (Tecuiz only). Sensitisation included, on some occasions:

- women's rights / gender training, provided by Procuraduría de los Derechos Humanos with Dirección Municipal de la Mujer;<sup>99</sup>
- the benefits of forming a women-only<sup>100</sup> committee and female representation on the COCODE by WFP field monitors; and
- messaging for women on 'healthy homes' which included limited nutrition messaging (delivered by MAGA).

A challenge to the programme quality identified during the study was the quality of the technical and complementary training delivered by MAGA. High turnover and variable capacity of MAGA staff and the cascade approach to training meant that beneficiaries sometimes gained little from the training.

**Committees.** Each community formed a seven-person FDC for the purposes of the ComRes FFA

<sup>98</sup> While children, including those under 14, worked, they were not taken out of school to work and would typically help out after school or during weekends.

<sup>99</sup> Translated as Human Rights Ombudsman with the Municipal Women's Directorate.

<sup>100</sup> This was described as being important as men tend to take over mixed committees ('because of machismo').

project. While MAGA and WFP provided guidance that these committees should be women-only, this occurred for two communities, but not San Miguel. In San Miguel, women said that the COCODE decided to put in place a men-only committee. In Tecuiz and Colonia Nueva Esperanza, the FDC became a de facto women's committee within the community, providing women a safe space to develop community leadership skills. The FDCs were also seen as catalysing increased women's community participation in Tecuiz and Colonia Nueva Esperanza, even beyond the committee members.

**Transfers** of 120kg of maize and 15kg of beans were provided twice a year. The planned transfer had been a combination of food and cash-based transfers to cover energy requirements for 100 days. The food basket was planned to be maize, beans, vegetable oil and SuperCereal; however, due to funding challenges the beans were largely supplied by the Purchase for Progress (P4P) programme.

### 3.4.3 Guatemala WSEE findings

The Guatemala case study underscored the importance of women's organisation and access to information. Due to funding constraints, the FFA project was not able to develop livelihood opportunities, however it delivered two activities that contributed towards women's empowerment: all-women Food Distribution Committees (FDCs) and women's rights training. From these actions to support women's organisation and access to information, changes in WSEE were observed in two of the three communities studied, Tecuiz and Colonia Nueva Esperanza. These occurred at three levels:

**Individual women.** Women in Tecuiz and

<b>Individual women</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Women have improved skills and self-confidence</li> </ul>
<b>Household</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Changed household dynamics and decision making</li> </ul>
<b>Community</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Women are more involved in community activities and decision making</li> <li>Improved social cohesion and social networks</li> </ul>

Colonia Nueva Esperanza described themselves being empowered, which the women explained as their having improved skills, knowledge, and self-confidence as a result of ComRes FFA. This came about due to the training that they attended, as well as participation in community meetings and all-women Food Distribution Committees (FDCs).

Women said they now understand what 'gender' means because of the gender and women's rights training delivered by the Government and WFP. They now have stronger capacities to recognise abusive or unequal situations, and make a stand. For example, women described how abuse is not limited to physical violence, but also deprivation of opportunities and psychological violence (humiliation). Women described knowing where to access services, like the police, if abuse occurred.

After extended periods of food insecurity due to the drought, women described experiencing greater self-worth and dignity, because of the transfer.

Empowerment at the individual level would not have been possible without changes at the household and community level. Women described feeling more confident in part due to social changes in the community: the new friendships and solidarity with other women.

**Household.** In both Tecuiz and Colonia Nueva Esperanza, women described changes in household dynamics. Decision making is now more equal, and there is less violence, both physical and psychological. In part, the women attributed this to WFP's gender training, however there have also been national campaigns to raise awareness of domestic violence. A Tecuiz woman reported: "Many men in our community are machistas, but they are not as bad as before as they now know that we can call the police". This is critical in a country where there are continuing high levels of domestic violence. Some women also reported that changed household dynamics improved their ability to participate in public life: while many husbands previously did not allow their wives to participate in community meetings or trainings, this resistance was in some cases reduced.

For some households, the food transfers led to improved household dynamics with women being less over-burdened. The ongoing poor or failed harvests had led to financial stress for many households. In all communities, the transfers meant that men did not need work outside their communities as much. In Tecuiz, many men stopped their seasonal migration. In Colonia Nueva Esperanza, men would reduce the number of days they leave the community for day labouring work.

This was important as women were over-burdened when men worked outside their communities.

**Community.** In Tecuiz and Colonia Nueva Esperanza, women reported improved social status and a stronger capacity to carve out spaces and roles for themselves within their communities. "Before, community assembly meetings were only attended by men. But now, women are involved in the meetings, and this has flowed on to other aspects of community life too", reported a Tecuiz woman. The all-women FDC in Tecuiz successfully lobbied to have a playground built at the school.

Women also have stronger social networks resulting from participation in FDCs, group work and group assets. Independent of FFA activities, women now meet on a regular basis to plan community events, discuss the upkeep of the community, and to jointly bake cakes and bread and make shampoo and detergent for household consumption. This collaboration enhanced the social cohesion and social fabric. It has resulted in stronger protective peer-effect: empowered women tend to stand out for the rights of all women in the community and find collective opportunities to build women's self-reliance, and make their life safer and more dignified. For example, a female COCODE president lobbied to have transport provided for women to go to the nearest hospital to get pap smears. This resulted in early intervention of cervical cancer for three women. In one community, the ongoing collaboration among women resulted in women setting up group small enterprises, such as a small-scale plant nursery selling seedlings and potted

roses, and growing and selling tilapia.

### 3.4.4 Guatemala WN findings

The changes that occurred in nutrition varied from community to community. Most households reported having more to eat because of the transfer. The transfer provided beans and maize. As they were spending less money on purchasing these staples, they tended to spend money (otherwise spent on beans and maize) on coffee, sugar and some fresh foods (primarily vegetables). Women and men both said that household diets were more diverse due to the transfer (because of purchase of some fresh foods), though it was unclear if they were more nutritious. Women and men also reported strong seasonal differences in their diet. In the past, this was associated with harvests, but now the seasonal variations are due to the transfers and seasonal income from labour.

In Tecuiz child nutrition had been a major challenge, with about 30 cases of acute malnutrition in children under five in a community of 275 households. Due to several external and community interventions, the number of cases dropped to two. Women and men attributed the improvements to interventions from a complementary nutrition programme (Niños Sanos) including nutrition messaging, the FFA transfer, cooking classes (for use of the corn soy blend), better sanitation (from clearing rubbish), and better diet (from vegetable gardens and poultry). In Colonia Nueva Esperanza, women and men reported eating more fruit and vegetables because of FFA assets – vegetable

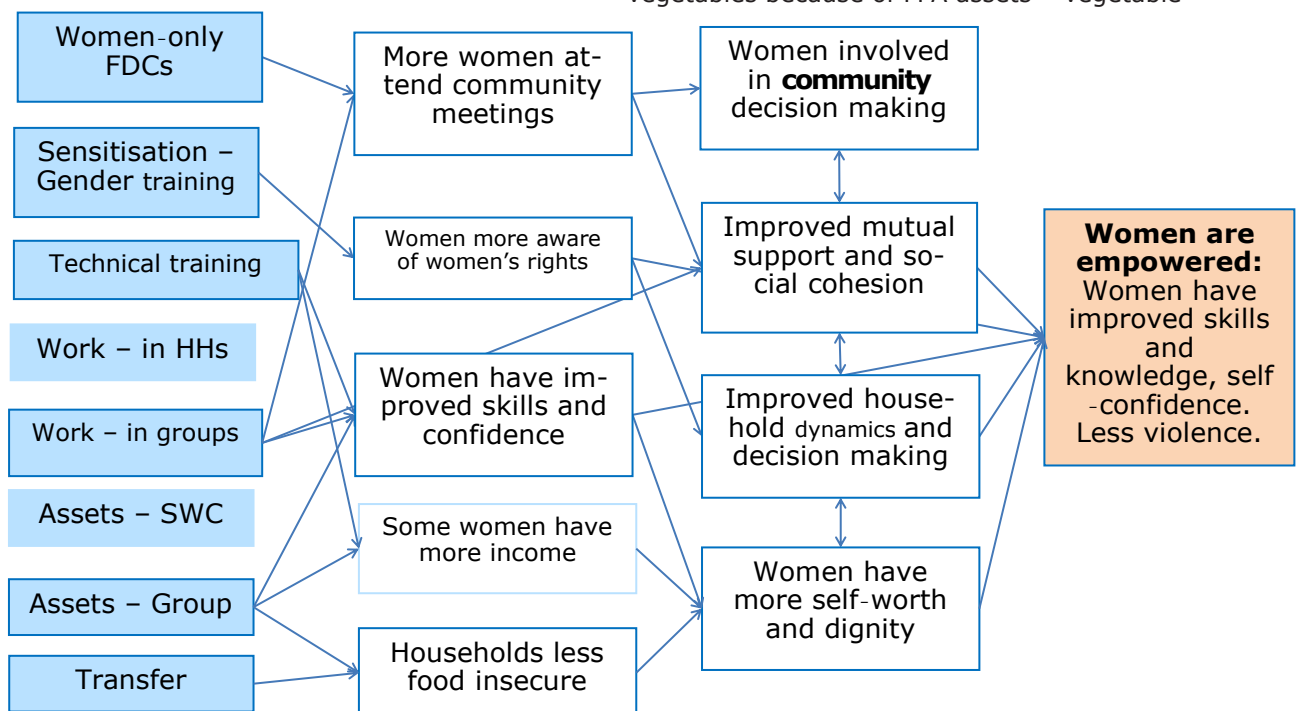


Figure 3.7. The overall reported WSEE outcomes their causal linkages.

gardens and fruit trees. Given that vegetables were selected for flavour rather than nutrition content, these may not have resulted in better nutrition for women and their households.<sup>101</sup> For some seasons, fish from the ponds would be sold and eaten within the community.

Overall, there did not appear to be significant improvements in adult nutrition, including women's nutrition. It seemed likely that this was due—in part—to the limited ability of communities to meet all of women's (especially PLW) nutritional requirements of iron, calcium and protein. Community members reported that they sometimes eat chicken, but hardly ever consume dairy products. Another challenge was that women and men had a poor understanding about adult and maternal nutrition, particularly the types of food women need to eat through their lifecycle e.g., to

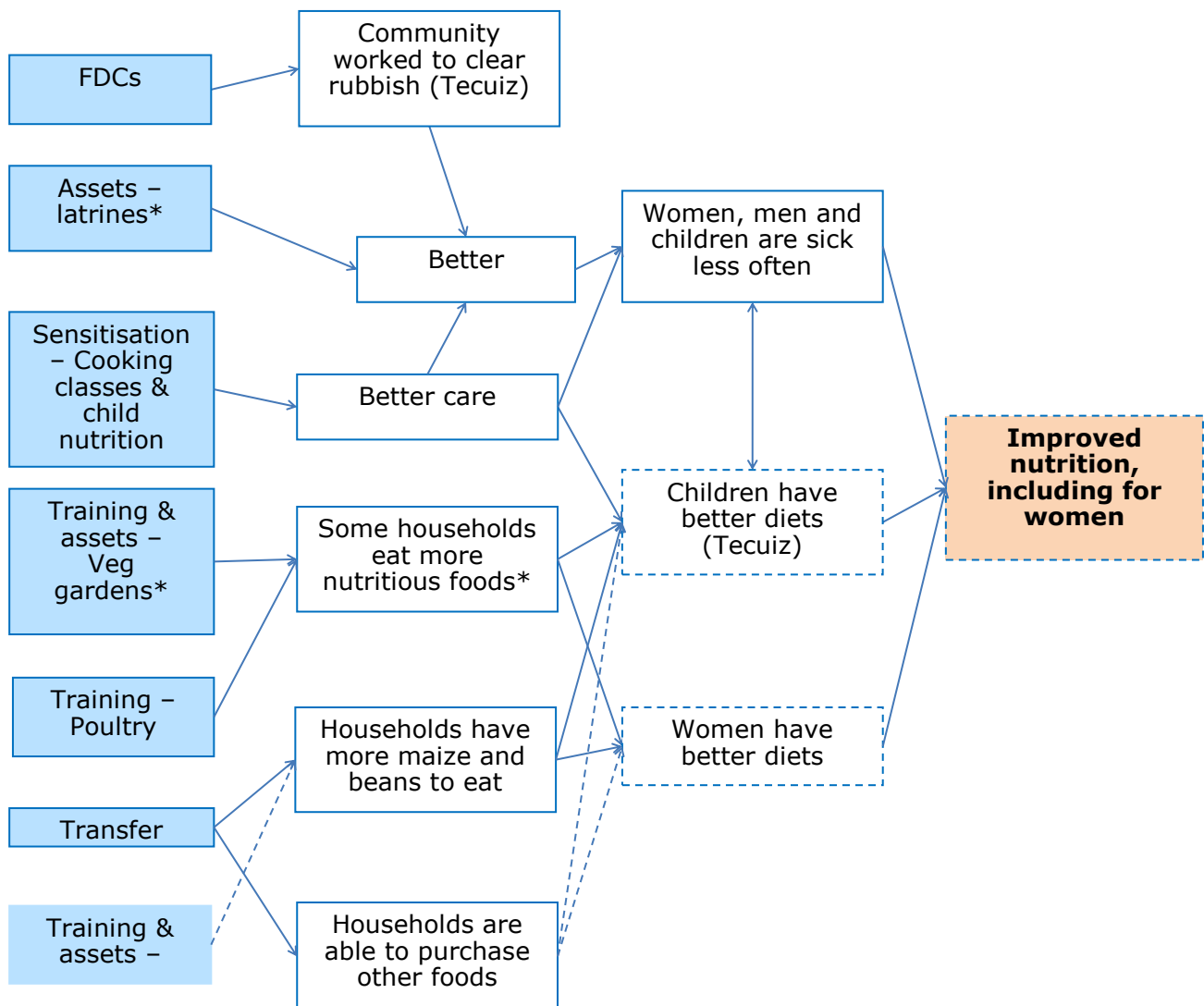
meet micronutrient requirements.

### 3.5 Sri Lanka case study

#### 3.5.1 Sri Lankan context

**Study context.** The study was conducted in two districts of Sri Lanka's Northern Province, Mannar and Kilinochchi districts. The Northern Province was marked by 26 years of conflict between the Sri Lankan government and the Liberation Tigers of Tamil Eelam (LTTE). This conflict came to an end in May 2009, with the military defeat of the LTTE. Many, including the FFA beneficiaries in this study, experienced multiple displacements due to nature of the conflict and its severity.

Sri Lanka is a middle-income country with growing



**Figure 3.8.** The overall WN outcomes and their causal linkages. The asterisk (\*) indicates that these were actions or changes that were only present in Colonia Nueva Esperanza. Dashed arrows indicate *potential* (not necessarily *experienced*) causal links. Dashed boxes indicate *potential* (not necessarily *experienced*) changes.

<sup>101</sup> As 26 percent of women of reproductive age in Guatemala are anaemic, iron-rich foods (e.g., green leafy vegetables and moringa trees) should be prioritised. While some silverbeet was grown, it was in small quantities.



economic activity in the north particularly in industries such as tourism, horticulture and aquaculture.<sup>102</sup> Agriculture, an important livelihood for the WFP beneficiaries, may be small-scale but it is commercial and not subsistence-based. Many farming households are dependent on income from formal employment, casual labour, or trades.

The study occurred during a season of below-normal rainfall, and poor rice harvests were forecasted for the 2017 Maha season.<sup>103</sup> One of the study sites, Mudkompan, was affected by this drought.

Two FFA projects were studied at Sivapuram and Mudkompan, and a further site Vidaltivu was studied that had FFA and FFT-type characteristics.

**Gender context.** A legacy of the conflict is that one in every five households in Sri Lanka is headed by a woman.<sup>104</sup> A third of women household heads are married,<sup>105</sup> but their husbands have disabilities or illnesses. Given that the wage rate for women in northern Sri Lanka is half that of men (US\$4 for women compared to US\$8 for men), women-headed households (WHH) are often poor. In Tamil society, it is culturally unacceptable for widows (or women whose men disappeared during the conflict) to remarry or re-partner. Widows who re-partner or have illegitimate children face severe social stigma.

Livelihoods and income are priorities for all women, not only women heads of households. The range of home-based livelihoods options for women are limited, such as poultry rearing, cow dairy, vegetable growing and micro-enterprises (palmyra weaving, food processing). Despite changes in the economic and demographic factors in recent years, livelihood opportunities for women remain constrained by gender norms. Employment in garment factories and government farms is available, but women feel that long working hours and lack of childcare mean that children cannot be cared for well. There is no gender education gap in Sri Lanka with full enrolment of boys and girls to secondary school.

Gender-based violence is a continuing challenge, with a nexus between high alcohol consumption among men, trauma and gender violence.

Government services supported survivors of gender violence,<sup>106</sup> however, a challenge is that many police officers are male and do not speak Tamil.

**Women's nutrition context.** Maternal nutrition is a continuing challenge with high levels of pregnant women found with low Mid Upper Arm Circumference below 23 cm (21% for Kilinochchi and 18.2% for Mannar Districts) and anaemia (27.5% in Kilinochchi and 26.2% in Mannar Districts).<sup>107</sup> Concurrently, adult overnutrition is a challenge in Sri Lanka nationally, with 32 percent of women being overweight or obese (BMI  $\geq$  25) and 18 percent of men overweight or obese.<sup>108</sup> 14.9 percent of non-pregnant women aged 18-59 were underweight, compared to 16.2 percent of men in the same age group.<sup>109</sup>

Dietary habits are the main contributor to adult malnutrition.<sup>110</sup> Anaemia is likely due to the limited consumption of iron-rich foods such as red meat and green leafy vegetables. The 2013-14 Cost of Diet analysis indicated that there was a lack of iron-rich foods in the market.<sup>111</sup> Religion and culture strongly influence diet in Sri Lanka through fasting and food taboos. Other potential causes of poor nutrition could be the poor coverage of safe drinking water in rural areas: 29.5 percent in Kilinochchi District and 48.3 percent in Mannar District.

A range of government services are available to address maternal and adult malnutrition, including a 2,000-rupee (US\$13.33) voucher for PLW to access nutritious foods (including pulses, dried fish, and eggs) through cooperative stores across the country, until six months after childbirth.

### 3.5.2 FFA description

**Implementing arrangements.** The FFA programme in Sri Lanka is implemented by the Government of Sri Lanka. WFP provides the transfer and a nominal 2.5 percent budget for non-food items. FFA projects were typically delivered as one-off projects over several months.

**3PA.** WFP processes of SLPs and CBPPs were not used in the communities visited. In lieu of the

<sup>102</sup> See the Market Development Facility [website](#).

<sup>103</sup> [Sri Lanka Joint Assessment of Drought Impact on Food Security and Livelihoods](#), 15 March 2017

<sup>104</sup> Fokus Women - Forum for Women and Development, Shadow Report to the United Nations Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women, 66<sup>th</sup> Session, February – March 2017, 8<sup>th</sup> Periodic Review of Sri Lanka, submitted on April 2016, p. 5

<sup>105</sup> Ministry of National Policies and Economic Affairs, [Public Investment Programme 2017-2020](#) p 123.

<sup>106</sup> Report on Domestic Violence in Jaffna District 2016; A sample survey with reported cases in 2014/2015, Women Development Officer Jaffna district, p. 6

<sup>107</sup> Medical Research Institute (2015). National Nutrition Survey amongst Pregnant and Lactating Women. Colombo, Sri Lanka

<sup>108</sup> Global Nutrition Report [2015 Nutrition country profile: Sri Lanka](#)

<sup>109</sup> Ministry of Health and UNICEF (2012). [National Nutrition and Micronutrition Survey 2012](#). p. 41

<sup>110</sup> Interviews with the Kilinochchi Regional Department of Health Services (RDHS) and UNICEF, March 2017.

<sup>111</sup> WFP 2015. [Minimum Cost of Nutritious Diet, Sri Lanka, October 2013-2014](#). p. 5

**Table 3.5.** Summary of FFA characteristics across the three sites in Sri Lanka

	Sivapuram	Mudkompan	Vidaltivu
<b>Timing of project</b>	2015	Nov 2016 to Jun 2017	Nov 2015 to Nov 2016
<b>WFP programmes</b>	1 month of unconditional transfer and 6 months FFA	6 months of FFA and FFT	Mangrove replanting and women's livelihoods
<b>Asset type</b>	Pond, roads, communal land clearance	Channels, tanks, salt water exclusion bunds	Mangroves
<b>Training provided by WFP or through project</b>	On-the-job training for FFA works	On-the-job training for FFA works	Mangroves, financial management and livelihoods 'awareness'
<b>Other actions</b>	Home garden training by Department of Agriculture	None	Formation of women's groups, revolving fund loans

CBPP, there were Village Development Plans at the community level. District and Divisional Development Plans, led by the district and divisional level governments, were used instead of the SLP. These planning processes appeared to be less comprehensive and consultative than SLP and CBPP processes, and it is unclear to what extent women and men of different socio-economic groups were involved in their development.

**FFA assets.** In the Northern Province, work focused on building or rehabilitating community assets for resettled communities. Assets studied were for peri-urban resettlement (pond, roads, communal land clearance), rural rehabilitation (channels, tanks, salt water exclusion bunds) and mangrove rehabilitation.

**Committees.** Instead of establishing FFA-specific community structures, the FFA programme used existing structures such as Rural Development Societies, Women's Rural Development Societies and

**Image 3.6.** A cleared drainage channel that feeds into a minor tank (a few kilometres away) in Mudkompan



Farmer Organisations. There are benefits in using existing community structures, such as ownership and maintenance of assets, and avoiding time-consuming duplication. A challenge in using existing

structures is that women and vulnerable groups may inadvertently be excluded

**FFA work.** Two thirds of the FFA workers were women. Work typically required five to six hours per day. In one community, it took two hours to walk to and from the work site. In one community, work norms for earthworks were moving 0.25 square metres per person, per day. Work norms were not formally adjusted for women and men, or other groups such as PLW, PWD or elderly. FGD participants spoke of how there are five categories of 'lesser abled': elderly, pregnant, lactating, disabled, and other 'war wounds'. Those identified as 'lesser abled' are given easier tasks. This is heavily reliant on the benevolence of community members, as well as their understanding of what constitutes risky practices. This may not be a realistic expectation. For example, in one community, it was reported that a lighter work activity for pregnant women could be lifting buckets of earth to another woman's head.

As there was no childcare provided at either site, children were typically cared for by their grandmother or neighbours.

**Technical training** to develop and maintain the assets was provided by government partners as on-the-job training. All the people who worked, majority women, were provided this training. Some FGD participants reported gaining new skills as a result of this on-the-job training.

**Transfer.** Cash transfers were usually paid about two months after completion of a month's work. Beneficiaries were paid according to the number of days worked, and were not paid for sick days. At the time of the study, the transfer rate for FFA is currently 330 rupees (US\$ 2.20) per day, was to be increased to 360 rupees, but is still far below market rates of 1,200 rupees per day for men and 600

rupees for women for day labour. The monthly transfer of 6,600 rupees for 20 days covers the cost for an energy-only diet for a family of five, which is 6,360 rupees.<sup>112</sup> It did not cover the cost of a nutritious diet, which is 12,721 rupees per month.<sup>113</sup> The transfer value meant that more women than men tended to work as the opportunity cost for men to undertake FFA work was much greater.

**Complementary actions.** Training was provided by the Department of Agriculture on home gardening in Sivapuram. In Vidataltivu, training was also provided on mangrove conservation, financial management, and livelihoods 'awareness'; women's groups and revolving fund loans were other provided in this community.

### 3.5.3 Sri Lanka WSEE findings

At the two FFA sites studied, Sivapuram and Mudkompan, there were several changes that occurred that potentially could have an empowering effect for women. These were:

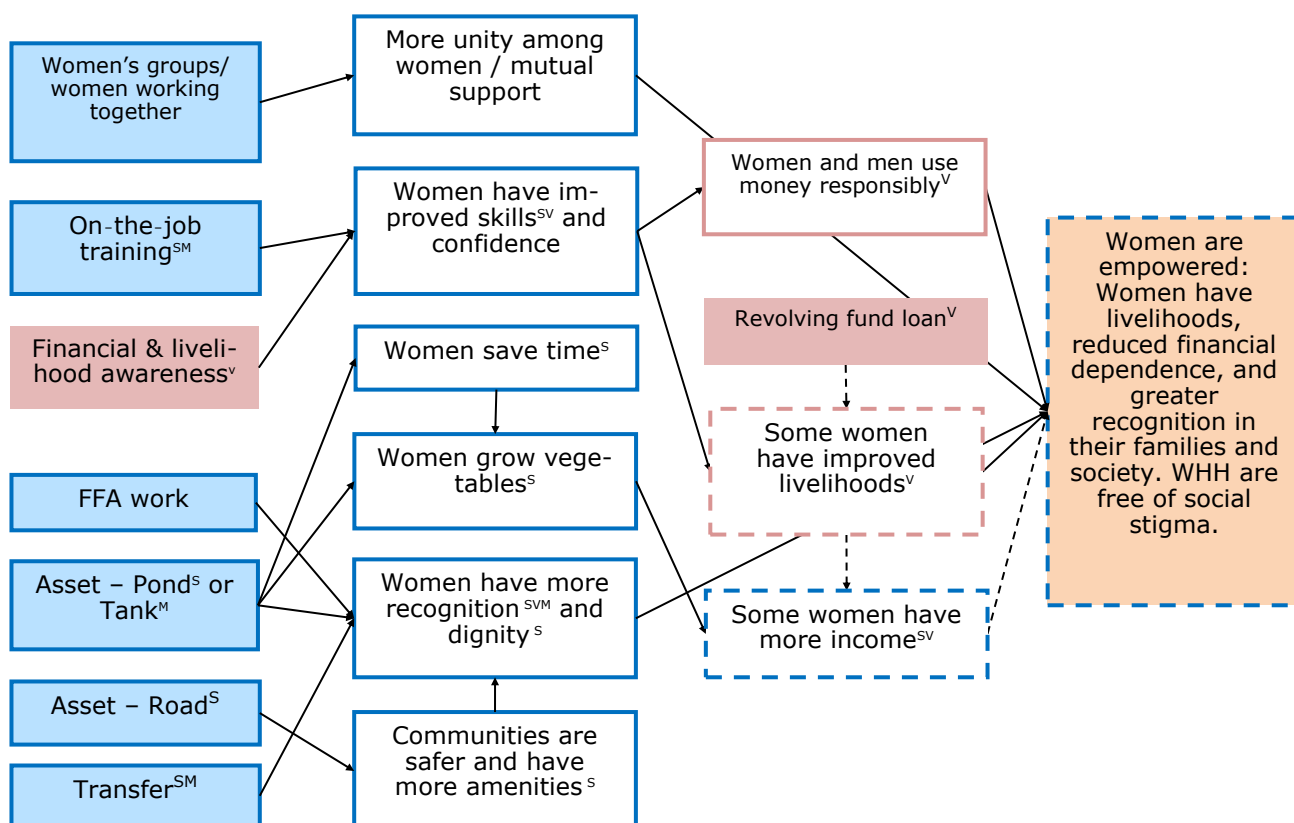
- women and men had greater social cohesion

and social capital;

- women had greater recognition [Sivapuram and Mudkompan] and dignity [Sivapuram only]; and
- women saved time [Sivapuram only].

The improved **social cohesion** and **social capital** was a result of community members working together toward common goals of resettlement or rehabilitation of community assets. For Sivapuram, a relatively small community of 31 households, the FFA work was the first community action taken since their return. It thus played a key role of community building. For Mudkompan, a large community of over 400 households, it brought people from various parts of the community together. It gave community members an opportunity to network, develop new friendships, and learn of each other's skills and strengths.

Women felt that they had **greater recognition** because of the FFA project. In Sivapuram, a woman was selected as a community president to coordinate FFA works. This was important for gender role-modelling in the nascent community. In Mudkompan, women said that this was the first



**Figure 3.9.** The overall reported WSEE outcomes their causal linkages. Dashed arrows indicate *potential* (not necessarily *experienced*) causal links. Dashed boxes indicate *potential* (not necessarily *experienced*) changes. Superscripts indicate community names: S=Sivapuram, M=Mudkompan, V=Vidataltivu

<sup>112</sup> WFP 2015. *Minimum Cost of Nutritious Diet, Sri Lanka, October 2013-2014.* p. 7

<sup>113</sup> *Ibid.* p. 5

time that women in the community received equal pay to men, albeit many more women worked than men.

In Sivapuram, women **saved time** – three hours a day – because of the assets of roads and a pond. This was because women no longer walked their children four kilometres each way twice a day, and women no longer had to collect water from a neighbouring village.

At the third site Vidaltivu, women reported being empowered as a result of project actions. The training on financial management and livelihoods awareness resulted in increased income and savings, which in turn reduced financial dependence on men and having more money to spend on children (including for tuition fees). Because of women’s groups, women increased their willingness and confidence in taking on community leadership roles and organising community initiatives.

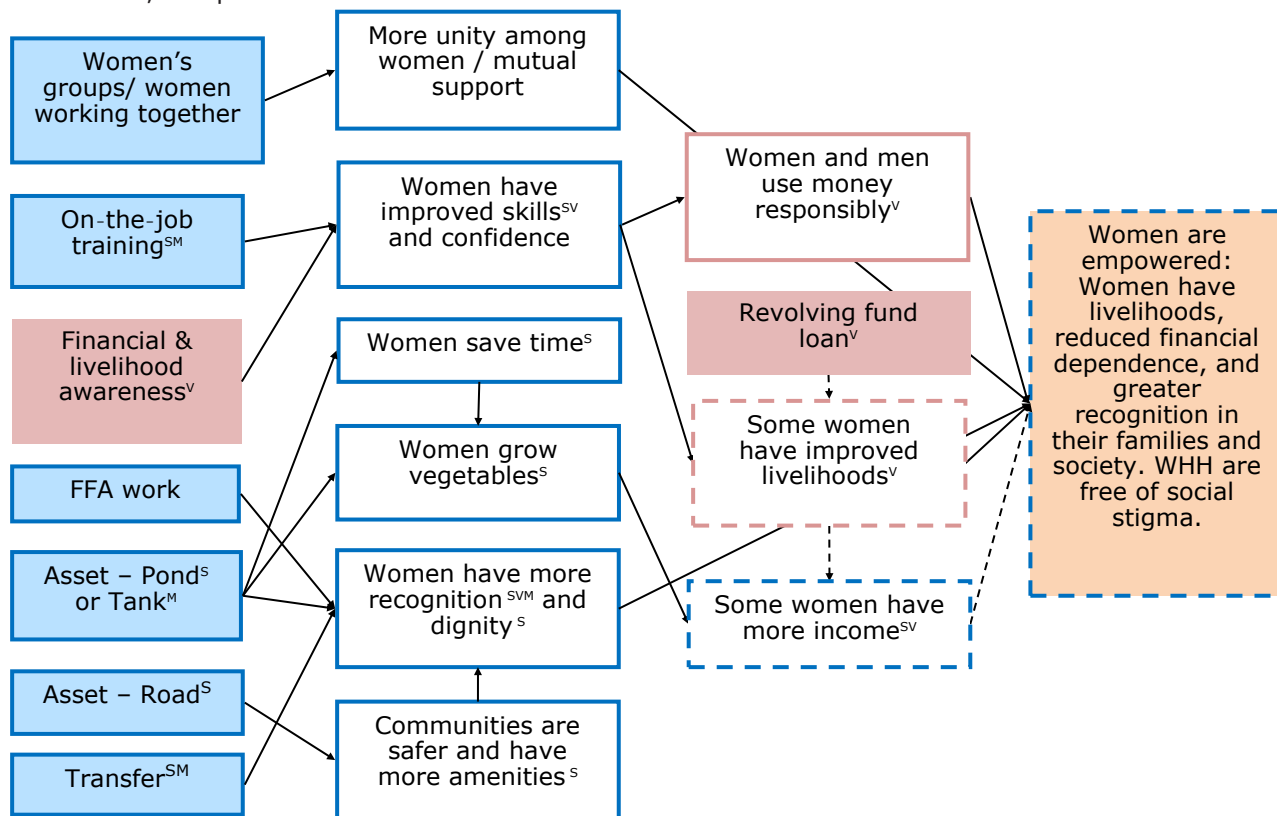
In this country case study, it was not possible to definitively determine the WSEE key success factors for FFA in Sri Lanka. There are, however, several key findings.

- **Livelihoods and income** are the highest priority for women household heads and married women alike. An income allows married women to be less financially dependent on their husbands, and protects women household

heads from negative coping mechanisms such as transactional sex. The main barrier to women earning an income was repeatedly identified as having appropriate care for their children.

- Women would like **greater recognition from families and society** for their efforts. Women repeatedly said that women’s pay does not reflect their efforts. In addition to remuneration, the redistribution of household tasks was important to women.
- **Women household heads** are particularly at risk. WHH, comprising a fifth of all households in the Northern Province, have poor income earning capacity. Widows are subjected to social stigma if they have a boyfriend or remarry. Given that many widows are young (a result of the long conflict), many are ostracised and are referred to as prostitutes.

There are several opportunities for FFA to be more empowering of women. Increasing the focus on women’s livelihoods and income, through providing a package of actions (e.g., assets, training, linkages) to support women’s livelihoods. Messaging could be provided around recognition of women’s work and household tasks. Women household heads need to be targeted in FFA work, and consideration should be given to their specific needs, particularly child care.



**Figure 3.10.** The overall WN outcomes and their causal linkages. Dashed arrows indicate *potential* (not necessarily *experienced*) causal links. Dashed boxes indicate *potential* (not necessarily *experienced*) changes. Superscripts indicate community names: S=Sivapuram, M=Mudkompan, V= Vidaltivu.



### 3.5.4 Sri Lanka WN findings

There were several changes relating to basic and underlying determinants that could potentially lead to improved nutrition. These were:

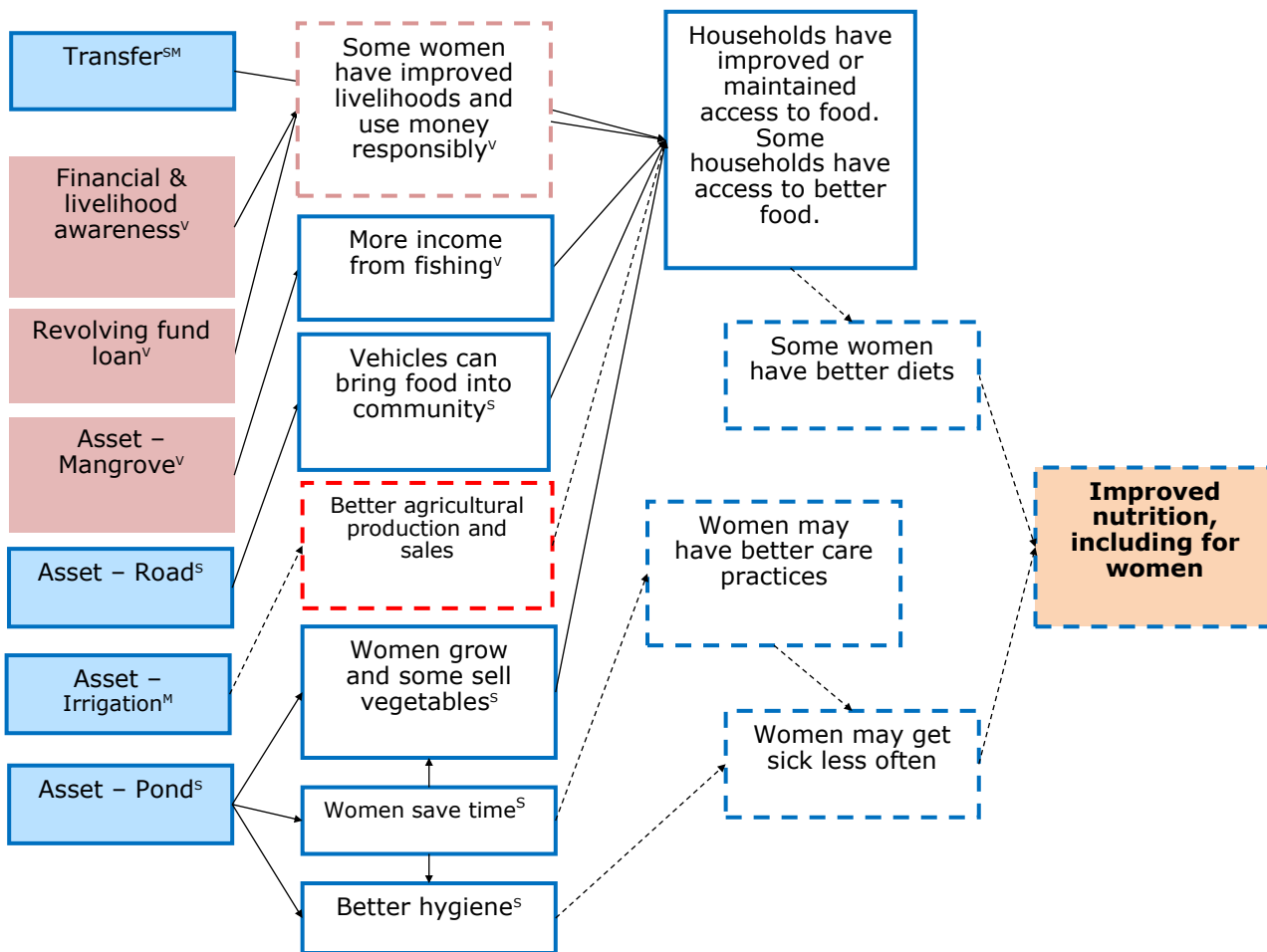
- better physical access to fresh food because of the roads [Sivapuram only];
- own production [Sivapuram only];
- maintain access to food and avoid debt despite the drought [Mudkompan only];
- consumption smoothing due to the transfer [Sivapuram and Mudkompan];
- better hygiene [Sivapuram only]; and
- saved time though not clear on time use [Sivapuram only].

These changes were site-specific. In Sivapuram, households reported better access to food through the production of vegetables from home gardens, and more fresh food in the local shops when there was road access. For some households, the home gardens reportedly produced sizeable quantities of vegetables – sufficient for own consumption, gifts

and sales. However, in a bad year like this year, yields were poor. There was better hygiene because of access to water, though within a year of pond rehabilitation, piped water was introduced to the community. Women saved up to three hours a day because of roads and pond. In theory, this could result in more time for better care practices, but we were not able to explore this in the FGD. During the project life, households used most of the transfer to purchase food. It is not clear if diets were improved or maintained. FGD participants also reported being able to purchase food on credit from local shops using their membership in FFA work as guarantee of repayment. This had an effect of smoothing consumption.

In **Mudkompan**, the reported nutrition outcomes related to the transfer. Households could maintain (though not improve) their diet and avoid accumulating debts despite the poor Maha harvest.

As with Sivapuram, households used membership in FFA work to get food on credit from local shops. FFA did have a negative effect on the health of FFA workers. Many reported fatigue and illness, resulting in some workers being absent for five days' work in the past month.



**Figure 3.10.** The overall WN outcomes and their causal linkages. Dashed arrows indicate *potential* (not necessarily *experienced*) causal links. Dashed boxes indicate *potential* (not necessarily *experienced*) changes. Superscripts indicate community names: S=Sivapuram, M=Mudkompan, V= Vidaltivu.

There were opportunities to improve the nutrition-sensitivity of the FFA program, including through a transfer that is adjusted to consider the minimum cost of a nutritious diet, improved nutrition messaging highlighting risks, a nutrition-sensitive FFA workplace including appropriate work norms and child care, and the selection of nutrition-sensitive assets. When selecting nutrition-sensitive assets in other countries, the focus tends to be on 'own production' pathways to improve diet.<sup>114</sup> Given that the agriculture practiced in Sri Lanka is not subsistence but commercial, consideration also needs to be given to the 'income' and 'food environment in markets' pathways.<sup>115</sup>

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<sup>114</sup> Which in the Northern Province was 12,721 rupees per month or 636 rupees per day for a 20-day work month for Yala season 2014. WFP 2015. [Minimum Cost of Nutritious Diet, Sri Lanka, October 2013-2014](#), p. 7

<sup>115</sup> See the [conceptual framework](#) on p. 8. WFP, 2017. Unlocking WFP's potential: Guidance for nutrition sensitive programming. Version 1.0, Interim

# 4 Findings

Across the five country case studies, common threads emerged, demonstrating how FFA and complementary actions can empower women and improve their nutrition. The country observations, as well as further input from the global workshop, are summarised in this section, addressing:

- ▶ **Changes and causal links:** The key WSEE and WN changes observed, and the causal links to FFA and complementary actions.
- ▶ **Key success factors:** Critical FFA programme actions, complementary actions or contextual factors that led to the WSEE and WN changes.
- ▶ **Challenges and mitigation measures:** Challenges that hampered the achievement of WSEE and WN outcomes, and the measures that can be put in place to prevent their occurrence.

## 4.1 Changes and causal links

In each country, women were asked to explain the changes – *positive and harmful, intended and unintended* – in their lives and the lives of their households, which occurred through engagement in the FFA programme. From their responses, common threads across the countries in relation to WSEE



**Image 4.1.** Changes reported by women in the women-only FGD in Shakadulo community in Kenya

and WN were identified.

This section describes the key WSEE and WN changes that were observed, and frames the changes into impact pathways. Seven WSEE and six WN changes are described, along with their actions and/or enabling factors and flow-on effects. Where possible, counterfactual examples are provided, to indicate that when conditions were not in place, the changes were not realised.

### 4.1.1 Women’s socioeconomic empowerment

Seven domains of change, from the **individual to household** to public spheres, were identified. At the individual level, women reported reductions in workload and hardship (WSEE Change 4); improved skills and confidence, and changed perspectives (WSEE Change 5); improved livelihoods, earning more income and reduced financial dependence (WSEE Change 6); and a better understanding of their rights (WSEE Change 7). At the household level, women reported improvements in intra-household dynamics, including women’s decision-making, women’s roles and workload, greater recognition and harmony (WSEE Change 3). In the public sphere, women reported better organisation among women, and experienced better social cohesion, mutual support and solidarity (WSEE Change 1). Women experienced better recognition and improvements in their roles and leadership in the public sphere (WSEE Change 2).

Most of these changes occurred due to several FFA or complementary actions, rather than one single action. The multiple actions acted to reinforce each other. There were strong interactive effects between and among actions and changes. For example, when women were better organised, it had benefits for other domains of change, such as their engagement in the public sphere and their livelihoods.

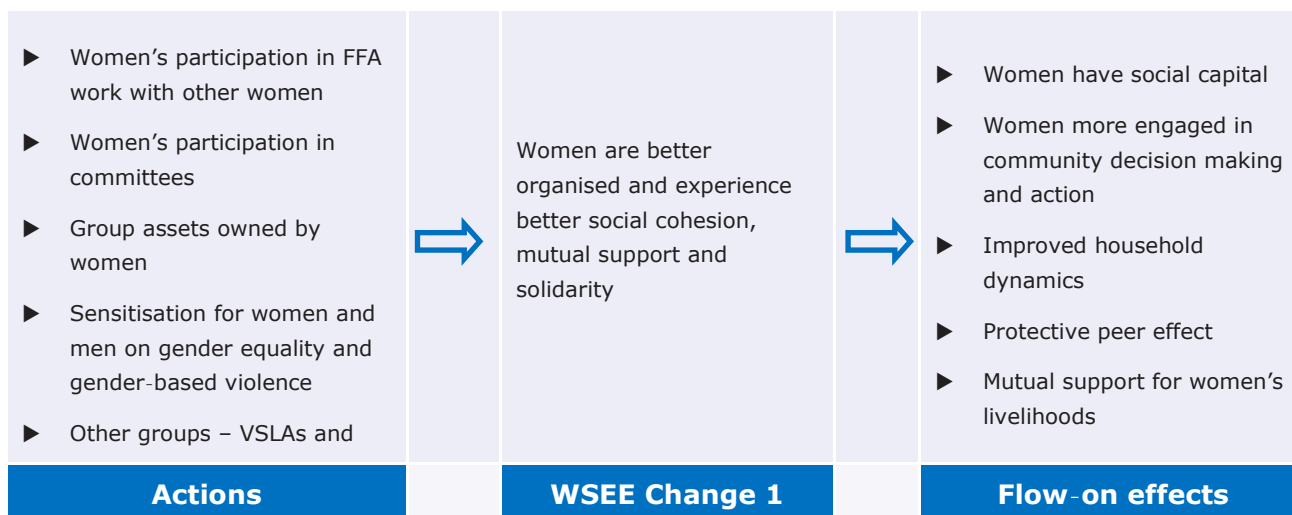
The extent to which each of these changes varied from country to country, and were influenced by FFA and complementary actions and contextual factors, are summarised in Table 4.1. It is important to note that many of the documented changes were also experienced by men. Women’s empowerment is not a zero-sum game. Where FFA programmes empowered women, they empowered men too.

**Table 4.1.** WSEE changes and the extent to which they were reported in each country case study.

WSEE Changes	Niger	Kenya	Zimba- bwe	Guate- mala	Sri Lanka
1. Women are better organised and experience better social cohesion, mutual support and solidarity		✓✓✓	✓✓✓	✓✓	✓✓
2. Improvements in the recognition of women, women’s roles and leadership in the public sphere		✓✓✓	✓✓✓	✓✓	✓
3. Improvements in intra-household dynamics	✓✓	✓	✓✓✓	✓✓	✓
4. Reduced women’s workload and hardship	✓✓✓	✓	✓✓✓		✓
5. Women have improved skills and confidence, and changed perspectives	✓	✓✓✓	✓✓✓	✓	✓
6. Women have improved livelihoods, earn more income, and reduced financial dependence		✓✓	✓✓	✓	✓
7. Women have a better understanding of their rights and can exercise them			✓✓	✓✓	

Note: No tick indicates that no change occurred; ✓ indicates that the change occurred to some extent (i.e., changes occurred for a small proportion of women participants, or limited change was experienced by most women); ✓✓ indicates that change occurred to a moderate extent (i.e., changes occurred for many but not all women, or moderate change was experienced by most women); ✓✓✓ indicates that change occurred to a significant extent (i.e., significant change occurred for most women).

**WSEE Change 1: Women are better organised and experience better social cohesion, mutual support and solidarity**

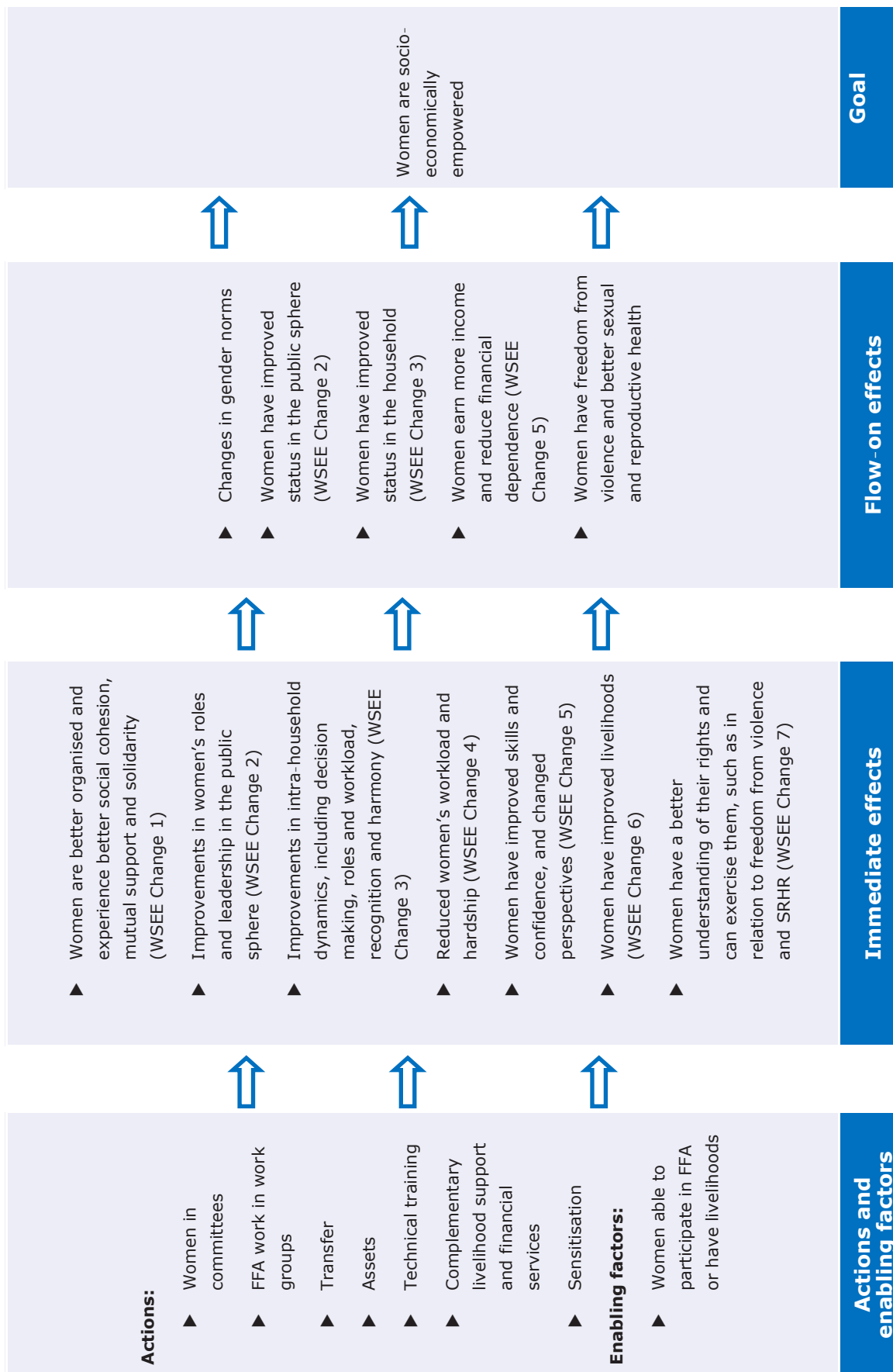


In four countries, FFA group work, committees and other activities provided women with an opportunity to meet other women and men in their communities. From this, new friendships were formed, and there was better social cohesion, mutual support, and social capital. This was not experienced exclusively by women, but also by men.

**Actions.** Social cohesion, mutual support and solidarity were experienced most strongly when

women worked alongside other women on FFA assets; whether they were community, group or household assets. When the FFA work was undertaken only within household work teams in Guatemala, women did not report these benefits. This was not reported as a change for women in the Niger case study, as women comprised less than five percent of the workers. It was, however, reported by men in the Niger case study. Building a community asset brought community members





**Figure 4.1.** Overall WSEE impact pathway for FFA and complementary actions. Given the multiple interactions between and among factors and effects, detailed arrows are not drawn in.

together for a common purpose, and was a source of pride and fostered cohesion; as was seen, for example in the ponds in Niger, and weirs and dip tanks in Zimbabwe. Social cohesion could, however, be developed around household assets too. For example, in Kenya, women and men took turns to build SWC structures on each other's land.

When there were group assets or group 'businesses' in Guatemala and Zimbabwe, women reported durable friendships and mutual support groups that lasted beyond the life of the FFA programme. Complementary actions that brought women together, such as women's groups, savings and loan groups<sup>116</sup>, and sport or drama groups, further strengthened social cohesion; as seen in Sri Lanka, Kenya and Zimbabwe. In countries where many women need to seek permission from men to meet, as applies in Guatemala and Sri Lanka, these women's groups give women a valid reason to meet with others beyond the programme life.

Changes in women's social cohesion, mutual support and solidarity were important for many reasons. They helped overcome women's isolation. In rural communities and when women have limited mobility,<sup>117</sup> women's interactions tend to be limited to relatives and immediate neighbours. In FGDs in Guatemala and Zimbabwe, women spoke warmly and animatedly of their new friendships, and how it transformed their lives. In Zimbabwe, elderly women spoke of how it helped them meet younger women, who now sought their advice. The changes

built social capital and, in times of difficulty, such as the, illness or death of family member), women (and men) supported each other.

The new friendships did not seem to negatively impact on household dynamics in Zimbabwe and Guatemala. Rather, women in Zimbabwe said the friendships helped family dynamics as women had more diverse lives and therefore would get less 'cranky' with their husbands. In the Zimbabwe and Guatemala FFA programmes, sensitisation had been provided on gender-based violence (GBV) and women's rights. This could have had a protective effect when accompanying such change.

**Flow-on effects.** The new social networks were important in driving community-level social change. In Sri Lanka and Guatemala, the women's groups resulted in women being more engaged in community decision making and action. The social networks also had a protective peer effect in Guatemala: empowered women can stand up for the rights of all women in the community and find collective opportunities to build women's self-reliance, and make their life safer and more dignified. For example, a female community president lobbied to have transport provided for women to go to the nearest hospital to get pap smears. This resulted in early intervention of cervical cancer for three women. The same president also invited the police to give a talk in the community about domestic violence.

The change had an interactive effect with women's

**WSEE Change 2: Improvement in the recognition of women, women's roles and leadership in the public sphere**



<sup>116</sup> The design of the savings and loan groups is important. In Niger, NGOs and communities reported apprehension with setting up savings and loan groups as some caused disharmony within communities when members defaulted. In Kenya and Zimbabwe, the merry-go-round (also called tontine in West Africa) appeared to be a low-risk savings group.

<sup>117</sup> In Sri Lanka and Guatemala, many women had limited mobility because they had to ask permission from their husbands to go out of their homes or to attend events.

livelihoods. In one community in Sri Lanka, the women's groups provided a ready market for women's produce, such as chickens, eggs and vegetables. In Guatemala, the social networks allowed women to come together to innovate and think of new business opportunities. Women had transformed a disused compost pit into a tilapia pond as a group business. The mutual support provided for livelihoods appeared to be through establishing a market or linkages, exchanging ideas or brainstorming, and/or encouragement.

The importance of women's collective and representative organisation has been well documented.<sup>118</sup> The UN High Level Panel on Women's Economic Empowerment identifies 'Enhancing women's voices: Strengthening visibility, collective voice and representation' as one of the seven principles for a transformative agenda.

Closely linked with the previous change, are the changes in recognition of women, women's roles and leadership in the community or public sphere. In this cluster of changes, women described the shifting perceptions in the community or sometimes more broadly in the public sphere. Women described how they had greater recognition in their communities, how their roles changed, and how women had moved into leadership positions.

**Recognition.** In many of the communities visited, women had previously only worked in the household sphere undertaking unpaid care and domestic work, or in subsistence agriculture where their contributions are neither paid nor recognised. FFA was the first time that many women had paid work. In Kenya, women and men talked about how this was the first time that women's work was recognised; and how their views of women and their capabilities changed. In Sri Lanka where women typically earn half of what men earn, women said that the FFA programme was the first time that women were paid the same as men.

**Roles.** While most of the FFA work involved women undertaking tasks that they normally do, such as land preparation and earthworks, some women took on new roles. For example, in Kenya the women committee members delivered training on how to construct the SWC structures. Some women, having become expert at developing zai pits, were employed by others in the community to show them how to construct zai pits. In Zimbabwe, the gender roles in construction had been along

traditional lines, with women hauling water, sand and aggregate, while men did stone masonry, broke rocks and dug. When the Cooperating Partner introduced female builder trainers to train the men, this changed perceptions of what roles women can have, particularly in a context where there is high male migration and 40 percent of households are headed by women. Following this, women started to request to be trained in construction.

Sensitisation played an important role in the Zimbabwe case study in changing women's roles. Sensitisation was conducted on gender, sexual exploitation, communication and conflict resolution. One man reported that it was the first time he had worked alongside women, and that now he is able to regard them as colleagues and not just seeing them as sex objects. Sensitisation also changed roles within the household sphere (documented under WSEE Change 3).

FFA and complementary actions alone were not responsible for these changes. In many of the communities studied, contextual factors played a significant role. In Niger,<sup>119</sup> Kenya, Zimbabwe and Guatemala, men had increasingly migrated for work, leaving women to take care of the farms and their families. Globally, this has been a trend: the feminisation of agriculture as countries develop (see Box 4.1).

**Leadership.** In many communities, membership in committees was the first time that women had leadership roles. In Guatemala, women-only committees were formed as, by the men's own admission, men would take over mixed committees. Committees acted as safe spaces for women to acquire and practice leadership skills. In Zimbabwe, committees of seven were formed, each with four women and three men, giving women the majority vote. Committee members were trained in the technical aspects of their roles, as well as such 'soft' skills as communication, leadership, people management and conflict resolution. The training provided committee members with the skills and confidence to do their jobs well. The training was especially important for women assuming committee positions, as it was often the first time they were taking on leadership roles in their communities.

Other FFA and complementary actions that supported women's leadership included sensitisation for women and men on women's rights and gender-

<sup>118</sup> UN 2016. [Leave No One Behind – A Call to Action for Gender Equality and Women's Economic Empowerment](#). Report of the UN Secretary General's High-Level Panel on WEE. p. 99

<sup>119</sup> n Niger, migration had reduced because of the FFA transfer.

## Box 4.1. What is the feminisation of agriculture?

As countries develop, the proportion of the workforce in the agriculture sector declines. In developing countries, the decline of the agriculture workforce is deeply gendered. Men migrate first, for longer periods and to further destinations to seek off-farm employment. Because they face fewer mobility and time constraints than women, men are more likely to abandon agricultural work at home and seek waged employment on large farms, or income-generating activities in other sectors.

This results in the "feminisation" of agriculture.<sup>120</sup> That is, the increased importance of women's role in agriculture, whether as measured by the ratio between women and men in this sector or whether it is reflected in the high proportion of women whose main employment is in agriculture. Feminisation does not necessarily mean that women benefit. Agricultural work may become a serious burden for women who also have significant unpaid labour responsibilities, such as the care of children, cooking and cleaning.

based violence; women's long-term control of assets (as asset owners and as committee members in asset management committee); and women being able to participate in FFA activities, such as committee meetings, through for example provision of child care and permission from families.

**Flow-on effects.** The changes in recognition, roles and leadership had several flow-on effects. In both Guatemala and Sri Lanka, women became more engaged in community decision making and action. For instance, the women-only FFA committees started to participate in COCODE (community council) meetings in two communities in Guatemala. There was a strong interactive effect between WSEE Change 2 and changes in intra-household dynamics (WSEE Change 3).

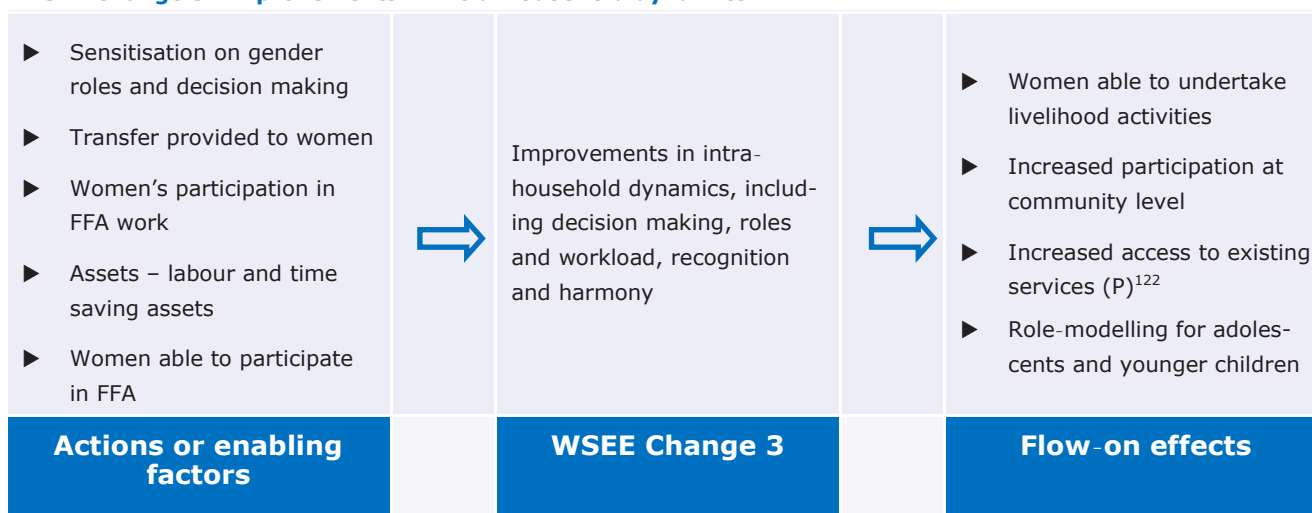
A further flow-on effect was change in gender

norms, such as the types of roles women can occupy in society and the economy, and the value ascribed to women's work.<sup>121</sup> In Kenya and Guatemala, women said that it was important for changes in gender norms and women leaders for future generations of women, as women leaders are necessary role models for adolescent girls (and boys).

Across many communities, women described how participation in FFA programmes had led to changed intra-household dynamics, including decision making, roles and workload, recognition and harmony.

**Decision making.** The study examined decision making over the FFA transfers – both food and cash. Decisions on food were typically made by women. Most FGD participants reported joint

### WSEE Change 3: Improvements in intra-household dynamics



<sup>120</sup> De Schutter, Olivier, 2013. The agrarian transition and the 'feminization of agriculture' in Food Sovereignty: A Critical Dialogue, International Conference, The Journal of Peasant Studies, Yale University, Conference Paper.

<sup>121</sup> For more information, see Klein, Elise, January 2017. [Norms and Women's Economic Empowerment](#). Background paper to UN High-Level Panel on WEE.

<sup>122</sup> (P) indicates that that these are *potential* flow-on effects, as indicated during the global workshop, but not *experienced* flow-on effects.



decision making (between women and men) on the use of cash transfers.<sup>123</sup> Joint decision making was encouraged by several factors: (a) providing sensitisation about what the transfer is for, like food and necessary household expenditures, and that decision making should be joint; (b) transferring to the women; and (c) women's participation in the FFA work. Although FFA work is not intended to be employment, the issue of who worked in the household determined control over the income. For instance, in Kenya, women regarded the transfer as their salary for work, and so exercised greater control over the transfer compared to if men had worked.

**Roles and workload.** The FFA programme led to changes in women's roles and workload in the household sphere. The transfer and assets (ponds, weirs, dip tanks, roads etc.) decreased women's workload significantly in some communities. This allowed women to pursue other livelihood opportunities.

Aside from lessening women's workload, there was a recognition and redistribution of the unpaid care and domestic work in some communities. In Zimbabwe, due to messaging on the importance on shared workload, unpaid household tasks were shared. When women worked for FFA, men would cook or launder clothes. In Sri Lanka, household tasks were similarly shared, even without messaging on this issue. In one community, men reported cooking dinner when wives worked in appreciation for their participation in FFA work.

In Zimbabwe, where it is regarded as unseemly for men to carry water on their heads, the FFA assets (wash basin and watering troughs) meant that men could take on some of these roles with, for example, men watering the vegetable garden beds, while women weed or plant.

**Recognition and harmony.** Women reported increasing recognition within their households, from husbands and other household members because of their FFA work. In Sri Lanka, men said that they were grateful for their wives' contributions in rehabilitating irrigation infrastructure. Men across many communities acknowledged that their wives had improved skills, increased income and a more pro-active outlook as a result of engagement in the FFA programme.



**Image 4.2.** A young father washing clothes in Tsvimborume, Zimbabwe

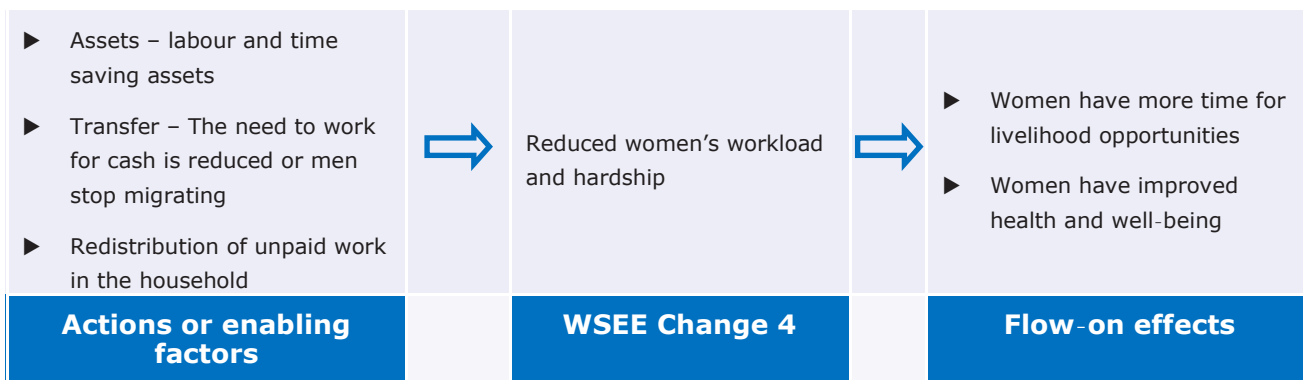
Improved harmony was reported in many communities. When households are food insecure and stressed, this tends to increase conflict, including over the use of cash. The FFA programme brought respite to many households. In Niger and one community in Guatemala, men in the communities stopped migrating for work because of the transfer. This improved household harmony as households did not have to be apart for months at a time.

**Flow-on effects.** Intra-household dynamics have many implications on women's empowerment. Household dynamics relating to women's mobility and responsibilities can determine if women are able to take on or expand livelihood activities. Changes in intra-household dynamics can potentially lead to increased participation in community activities and women accessing more services, such as health services. Changes in household dynamics also have a role-modelling effect on adolescents and younger children.

In several countries, reduced women's workload and hardship was reported as a significant change. Through this study, workload was defined as the amount of work that was undertaken by a person, typically measured by the time it takes to complete a task. Hardship was defined as toil and difficulty associated with physical labour and managing multiple roles. In Niger, for example, hardship was

<sup>123</sup> It was difficult in the context of the study to fully explore 'joint decision making'. Joint decision making may not be equal decision-making power. In Kenya, some men said that decision making was joint, but that they had veto over expenditures. Joint decision making could also mean that men gives a proportion of the transfer to women to use on defined parameters such as food and school fees. Given this, a percentage of households reporting 'joint decision making' is not necessarily a clear indicator of women's empowerment.

**WSEE Change 4: Reduced women’s workload and hardship**



associated with fatigue and ill health. The distinction between workload and hardship was made when women said that some work was ‘hard’, while other tasks may not have been ‘hard’, but nonetheless ‘took time’.

**Actions or enabling factors.** In Sri Lanka and Zimbabwe, reduction in workload and hardship derived from the assets created. Roads and a pond in a community in Sri Lanka meant that women saved up to three hours a day from travel and collecting water. Similarly, women in one community in Zimbabwe had spent a minimum of 2.5 hours walking to collect water. With the construction of a weir, this was reduced to less than half an hour. Men saved time too, as they had to water livestock. Smaller assets, such as watering troughs and laundry wash basins, make daily chores less time-consuming and effortful. The cattle dip tank, which was being constructed during the time of the Zimbabwe study, was anticipated to save over 12 hours’ travel on a weekly or fortnightly basis. In Kenya, the vegetable gardens saved time. Previously, women had collected wild plants to eat as vegetables, that they no longer had to gather. Across other FFA projects that were not included in this study, other assets such as woodlots and fuel-saving stoves, have been documented as reducing women’s workload.

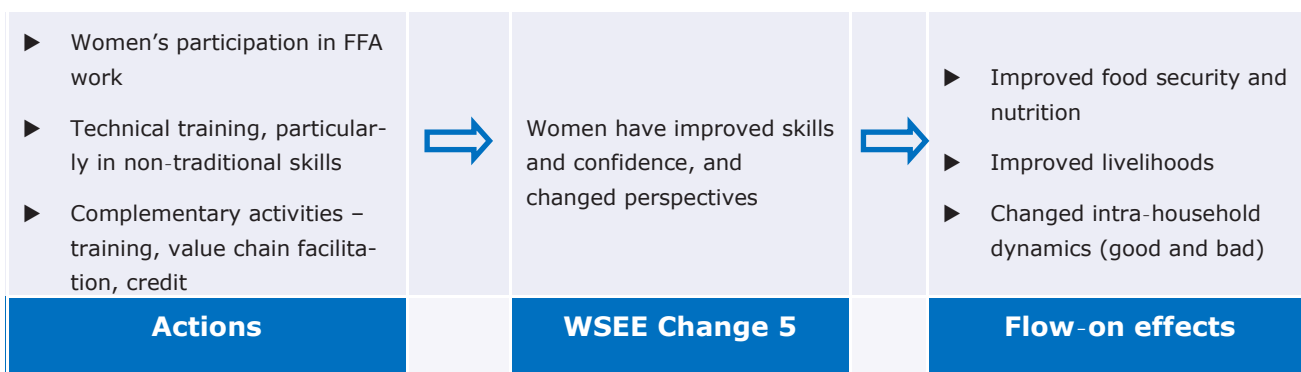
The transfers also worked to reduce women’s workload and hardship. Across many communities, having a transfer meant that women and men

would need to take on less labouring low-paid work, often outside their communities. In Niger, women had to work less for wealthier women in the community to pound grain. In both Niger and Guatemala, men stopped or reduced their migration for work. When they had migrated, women often took on their work on their household farms. Reductions in migration in turn reduced women’s workloads.

In a few communities, the redistribution of unpaid work in the households, such as child minding, cooking and cleaning, reduced women’s workload.

**Flow-on effects.** Reducing women’s workload and hardship is important in its own right; women are often overburdened with multiple responsibilities leading to fatigue, ill-health and restricting access to opportunities available to men. In this study, women said that a reduced workload freed up time and gave them an opportunity to pursue livelihood opportunities. In Zimbabwe, the weir freed up time otherwise spent on collecting water. With the extra time, as well as access to water, women grew vegetables and made bricks to sell. In Niger, women spent more time on income generating activities, such as food processing; however, they felt that the livelihood opportunities were limited by lack of a market and poor access to credit. While having a manageable workload encourages livelihoods, it is clearly not the sole requirement.

**WSEE Change 5. Women have improved skills and confidence, and changed perspectives**



Women also reported better health and wellbeing from the reduced workload and hardship. This was particularly the case in very food insecure communities where there is often a calorie per capita deficit which can have ramifications on women if they are not prioritised for food.

In some of the communities, women reported improved skills and confidence, and changed perspectives. For example, in Sri Lanka, women reported new business and financial management skills from training that was provided. This allowed them to make their income generating activities, such as those relating to poultry rearing, tailoring and net mending, more profitable. Their increased income was a great source of pride and confidence. Similarly, in Kenya, women spoke of their new skills in agriculture, particularly in vegetable growing and constructing SWC structures, as a significant change in their lives. With their new skills, some women had trebled their previous yields of maize. One woman was engaged as a consultant by her neighbour on the construction of zai pits. Across many communities, women and men spoke of the skills gained from the FFA project as the most significant change. As a man in Niger said: "What we have learned now, we cannot unlearn. This will last beyond the FFA programme".

In Zimbabwe, where the training and sensitisation sessions formed 10 percent of FFA work time, women and men gained new skills and information in a short period of time, being the six-month project duration. As a significant amount of the sessions were delivered by government partners, including agricultural extension workers, veterinarians and health workers, this helped to forget linkages with government services. Women and men described this as being important: "Now

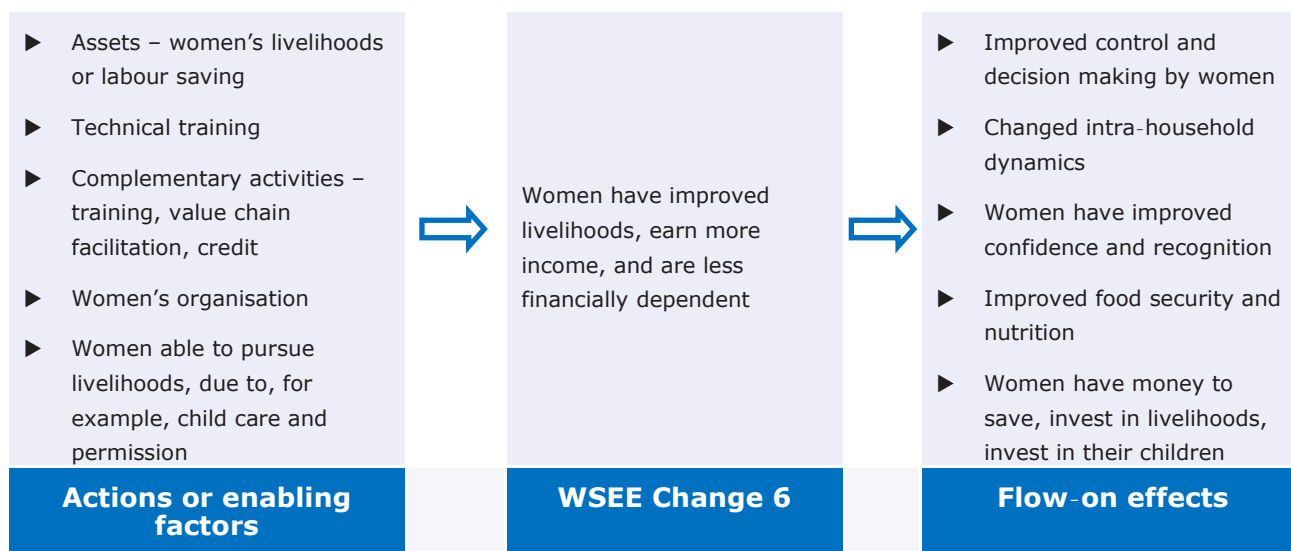
we know our Agritex Officer and our Veterinary Officer, we can go to them with questions after the project is over".

FFA had led to women (and men) changing their perspectives on their roles and the world. At times, this was intentional through sensitisation or training. For example, in Guatemala, training on women's rights and domestic violence helped women to name their challenges and access services if necessary. Some other changes were unintentional. For example, in Kenya, the shift of transfer modality from food to cash meant that women were required to have an identity card and a bank account. Many women travelled to the nearest town, Malindi, an hour's drive away, for the first time in their lives. They described how this changed their view of the world. After they had identity cards, politicians came to their community to campaign for their vote, whereas they had previously been unregistered and invisible. Another example is from Zimbabwe. When women builder trainers (from another community) trained men FFA participants on stone masonry and plastering, women FFA participants realised that women too could be builders. Following this, they too requested training from the Cooperating Partner.

**Flow-on effects.** When women had improved agricultural skills, they were able to improve their food security and nutrition by increasing their yields, growing vegetables, and rearing poultry. With improved skills, women were also able to take on new livelihoods or improve the profitability of their livelihoods. Men in some communities reported how it had changed their intra-household dynamics for the better, as they were able to discuss challenges with their wives as peers.

Across all countries, livelihoods and income were

### WSEE Change 6: Women have improved livelihoods, earn an income, and less financial dependence



**WSEE Change 7: Women have better understanding of their rights and can exercise them, such as in relation to freedom from violence and sexual and reproductive health and rights (SRHR)**



high priorities for women. It was particularly important for women household heads, who are usually solely responsible for providing for their families. Examples of viable livelihoods that came about because of FFA included growing chillies for a chilli exporter (Kenya); small-scale vegetable growing for local sale (Kenya and Zimbabwe); brick making (Zimbabwe); and small-scale tilapia farming (Guatemala).

**Actions or enabling factors.** Improvements in livelihoods and income were seen in FFA projects where deliberate action had been taken to support women's livelihoods. Examples of such actions included (a) building assets that support women's livelihoods, such as woodlots, vegetable gardens, water reservoirs, and dip tanks, and (b) providing technical training, (e.g. agriculture, food preservation). A range of complementary actions supported women's livelihoods: training, value chain facilitation, and access to credit. For example, in Kenya, the country-level coordination unit had brokered a relationship between farmer groups (including an FFA-initiated group) and a large commercial chilli exporter. The exporter purchased all the chillies that the group produced. In Zimbabwe, the fee (US\$1 per month) paid to maintain the irrigated vegetable garden was used as a loan facility when repairs and maintenance were not needed. Women could take out loans to support their livelihoods.

As mentioned for WSEE Change 1, women's organisation had an interactive effect with women's livelihoods. When women came together, they exchanged ideas, innovated and encouraged each other. When they had different livelihoods, as in Sri Lanka, they purchased each other's products and

services.

Two preconditions that needed to be in place for women to pursue livelihoods were (a) access to child care and (b) having the permission, typically from their husbands.

**Flow-on effects.** The first effect of women having incomes is that women reduced their financial dependence. This was felt to be important for women's autonomy, decision making and dignity. In most of the communities studied, women had control and sole decision-making power over income derived from her own livelihood activities. In Zimbabwe, women said that it changed the household dynamics when men had to come to them for money – a reversal of the previous dynamic. In Sri Lanka, men in a fishing community said that they valued their wives' livelihood activities and income, as men's income from fishing is unreliable. During low fishing seasons, households would be more reliant on the women's income.

When women improved their livelihoods, there were improvements in food security (and sometimes nutrition) of their households. Women often had some money to save, invest in their livelihoods (particularly livestock), and invest in their children, such as by paying school fees.

**Sensitisation.** In two countries, Guatemala and Zimbabwe, and as part of FFA activities, sensitisation was provided on gender equality, women's rights, GBV and SRHR.<sup>125</sup> Women (and men) were also told how to access assistance if needed. This resulted in women having a better awareness of their rights. In Guatemala, women were able to name different types of violence

<sup>124</sup> (P) indicates that these are *potential* flow-on effects as indicated by beneficiary women, but not *experienced* flow-on effects.

<sup>125</sup> The sexual and reproductive health and rights (SRHR) sensitisation addressed, for example, family planning, birth spacing and cervical cancer.



(physical, sexual, psychological), and how to report incidents to police. Knowing rights with regards to GBV appeared to have a protective effect. For example, women in Guatemala reported that “men in our community are machistas, but now we know our rights”.

**Assets.** There were also assets that reduced the risk of violence. Newly-constructed roads (Sri Lanka) and a cattle dip tank (Zimbabwe) meant that women did not need to travel through unsafe areas on a regular basis. In FFA projects not addressed in this study, other types of assets, such as woodlots and water sources, have been reported as having protective effects, as women’s exposure to risks related to travel are similarly reduced.

In some communities, women (and men) reported reduced incidence of GBV and better health and wellbeing. In Zimbabwe, men reported that they stopped inflicting violence on their wives. One man said that previously he would have slapped his wife if they had a fight about money (after he had spent it on beer), but now he would accept that he was at fault. The sensitisation in Zimbabwe appeared to have the effect of shifting social norms of acceptable behaviour; along with women’s organisation and mutual support.

Women felt it was important for adolescent girls to know their rights; and for men and adolescent boys

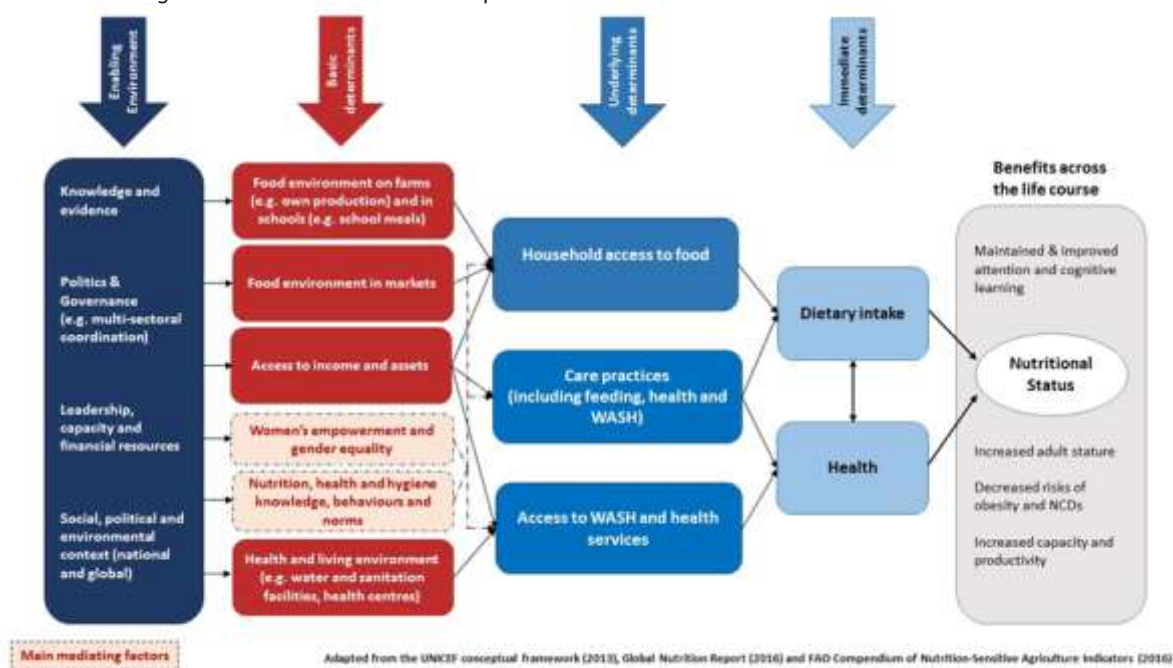
to know about rights too. Early pregnancy and/or marriage was a significant challenge (and rights violation) in Kenya, Zimbabwe and Guatemala, often leading to cycles of poverty. When women know of their rights, they can potentially communicate them to their daughters thereby mitigating the risk of early pregnancy and marriage.

#### 4.1.2 Improving women’s nutrition

As this study did not conduct any quantitative studies, no anthropometric data, such as maternal middle upper arm circumference or body mass index, or other nutritional indicators, like minimum dietary diversity for women (MDD-W), were collected. Instead, this study focused on beneficiaries’ perceptions of changes in immediate, underlying and basic determinants. Beneficiaries reported changes in:

1. women’s empowerment and gender equality, and its implications (basic determinant);
2. better diets (immediate determinant);
3. improved resilience/households cope better in bad seasons (underlying determinant);
4. better care practices, including feeding, health and WASH (underlying determinant);
5. better living and health environment in communities (basic determinant); and
6. better (physical, economic) access to health services (underlying determinant).

**Figure 4.2.** A conceptual framework for nutrition, including immediate, underlying and basic determinants and the enabling environment for nutrition improvements<sup>126</sup>



<sup>126</sup> From p. 8. WFP, 2017. Unlocking WFP’s potential: Guidance for nutrition-sensitive programming. March 2017. Version 1.0, Interim.

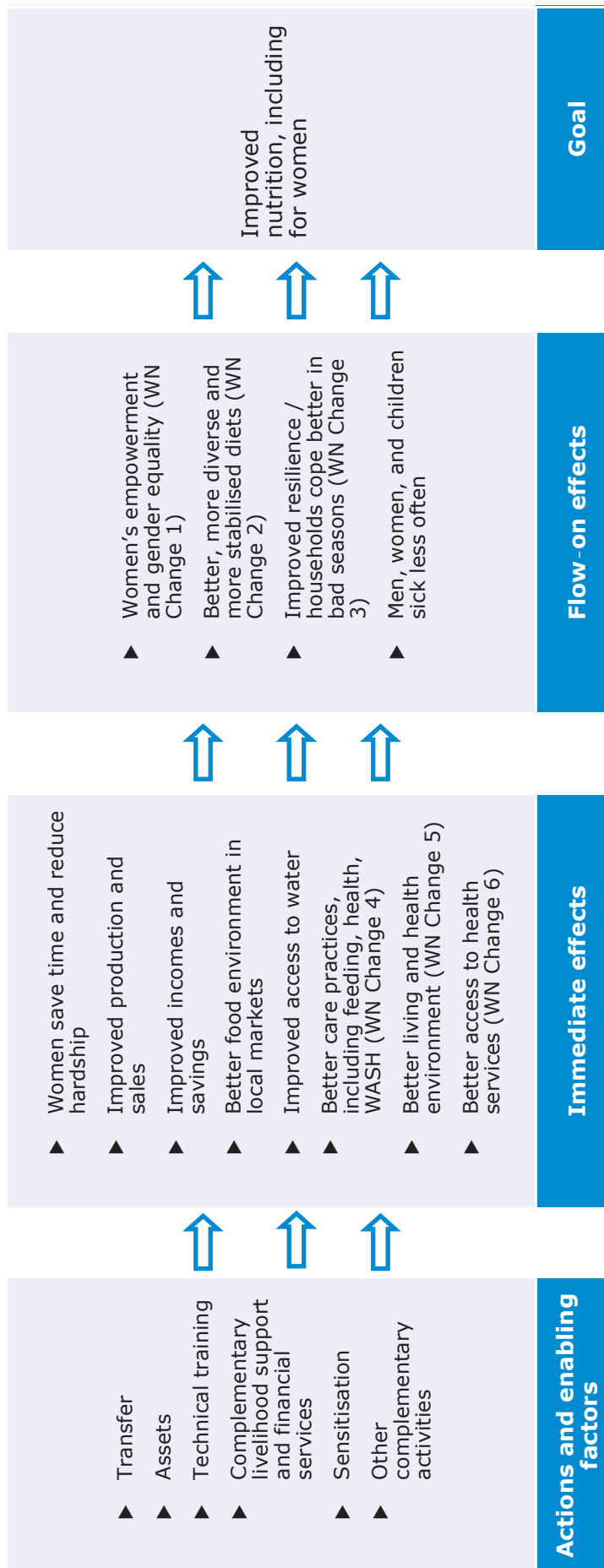
As with the changes in WSEE, most of the WN changes occurred as a result of several FFA or complementary actions, and not one single action. Changes often required multiple actions working in concert. For example, to grow nutritious vegetables, women and men needed assets (garden and water), training, and sensitisation. The following sub-sections provide detailed description of how each change came about and their interactions.

The extent to which each of these changes varied from country to country (see Table 4.2), and were influenced by FFA and complementary actions and contextual factors.

WN Changes	Niger	Kenya	Zimbabwe	Guatemala	Sri Lanka
1. Women's empowerment and gender equality, and its implications		✓✓	✓✓✓	✓	
2. Better diets	✓✓✓	✓✓	✓✓✓	✓✓	✓✓
3. Improved resilience/ Households cope better in bad seasons	N/A <sup>127</sup>	✓✓	✓✓✓	✓	✓✓
4. Better care practices (including feeding, health and WASH)	✓✓✓		✓✓✓	✓	
5. Better living and health environment in communities (e.g. water and sanitation infrastructure)	✓✓	✓✓	✓✓✓	✓	✓
6. Better (physical, economic) access to health services	✓	✓	✓	✓	

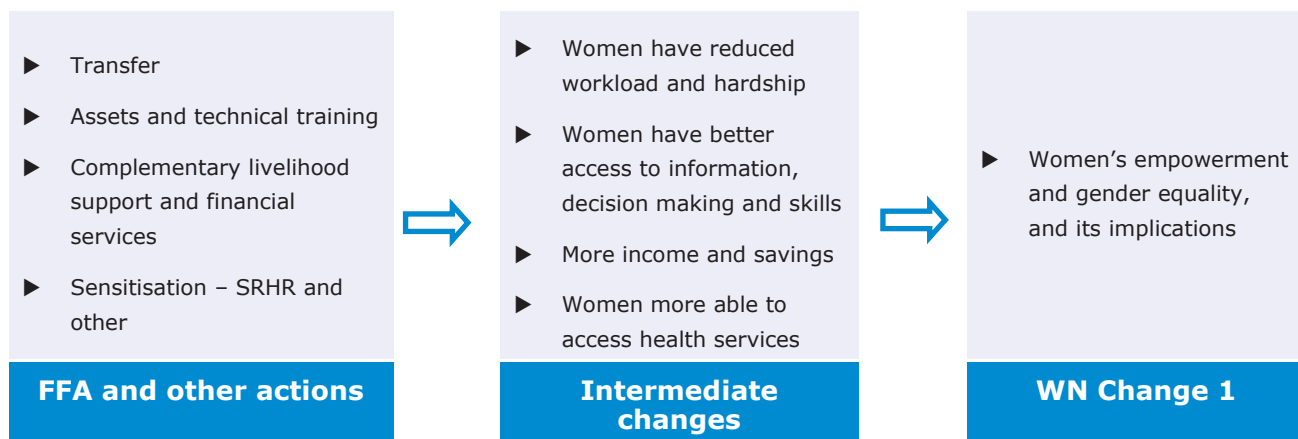
Note: No tick indicates that no change occurred; ✓ indicates that the change occurred to some extent (i.e., changes occurred for a small proportion of women participants, or limited change was experienced by most women); ✓✓ indicates that change occurred to a moderate extent (i.e., changes occurred for many but not all women, or moderate change was experienced by most women); ✓✓✓ indicates that change occurred to a significant extent (i.e., significant change occurred for most women).

<sup>127</sup> This could not be determined as there had not been a bad year since the start of the FFA programme.



**Figure 4.3.** Overall WN impact pathway for FFA and complementary actions. Given the multiple interactions between and among factors and effects, detailed arrows are not drawn in.

### WN Change 1: Women’s empowerment and gender equality, and its implications



### WN Change 1: Women’s empowerment and gender equality, and its implications

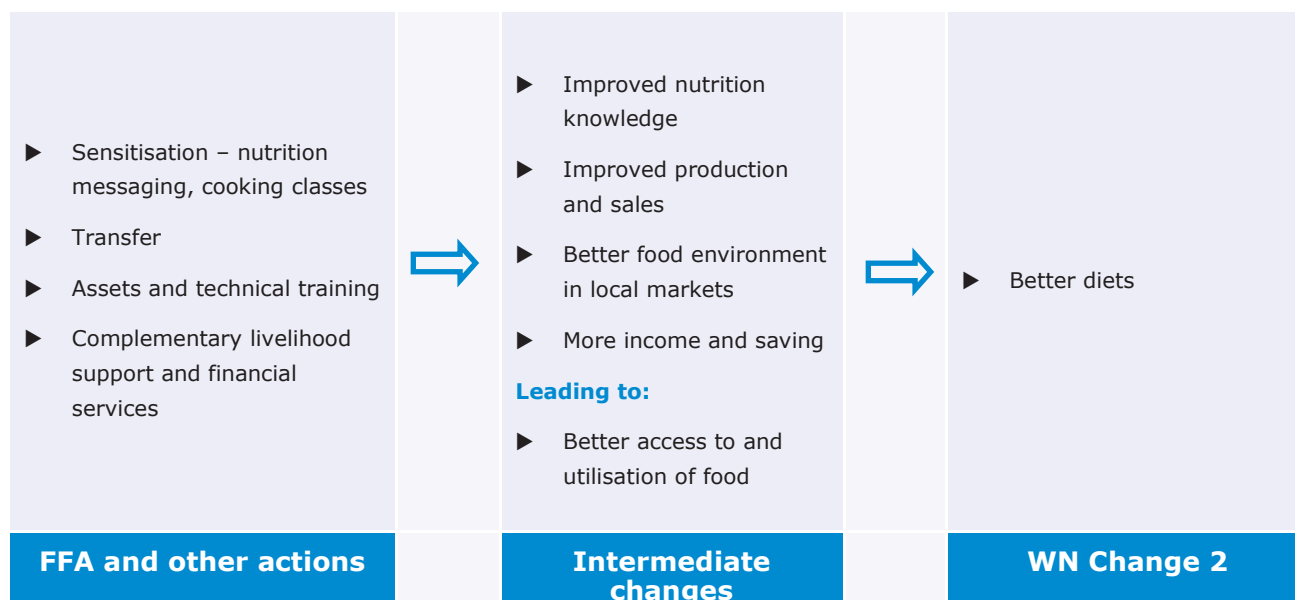
The next causal link of how women’s empowerment may lead to better nutrition is one that has been proven across many studies. In a cross-country study of the drivers of nutritional change over time, four factors emerged as the most robust predictors of reductions in undernutrition worldwide: secondary education for girls, reductions in fertility, accumulation of household assets, and increased access to health services.<sup>128</sup> Similarly, a review of 76 studies across six sectors, including nutrition, agriculture, and WASH, supported the hypothesis that promoting gender equality and women’s and girls’ empowerment lead to better health and

development outcomes for women and girls, their families and their communities.<sup>129</sup>

For women’s nutrition, progress towards gender equality appears to be critical in women getting their share of food. In Kenya, for example, when men bring game meat home, they have the first pick of the food. In Zimbabwe, men reported fabricating grievances against their wives so that they would get chicken cooked for them. This is consistent with literature indicating that a woman’s status affects intrahousehold allocation of resources, including food and access to health services.<sup>130</sup>

In this study, women linked the intermediate changes with better nutrition. For example, in

### WN Change 2: Better diets



<sup>128</sup>Headey D, 2013. Developmental drivers of nutritional change: a cross-country analysis. World Dev 2013; 42: 76–88.

<sup>129</sup>Taukobong, H et al, 2016. [Does addressing gender inequalities and empowering women and girls improve health and development programme outcomes?](#) Health Policy Plan (2016) 31 (10): 1492-1514.

<sup>130</sup> See for example Quisumbing, A and Smith, L, 2007. [Intrahousehold Allocation, Gender Relations, and Food Security in Developing Countries.](#) In: Per Pinstrup-Andersen and Fuzhi Cheng (editors), "Food Policy for Developing Countries: Case Studies



Niger, women related the intermediate change of 'reduced workload and hardship' with better health and wellbeing. When women (and men) have better access to information, such as through sensitisation on nutrition or SRHR, women (and men) then know that they can, and when to, access health services; as seen in Niger, Zimbabwe and Guatemala. When women had more income and savings, they could spend it on food, as well as health services for themselves, although typically more for their children.

### WN Change 2: Better diets

Most communities reported better or maintained diets, resulting from (a) transfers, (b) own production of food, and (c) increased income. By 'better diets', women and men meant that they were eating more food and/or more nutritious food. The changes experienced in each country case study are explained in the following paragraphs.

**Transfers.** Transfers helped households improve or maintain their diets. In Sri Lanka and Guatemala where bad droughts were experienced, households could maintain their diets because of the transfer. In Zimbabwe, households receiving food transfers improved their diets by eating more beans and including oil in their diet. Whilst this finding was encouraging in terms of positive dietary changes, to improve diet on a sustainable basis would likely require that assets and training need to transform households' production or income earning capacities.

In Niger, transfers had an additional indirect effect. Households had used transfers to repay debts, thereby reclaiming their land that had been confiscated. With the resumption of production on these lands, food security improved.

**Own production.** An example of own production is from Zimbabwe where both women and men reported eating many more vegetables constituting a rainbow diet. The agricultural

extension worker would ensure that foods containing a variety of nutrients, including Vitamin A, iron and folate, were represented year-round. When butternut pumpkins were introduced, instructions were provided on how to prepare them for consumption. Not all vegetable gardens in the study resulted in more nutritious diets. Some resulted in more food, though did not necessarily produce vegetables that provided the optimal range of nutrients that they could.

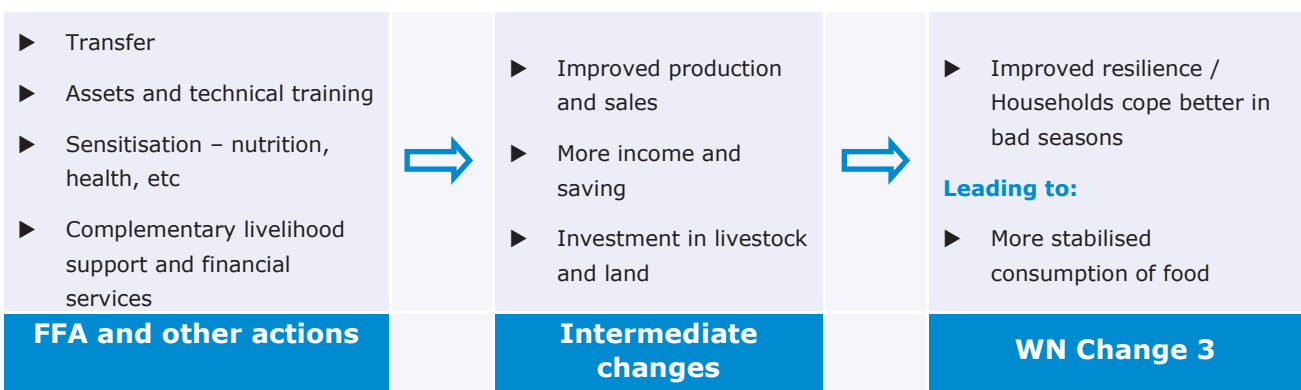
In many countries, SWC structures improved productivity, sometimes across landscapes. In Kenya, for example, zai pits were reported to have trebled yield. Sunken gardens and trenches allowed for fruit and vegetable production where it would have otherwise been impossible. These increased household access to food. When sold locally, the food environment in local markets was improved.

**Increased income and food environment in markets.** To achieve a better diet, households did not need to grow their own food. Better diets could come from improved income. In Sri Lanka, men reported earning 1,000 rupees (almost US\$7) more per day because of better fishing from rehabilitated mangroves. Households could afford better food, and the vegetable seller who previously came once a week would come more regularly.

Increased income alone was insufficient to improve diets if there are no nutritious foods in the markets. The food environment in the market – availability and affordability of nutritious foods – was as important as income. In a community in Sri Lanka, the rehabilitation of the roads meant that fresh foods were more easily transported into the community, and started being sold in the local shops.

**Nutrition knowledge.** Good nutrition knowledge was a necessary precondition for the changes to take place. Where there was poor nutrition knowledge, households did not act to improve their diet, whether in types of crops grown

### WN Change 3: Improved resilience/ Households cope better in bad seasons



or food bought, for example. Households may have eaten more food, but not more nutritious food. An example was in Guatemala where the inadequate quality of nutrition sensitisation delivered by MAGA, combined with strong local food habits, meant that many beneficiaries were not aware of the types of nutritious foods they need. Income saved, such as from not needing to buy food due to FFA food rations, were often spent on coffee and sugar. Conversely, when there was strong nutrition messaging in Niger, households who had previously sold all the vegetables they produced had started to retain some for their own consumption.

### WN Change 3: Improved resilience/ Households cope better in bad seasons

Many households across the countries reported having better capacities to cope in bad years because of FFA. This is critical as it leads to more stabilised consumption of food. This change was primarily attributed to the transfer and assets.

**Transfers.** Transfers eased the impact of the bad years by providing food or the means to purchase food. In Sri Lanka, many households reported being able to use their membership in the FFA project to obtain food on credit in times of need, with the promise that they would pay for the food when the transfers arrived.

**Assets.** Assets too were critical in coping in bad seasons. In Zimbabwe, where there no harvests of rainfed crops, the weirs and irrigated vegetable gardens provided a source of food, and crop residues fed livestock. Beneficiaries reported to have weathered the El Nino drought better than other households. In Kenya, households reported having at least some harvest of maize and beans with poor rains when planted in zai pits, when previously they would have had none. However,

SWC structures on rainfed crops has its limitations. In Guatemala, rains were so poor that despite the SWC structures, there had been no harvest.

### WN Change 4: Better care practices (including feeding, health and WASH)

When better care practices were reported, they were a result of assets and sensitisation.

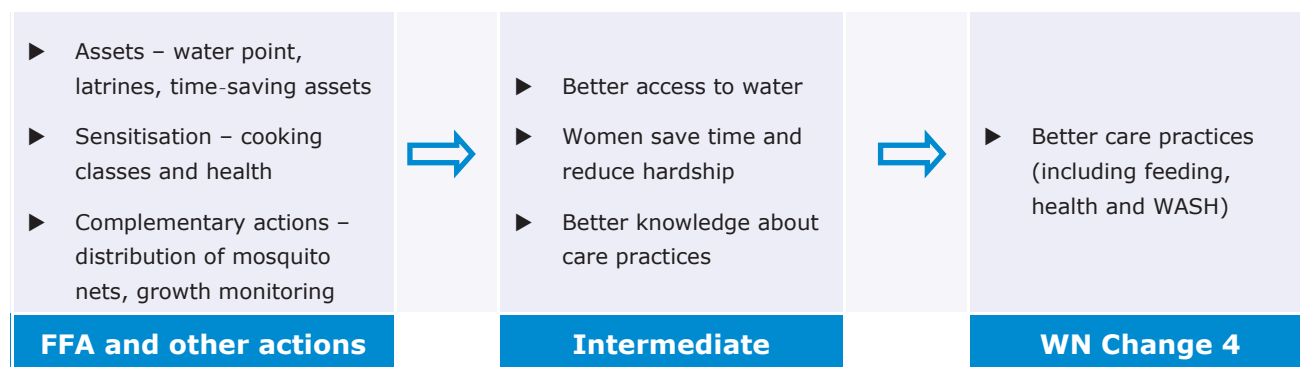
**Assets.** Water points contributed to better care practices by providing households with water to wash and clean. In Sri Lanka and Zimbabwe, women reported increased frequency of washing, from once every few days to daily. Often, women when saved time and labour in water collection, they could spend more time for food preparation and feeding.

**Sensitisation.** Sensitisation also contributed to improving care practices. In Niger, eight Essential Family Practices messages were provided as part of the FFA project, covering exclusive breastfeeding, complementary feeding, use of bed nets, handwashing, use of health services, treatment of diarrhoea, treatment of pneumonia and malaria, and family planning. Women and men were both required to attend the sessions, and reported changing some of their practices. Zimbabwe had a similar approach to providing sensitisation, and had child growth monitoring as a soft condition<sup>131</sup> of the FFA transfer. Kenya was piloting 33 training modules as part of a nutrition-sensitive training package.

### WN Change 5: Better living and health environment in communities (e.g. water and sanitation infrastructure)

Living and health environments<sup>132</sup> were improved through assets, sensitisation and community actions.

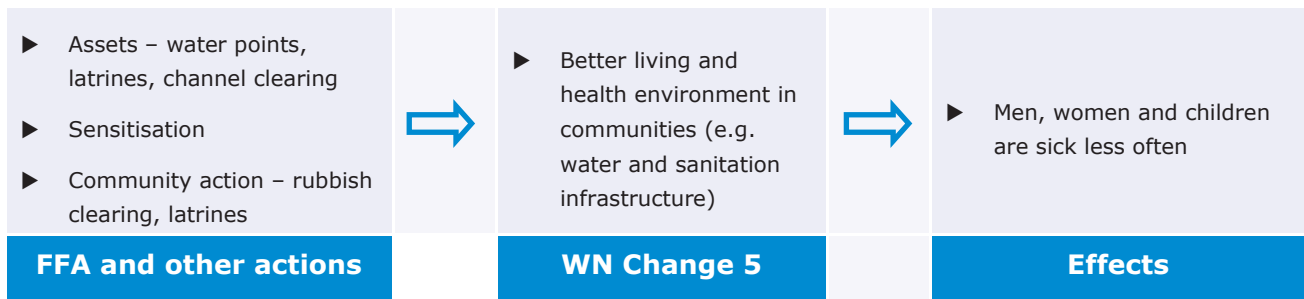
### WN Change 4: Better care practices (including feeding, health and WASH)



<sup>131</sup> The WFP Nutrition-Sensitive Guidance (p. 50) defines firm and soft conditionality. In the case of a firm conditionality, adherence to the requirements is closely monitored and transfers are only distributed to those that fully comply with the requirements. A soft conditionality encourages the same behaviours but does not require enforcement of fulfilling the conditionality for receipt of the transfer.

<sup>132</sup> The WFP Nutrition-Sensitive Guidance defines the health and sanitation environment as the factors in the physical environment where a person lives that pose health risks or protections.

**WN Change 5: Better living and health environment in communities (e.g. water and sanitation infrastructure)**



**Assets.** Across many communities, FFA water points contributed to households being able to wash and clean more frequently. In Sri Lanka, the clearing of channels meant that there was less stagnant water for mosquitos to breed in, which was critical as there was a dengue outbreak at the time of the study.

**Sensitisation and community action.** Sensitisation was used to raise awareness, which then catalysed community action. In Guatemala, FFA workers put in extra time to clear rubbish from various sites in the community. This reduced breeding environments for mosquitos, particularly Zika mosquitos. Similarly, in Zimbabwe, the Cooperating Partner built demonstration latrines at communal areas, and encouraged FFA members to form groups (merry-go-round or tontine) of 14 households to support latrine building. Each member put in US\$ 2 each per fortnight, and one member would take away US\$ 28 to buy the necessary materials (e.g. cement) to build a pit latrine. 135 latrines had been built through this action in just one site.

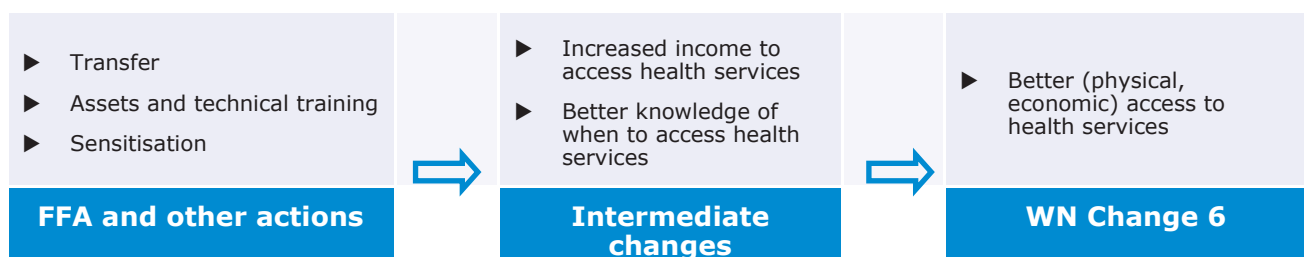
**WN Change 6: Better (physical, economic) access to health services**

Many communities reported being able to access health services as a result of FFA, mostly due to being able to afford the health services because of the transfer or increased income.

**Transfer.** In Kenya, women and men reported that transfers were used to access health services. Women also reported putting their money in group savings, and accessing the savings when a family member was sick.

**Sensitisation.** Some households reported accessing health services because of sensitisation. In Niger, for example, women had given birth at home, sometimes placing them at risk of complications. With the sensitisation, women were attending health centres when pregnant and at the time of delivery. In Zimbabwe, attendance at health centres for child growth monitoring was a soft condition of the transfer. This encouraged households to attend the health centres.

**WN Change 6: Better (physical, economic) access to health services**



## 4.2 Key success factors

From the information collected through this study, 13 key success factors were identified; be they FFA programme or complementary actions, which led to the observed changes. Put another way, women were empowered or their nutrition was improved when this factor, or a combination of these factors, was in place. These key success factors were not observed across all the study countries (see below for occurrence in the study).

*Critical actions* upon which the success factors are contingent were, in turn, delineated; noting that multiple actions need to act in concert to bring about a change. That is, each critical action is necessary – but insufficient on its own – to lead to the success factor. The critical actions were drawn from good practice features and lessons learned

from the five case studies, as well as lessons learned from FFA programmes elsewhere. The critical actions detailed in this report are *proven*; they are grounded in experience, and not just in theory.

This study found that the five FFA keys to success form the basis of good FFA programming. The 13 key success factors reinforce and supplement the five FFA keys (see Box 4.2) to success from a gender and nutrition lens.

**Table 4.3.** Key success factors and their occurrence in the study

<b>Women were empowered when the FFA programme (and complementary actions):</b>	<b>Occurrence in the study</b>
1. actively supported the free and fair participation of women in FFA activities;	Occurred in some programmes
2. used the 3PA to analyse the context and ensure that programming is gender transformative and empowers women;	Occurred in most programmes
3. actively promoted women’s social cohesion and organisation;	Occurred in some programmes
4. actively promoted women’s leadership and engagement in community decision-making	Occurred in some programmes
5. reduced women’s workload and hardship;	Occurred in some programmes
6. supported women’s livelihoods and reduced women’s financial dependency; and	Occurred in some programmes
7. supported women’s access to information on rights and referrals (for GBV and SRHR) and the ability to exercise their rights.	Occurred in some programmes
<b>Women’s nutrition improved when the FFA programme (and complementary actions):</b>	<b>Occurrence in the study</b>
8. used the 3PA to ensure programming improves nutrition outcomes for women;	Occurred in some programmes
9. used FFA as platform to provide nutrition sensitisation and link to nutrition and health services;	Occurred in some programmes
10. ensured that the transfers and FFA work supported good nutrition, particularly for women;	Occurred in some programmes
11. identified and supported assets to reduce women’s workload and hardship, and improve safety and hygiene;	Occurred in some programmes
12. identified and supported actions for better diets; and	Occurred in most programmes
13. identified and supported actions for better sanitation.	Occurred in some programmes



## Box 4.2. Five FFA keys to success

The success of FFA depends on the following five crucial factors – irrespective of livelihood types, geographical contexts, and countries. Overlooking any one of these will compromise the transformative ability of FFA on livelihoods and food security that a programme aims to reach.

1. *Putting communities and people at the centre of FFA.* Inclusive participatory planning empowers and provides a voice to the most vulnerable people, and in particular to women and marginalized groups in decision-making, implementation and management of assets created.
2. *An understanding of the local context, landscape and livelihoods* to make the right choice of assets for agriculturalists, pastoralists or urban poor, their natural, social and economic environment, and reduce the risks and the major hardships they face, including those caused by extreme climate events and conflicts.
3. *Making sure quality standards for assets created are met.* A key element in degraded and fragile contexts where the most vulnerable persons live, ensuring that assets are sustainable and can withstand the exposure to climate and other shocks.
4. *Strengthening of local and government institutions' capacities.* Government entities need to be in the driver's seat, and supporting communities' in promoting social cohesion and self-help efforts.
5. *Integrating and scaling-up.* Different assets and complementary activities need to be integrated and implemented at a meaningful scale, matching the scale of the challenges that affect communities. Resilience building through FFA and complementary efforts need to be commensurate to the scale of the shocks.

### 4.2.1 Women's socioeconomic empowerment

#### Key success factor 1: Actively supported the free and fair participation of women in FFA activities.

##### Description:

Women's participation in FFA activities, including FFA work, technical training, and complementary services, is a precondition for them to access services. Women can benefit from FFA transfers and assets even if they are not participants in the FFA work.<sup>133</sup> This study found that women's participation in FFA activities brought many benefits, including better social cohesion, women's organisation, women's leadership, improved skills and transformed gender dynamics.

Despite the potential benefits, women may not be able to participate in FFA programming because of household responsibilities (particularly the care of children); overburden, which often leads to fatigue and ill health); social norms regarding, for example, roles, mobility, and safety/protection. Actions can be taken to overcome such barriers to women's participation. The first step is to understand the barriers to women's participation.

This study found that women's participation in FFA work does not inevitably transform gender relations or lead to women's empowerment. In some countries, women participate because they feel they have no choice. In two countries, the transfer was too low to attract men. Women may be pressured to work so that the community can get the asset. When women participate, the terms need to be free and fair. Having a fair transfer – fair compensation for work – is a critical to women's empowerment.

##### Critical actions:

- ▶ Specifically invite women to participate in all stages of FFA programming, while ensuring that the women (and men) understand that participation is voluntary.
- ▶ Sensitise women and men about the benefits of women's participation.
- ▶ Ensure that women are not over-burdened by, for example, ensuring flexible and appropriate work times, tailored and fair work norms, substitution of household members for the work.
- ▶ Provide facilitative services, such as child care and support to PLW.

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- ▶ Ensure women are safe by ensuring FFA worksites are accessible and safe; providing safety training and protective gear as necessary, sensitising women and men on sexual exploitation and abuse (SEA); having functional referral mechanisms in place; training committee members and Cooperating Partners; constituting women-only work teams, and areas for women to change their clothing after work.
- ▶ Check that women are not pressured or coerced into participating by their households or communities.

#### Resources:

- ▶ Gender Toolkit: [Participation](#)
- ▶ Gender Toolkit: [Implementation: HOW](#)
- ▶ Gender Toolkit: [Gender and FFA](#)
- ▶ FFA PGM: [Chapter 3 – Section 4.1. Gender](#)
- ▶ FFA PGM: [Chapter 4 – Section 6. FFA activities – a gender perspective](#)
- ▶ FFA PGM: [Chapter 8 – Section 1.2.1 Targeting, planning and beneficiaries](#)
- ▶ FFA PGM: [Chapter 6 – Section 2.4 Determining the FFA transfer value](#)
- ▶ FFA PGM: [Chapter 6 – Section 3. Productivity Work Norms](#) (in particular Section 3.4)

### Key success factor 2: Used the 3PA to analyse the context and ensure that programming is gender transformative and empowers women.

#### Description:

3PA, particularly the SLP and CBPP processes, are often the entry point to working with the community. Participatory planning is the necessary for understanding the local context, landscape and livelihoods from both women’s and men’s perspectives. It is a critical opportunity to give women a voice in community planning processes.

In this study, the CBPP (or other community meetings) was the first time that many women were consulted in community affairs. Many women described this as empowering. In addition to providing women with a role in decision making in the FFA programme, participatory planning elevated women’s position in their communities and promoted women’s longer-term engagement in community decision-making.

#### Critical actions:

- ▶ Ensure the equal, equitable and meaningful participation of women and men in SLP and CBPP.
  - Ensure that equal numbers of beneficiary women and men participate in the SLP and CBPP processes.
  - Support women’s participation through providing child care (or an allowance for women to purchase child care) and other facilitative services, such as transportation.
  - Ensure that spaces are created for a diverse range of women to discuss their needs, interests, capacities and priorities; utilising women-only discussions as preferred by the women.
- ▶ Ensure that SLP and CBPP processes provide information on women’s and men’s needs, interests, capacities and priorities. For example, understanding women’s and men’s workloads, livelihoods, access to services.
- ▶ Use 3PA processes to map services and opportunities for partnership on complementary services such as sensitisation and referral, and livelihoods and financial services. Undertake partner mapping to better understand who does what, for whom, where, and to determine which partners are committed and competent in gender equality.

#### Resources:

- ▶ Gender Toolkit: [Gender analysis](#)
- ▶ Gender Toolkit: [Stakeholder analysis](#)
- ▶ Gender Toolkit: [Strategic Planning](#)
- ▶ Gender Toolkit: [Programme design](#)
- ▶ Gender Toolkit: [Participation](#)
- ▶ Gender Toolkit: [Gender and Food Assistance for Assets](#)
- ▶ FFA PGM: [Chapter 2 – Section 3. Using the Three-pronged Approach \(3PA\) to operationalize FFA](#)
- ▶ FFA PGM: [CBPP](#)

### Key success factor 3: Actively promoted women's social cohesion and organisation.

#### Description:

Women interviewed in the study described women's social cohesion and organisation as two of the most valuable changes resulting from FFA programming. Women explained that their new friends reduced their isolation, provided mutual support in challenging times (such as the illness or death of a family member), and protected them from the threat of domestic violence. Flow-on effects included increased involvement in community decision-making and action, improved access to information, and improved livelihoods.

Coming together to work on an asset provided the opportunity for women to meet each other. Other activities, such as committees, training, savings and social groups, provided additional opportunities. Group assets or businesses provided a space for women to meet beyond the duration of the FFA programme.

#### Critical actions:

- ▶ Actively provide opportunities for women to meet, work together and collaborate in ways that are aligned with their needs and priorities. This may include women-only committees, women's work teams, group assets owned by women, training events, and savings and loan groups.
- ▶ Where appropriate, provide training for women as part of the groups, e.g., leadership skills, business planning, joint management of a group asset or a savings and loan group. Consider making attendance at training a work norm so that women are not overburdened.

#### Resources:

- ▶ See Kenya, Zimbabwe, Guatemala, and Sri Lanka country case studies for examples of actions leading to women's social cohesion.
- ▶ FFA PGM: [Chapter 4 – Section 6. FFA activities – a gender perspective](#)

### Key success factor 4: Actively promoted women's leadership and engagement in community decision-making.

#### Description:

In this study, membership in FFA committees was the first time that women played a leadership role in their communities. Their membership shifted perceptions in the community on women's role and capabilities. It also provided a safe space to grow community leadership skills. In a community in Guatemala, women then progressed to being elected leaders in the community council. When women were in the FFA leadership positions, they could ensure that women's needs and priorities were considered in FFA activities. Women leaders also provide valuable role-models for young and adolescent girls (and boys).

Training committee members (both women and men) on topics such as communication, leadership, people management, and conflict resolution, provides the committee members with the skills and confidence to perform their role. Women committee members benefit significantly from this training given that they are less likely to have had previous experience in leadership roles.

#### Critical actions:

- ▶ Ensure that women are represented in committees. At a minimum, this should be equal participation.<sup>134</sup> Depending on context, women-only committees can ensure that men do not 'take over'.
- ▶ Ensure that women can attend meetings by, for example, holding meetings at times that suit women, providing children with a space to play while mothers meet, supporting breastfeeding.
- ▶ Provide training for committee members to equip them to perform their roles skilfully and with confidence.
- ▶ Provide beneficiaries – women and men – with sensitisation about the benefits of women's leadership.

#### Resources:

- ▶ Gender Toolkit: [Participation](#)

<sup>134</sup> In Zimbabwe, committees were all of seven persons: four women and three men. Having women in the majority ensured that if there was a difference in opinion, women's preference would have primacy.

## Key success factor 5: Reduced women's workload and hardship.

### Description:

In this study, FFA reduced women's workload through assets, transfer and sensitisation. Assets, such as water points and roads, can reduce the laborious unpaid work that is typically undertaken by women. Transfers can reduce the amount of additional work that women have to do for cash. Transfers can also reduce male migration, which tends to lead to women taking on multiple roles, leading to a heavy workload and additional hardship. Through sensitisation, there can be a redistribution of unpaid household tasks within households, with men taking on responsibilities such as meal preparation or washing.

Reducing women's workload and hardship is important as women are often overburdened with multiple responsibilities leading to fatigue, ill-health and restricted access to the opportunities available to men (such as relating to livelihoods and community leadership). In this study, the reduced workload was documented as providing women with time to pursue livelihood opportunities.

### Critical actions:

- ▶ Use CBPP to better understand and identify opportunities to reduce women's workload and hardship.
- ▶ Select household or community assets that reduce women's workload and hardship. Examples include water points, wash basins, vegetable gardens, cattle dip tanks, access roads, woodlots, fuel-efficient stoves. (See FFA PGM: Chapter 4 – Section 6. FFA activities – a gender perspective for a list of assets that have been supported)
- ▶ Sensitise women and men to promoting women's control and decision making over the transfer.
- ▶ Sensitise women and men to promoting sharing of unpaid domestic and care work; such as meal preparation, cleaning, child minding, particularly when women undertake FFA work.
- ▶ Ensure that FFA actions do not overburden women; requiring tailored and fair work norms.

### Resources:

- ▶ Gender Toolkit: [Gender Analysis](#)
- ▶ Gender Toolkit: [Participation](#)
- ▶ FFA PGM: [Chapter 4 – Section 6. FFA activities – a gender perspective](#)

## Key success factor 6: Supported women's livelihoods and reduce financial dependency.

### Description:

Women's livelihoods and income was a high priority for women in this study; and was of critical importance for women household heads who are usually responsible for providing in their families.

In some programmes, FFA contributed to women's livelihoods. Water sources enabled women in Zimbabwe to grow vegetables for their own consumption and sale within the community or to the home-grown school feeding programmes. Women also made bricks to sell. In Kenya, links with a chilli exporter was brokered, guaranteeing a market for chillies that were grown by FFA groups. FFA can play a key role in providing the necessary community assets (water, roads, dip tank etc.), training, and networks to kickstart women's livelihoods.

### Critical actions:

- ▶ Based on participatory gender and market analysis, support women in pursuing viable livelihoods of their choice, and reflecting their capacities and priorities.
- ▶ Promote household and/or community assets that support women's livelihoods, including indirectly by reducing women's hardship and workload.
- ▶ Provide technical or complementary training to support women's livelihoods, such as agricultural extension, financial services and value chain facilitation.
- ▶ Support complementary actions, like group formation, savings and loan groups, business skills training, and value chain facilitation.



- ▶ Link with other actors that can support women’s livelihoods, such as:
  - market actors, such as input suppliers, buyers, processors, or transporters;
  - other WFP programmes, such as home-grown school feeding, FFT, smallholder programmes, and Purchase for Progress (P4P);
  - agricultural value chain development programmes, like those of FAO and IFAD; and
  - training organisations, NGOs, business incubation programmes, and cooperatives.

**Resources:**

- ▶ Gender Toolkit: [Gender Analysis](#)
- ▶ FFA PGM: [Chapter 4 – Section 6. FFA activities – a gender perspective](#)

**Key success factor 7: Supported women’s access to information on rights and referrals, including in relation to GBV and SRHR, and the ability to exercise their rights.**

**Description:**

FFA provided awareness raising on rights and referral services in Guatemala (to women only) and Zimbabwe (to both women and men). Topics covered included gender equality, women’s rights, GBV and SRHR; the latter encompassing family planning, birth spacing, HIV/AIDS and cervical cancer. This awareness raising was provided through (or with the support of) Government partners, such as the Office of Women or Departments of Health. FFA can act as a platform from which awareness raising is delivered.

Many women interviewed were previously unfamiliar with their rights and referral services. Having information allowed women to access services, like obtaining pap smears in Guatemala, or discuss issues within the household, such as around male circumcision in Zimbabwe. Knowing about GBV also had a protective effect, with women knowing their legal rights and where to seek assistance. Many women indicated that it was important for adolescent girls to know their rights, as well as for men and adolescent boys. This was particularly the case in Guatemala and Zimbabwe where there were high incidences of early pregnancy and marriage.

In this study, FFA supported assets that reduced the risk of violence. Newly-constructed roads (Sri Lanka) and a cattle dip tank (Zimbabwe) meant that women did not need to travel through unsafe areas on a regular basis. Other examples of assets that reduce the risk of violence are woodlots and water sources that are relatively close to dwellings, thereby reducing exposure to travel-related safety threats.

**Critical actions:**

- ▶ Working with partners, use FFA as a platform to raise awareness on rights and referral services, including in relation to:
  - women’s legal rights;
  - gender roles, relations and responsibilities;
  - sexual reproductive health and rights (SRHR) and services; and
  - gender-based violence (GBV), including legal rights and services.
- ▶ Model good practices by sensitising on sexual exploitation and abuse (SEA) for FFA work sites, and assigning a gender focal point for complaints.
- ▶ Support assets that reduce the risk of violence, such as access roads, woodlots and water sources.

**Resources:**

- ▶ Gender Toolkit: [Gender and Complaints and Feedback Mechanisms](#)
- ▶ FFA PGM: [Chapter 4 – Section 6. FFA activities – a gender perspective](#)

## 4.2.2 IMPROVING WOMEN'S NUTRITION

### Key success factor 1: Used the 3PA to ensure programming improves nutrition outcomes for women.

#### Description:

The 3PA, comprising of the ICA, SLP and CBPP, can be an important platform to ensure that nutrition is integrated into the FFA programme. The 3PA is also a suitable tool for the design of multi-sectoral nutrition-sensitive programmes and initiatives involving a range of WFP programmes teams, the government and other partners. In Niger, for example, the 3PA was a tool for joint Government and UN planning under the Commune de Convergence (C2C) approach.

The CBPP (or other community processes) can be an opportunity for communities to identify the community's nutrition challenges, and to develop action plans or prioritise assets to address them. In Guatemala, a community worked to access training and improve the hygiene in their community using this approach.

#### Critical actions:

- ▶ Ensure the equal, equitable and meaningful participation of women and men in SLP and CBPP processes. Ensure that a diverse range of women (including spanning the life cycle) are represented.
- ▶ Integrate a nutrition focus in all stages of the 3PA, particularly CBPP.
- ▶ Use 3PA processes to map services and opportunities for partnership on complementary services such as sensitisation and referral, or training on production of nutritious food.
- ▶ Where possible, co-locate or integrate with FFA with other WFP programmes for other partners' food and nutrition security programmes

#### Resources:

- ▶ Gender Toolkit: [Gender Analysis](#)
- ▶ Gender Toolkit: [Participation](#)
- ▶ FFA PGM: [Chapter 3 – Section 5: Strengthening the nutrition focus of FFA](#)
- ▶ FFA PGM: [Chapter 3 – Section 5.1. Consider nutrition at the planning stage \(CBPP\)](#)
- ▶ FFA PGM: [Chapter 3 – Section 5.5. Layer/integrate FFA with other nutrition programmes](#)
- ▶ Nutrition-Sensitive Guidance: [Step One – Understanding. Sources of information for a nutrition-sensitive analysis](#)
- ▶ Nutrition Sensitive Guidance: [Step Two – Formulation. How to do joint planning](#)

### Key success factor 2: Used FFA as platform to provide nutrition sensitisation and link to nutrition and health services.

#### Description:

Poor nutrition knowledge is a barrier to achieving better nutrition. In this study, when households improved their nutrition knowledge and understanding of available referral services through nutrition messaging, they could make better decisions about their nutrition. In Zimbabwe, following training and sensitisation, women started to grow a rainbow diet of vegetables for their household's consumption and taking their children for growth monitoring. Better care practices were reported in Niger and Zimbabwe was a result of sensitisation.

Awareness raising on nutrition and related services can be provided by WFP or other actors. In the Niger case study, sensitisation was provided by a combination of WFP, UNICEF and NGOs. In Zimbabwe, the sensitisation was provided by Government. This had the additional advantage of familiarising beneficiaries with local health professionals and clinics.

#### Critical actions:

- ▶ Map services and opportunities for partnership on sensitisation and referral.
- ▶ Provide nutrition sensitisation and messaging, including on women's nutrition in all life cycle stages, care practices, hygiene and sanitation, maternal and child health, and SRHR. Where appropriate, invite government partners (health workers, midwives, women's officers etc.) or other actors to support this.
- ▶ Link beneficiaries with nutrition, health and SRHR services by government and others.
- ▶ Use soft conditionality (e.g., making it a work norm) for households to participate in sensitisation and other activities (e.g., growth monitoring).

### Resources:

- ▶ Gender Toolkit: [Stakeholder Analysis](#)
- ▶ Gender Toolkit: [Partnerships](#)
- ▶ FFA PGM: [Chapter 3 – Section 5.4. Integrate FFA with nutrition-specific training](#)
- ▶ FFA PGM: [Chapter 3 – Section 5.5. Layer/integrate FFA with other nutrition programmes](#)

## Key success factor 3: Ensured that the transfers and FFA work supported good nutrition, particularly for women.

### Description:

The timing of, composition or value of, and control over FFA transfers can make a difference to its nutrition impact. Transfers provided just before or during the lean season contribute to maintaining nutrition levels. Often, FFA transfers are provided when the works are undertaken, which may or may not coincide with lean seasons. In Guatemala, work and transfers are provided at different times of the year; works are undertaken during labour availability and transfers are provided during the lean season.

The composition or value of the FFA transfers matter. In Zimbabwe, this meant that beneficiary households were eating nutritious foods (beans) that they otherwise could not afford. Adding nutrient-rich foods, such as fortified grains or fortified complementary foods, can contribute to filling the nutrient gap. Similarly, in line with WFP's Cash and Vouchers Manual, cash transfers should enable recipients to access a nutritious diet (including macro and micronutrient requirements); not just a calorie-adequate diet. Oftentimes, transfer values are set too low, resulting in households not being able to access a nutritious diet (see Challenge 9 in Section 4.3.3 for further detail). Nutrition messaging and messaging on control and use of the FFA transfers can mean that it is spent on nutritious foods.

The timing and type of FFA work can impact on the health and wellbeing of beneficiaries, particularly PLW. Measures need to be put in place to ensure that PLW have tailored work norms and necessary support.

Work norms and/or transfers need to be adjusted to respond to changes in women's workload (e.g., increased workload in drought years), when women are more likely to be overburdened in collecting water or working to get cash or food. Transfers may need to be increased to compensate for poor harvests.

### Critical actions:

- ▶ Ensure that the timing and composition / value of the transfer supports good nutrition, in line with WFP Nutrition -Sensitive Guidance and WFP Cash and Voucher Manual. The transfer should be sufficient to enable access to a nutritious diet (including not only quantity but quality and thus meet macro and micronutrient requirements); not just a calorie-adequate diet.
- ▶ Ensure that the transfer is accompanied by sensitisation on nutritious foods to support informed decision making and use of the transfer.
- ▶ Ensure that PLW have tailored work norms and that facilitative services, such as child care for breastfeeding mothers.
- ▶ Adjust work norms and/or transfers to respond to changes in women's workload.

### Resources:

- ▶ [Cash and Vouchers Manual](#). Section A.4.1 Transfer Value Calculation
- ▶ Gender Toolkit: [Gender and FFA](#)
- ▶ FFA PGM: [Chapter 3 – Section 5.2 FFA implementation modalities supporting nutrition](#)
- ▶ Nutrition-Sensitive Guidance: [Step 3 – Take action. Food Assistance for Assets \(FFA\)](#) See 3.1

## Key success factor 5: Identified and supported actions for better diets.

### Description:

As seen in WN Change 2, FFA can improve diets beyond the programme life through a package of integrated actions, including nutrition messaging, technical training, assets and complementary actions. In this study, diets were improved when beneficiaries had consumed their own production or when they had increases in income. There are multiple pathways to better diets. In peri-urban and fishing communities in Sri Lanka, improving road access to the community and increasing incomes (rather than own production) were most effective in improving access to nutritious foods.

This study found that stand-alone assets, like a water source, tended to be insufficient to improve diets. Instead, a package of assets tended to be effective. Therefore, in addition to a water source, an asset package of vegetable gardens (with secure tenure), irrigation pipes and watering troughs can lead to sustainable change. Assets need to be of sufficient size to improve diets. A vegetable garden of two square metres per household is unlikely to provide sufficient vegetables for an individual, let alone a household.

### Critical actions:

- ▶ Use the CBPP to identify pathways to better diets, and select actions to support better diets (which may not be through own production).
- ▶ Provide messaging on better diets; tailored to the different beneficiaries (gender, age, disability, literacy etc.).
- ▶ Support asset packages that can increase own production, income, or physical access.
  - Ensure the assets are packaged or layered with other assets to be sustainable.
  - Ensure that assets are of sufficient size or scale to improve diets.
  - Assuring permanent tenure / access to land and ownership of assets.
  - Establish an asset management committee (with gender balance in membership).
- ▶ Link to nutrition-sensitive agricultural extension services to promote a nutritious diet comprising rainbow fruit and vegetables and animal protein.
- ▶ Link to other complementary services (value chain actors) so that women and men can derive the maximum benefit from assets.
- ▶ If introducing new foods, provide cooking classes (to women and men) to ensure consumption.

### Resources:

- ▶ Nutrition-Sensitive Guidance: [Step 3 – Take action. Food Assistance for Assets \(FFA\) See 5.1 and 7.1](#)
- ▶ FFA PGM: [Chapter 4 – Section 8. Complementary Measures \(Partners/Communities\)](#)
- ▶ FFA PGM: [Chapter 4 – Section 5.10. FFA for Skills Enhancement](#)

## Key success factor 6: Identified and supported actions for better sanitation.

### Description:

While the FFA programmes visited (except for one community in Kenya) did not directly support sanitation actions, many included complementary actions or community-initiated actions to improve sanitation. In Guatemala, FFA participants in one community put in extra working hours to clear rubbish from their community to reduce breeding grounds during the Zika outbreak. In Zimbabwe, demonstration latrines were built at asset sites (vegetable gardens and dip tank). The Cooperating Partner trained FFA participants into how to build the latrines, and encouraged FFA members to form groups (merry-go-round) of 14 households to support latrine building. Each member put in US\$2 each per fortnight, and one member would take away US\$28 to buy the necessary materials, like cement, to build a pit latrine. The role of the Cooperating Partner here was to introduce a low-cost latrine design, train on its construction, and introduce the merry-go-round model for potential uptake.

### Critical actions:

- ▶ Provide awareness raising or training to support better sanitation, such as on mosquito breeding grounds and faecal-oral transmission of cholera.
- ▶ Encourage FFA committees to take community action, like rubbish clearing to reduce mosquito breeding grounds. To avoid overburdening women, consider making this a work norm.
- ▶ Where possible, introduce innovations to improve sanitation. E.g., Zimbabwe latrines.



#### Resources:

- ▶ Nutrition-Sensitive Guidance: [Step 3 – Take action. Food Assistance for Assets \(FFA\)](#) See 5.1 and 7.1
- ▶ FFA PGM: [Chapter 4 – Section 8. Complementary Measures \(Partners/Communities\)](#)

### 4.3 Challenges, missed opportunities, and mitigation measures

While the case studies offered successes, there were also unintended negative impacts, and suggestions were also challenges and missed opportunities that mitigation measures.

contribute to valuable learning. This section summarises key challenges, missed opportunities

**Table 4.4.** Challenges and missed opportunities, and their occurrence in the study

Challenges or missed opportunity	Occurrence in the study
<b>Common to both WSEE and WN</b>	
1. Women are over-burdened by the additional demands posed by FFA work norms in addition to their domestic responsibilities.	Occurred in some programmes
2. Sensitisation in the areas of health, nutrition, rights, etc is not included, or sensitisation was only provided to women and not men.	Occurred in some programmes
3. Single year, rather than multi-year programmes, mean that programmes cannot bring about sustainable change.	Occurred in some programmes
4. FFA projects do not articulate project-level impact pathways for WSEE and WN, and consequently have few monitoring indicators to track changes WSEE and WN.	Occurred in all programmes
<b>WSEE</b>	
5. Inappropriately determined transfers distort participation ratios of women and men in FFA work due to pre-existing cultural norms and economic barriers.	Occurred in most programmes
6. Limited analysis and pre-existing cultural norms create the preconditions for FFA activities to reinforce discriminatory livelihood roles and options for women (and men).	Occurred in some programmes
7. FFA governance structures and positions, such as committees and supervisors, reinforce unequal gender relations in communities when not correctly implemented.	Occurred in some communities within programmes
<b>WN</b>	
8. Targeting nutritionally-vulnerable household members as FFA <i>participants</i> (rather than FFA <i>beneficiaries</i> ).	Occurred in one programme
9. Cash transfers are not enough to afford a nutritious diet.	Occurred in most programmes
10. Vegetable gardens do not provide the foods to diversify the diet as expected.	Occurred in most programmes
11. Lack of alternative water sources creates the precondition for people to consume water from FFA water reservoirs that were designed for animal consumption or domestic responsibilities.	Occurred in most communities where there are reservoirs

### 4.3.1 Common to WSEE and WN

#### Challenge 1: Women are over-burdened by the additional demands posed by FFA work norms in addition to their domestic responsibilities.

##### Description:

In study countries, time-use studies show that women typically work longer hours than men. On days where they undertake FFA work, many women wake up one or two hours earlier to accommodate their work. Most women are not able to share household responsibilities, like cooking or water collection, with other household members; instead working extra hours to complete all their tasks.

This study found that in spite of the guidance some FFA projects do not appropriately account for women's unpaid care and domestic work. In one country, the work norms for breastfeeding women were not reduced. Given that breastfeeding a new-born baby can take up to eight hours a day, women reported that they either take an hour longer to complete their work due to frequent breaks for breastfeeding. Some women said that on days they work, they do not breastfeed their babies adequately.

In some countries, no adjustments were made for bad years. Four of the five countries<sup>135</sup> were experiencing drought during the time of the study. In one community, women had to spend up to four hours longer each day to collect water, as local water sources had dried up. As they had poor harvests (with yields of 20 to 30 percent of normal harvests), women had to spend extra time collecting wild foods or getting another source of income. The continuation of 'normal year' FFA conditions had meant that women were severely overburdened. Work norms should be reduced and/or the transfer increased during bad years.

In the absence on clear guidance from Country Offices to Cooperating Partners, some Cooperating Partners had left decision-making to communities or committees on how to determine work norms and practices for at-risk women, including PLW, elderly women, women with disabilities, and women from households with limited labour capacity. While most communities have good intentions, they may make decisions based on local practices and may not be fully informed about the risks that this poses, such as the risk of underweight babies. For example, in some communities, pregnant women were expected to do 'normal work' up till a week or so prior to giving birth.

The impacts of overburdening women include fatigue, ill-health, poor care practices (including for children), and opportunity cost in undertaking other activities, including earning an income.

##### Mitigating measures:

- ▶ Adjust timing for implementation of FFA and existing workloads, particularly on women and caregivers.
- ▶ Adopt fair work norms.
- ▶ Accommodate specific requirements for those households over-burdened with work related to the care of children or other responsibilities but willing to participate in FFA activities.
- ▶ Establish specific work norms for PLW and households with less or no labour capacity.
- ▶ Establish specific but physically light tasks for PLW and households with limited labour capacities; such as child caring or distributing water for FFA workers.
- ▶ Provide unconditional assistance for highly vulnerable and food insecure households that have no labour capacity.
- ▶ Provide sufficient breaks for care taking and feeding activities.
- ▶ Provide a set of alternatives to women with young infants and children, such as baby-sitting and crèches.

##### In addition:

- ▶ Ensure that WFP and Cooperating Partner staff are familiar with risks associated with overburdening women, and mitigation measures.
- ▶ Ensure that work norms are reduced during bad years.
- ▶ Establish a clear guidance on work and PLW.

<sup>135</sup>Niger being the only country experiencing a normal year.

### Resources:

- ▶ Gender Toolkit: Gender and FFA ([How](#))
- ▶ FFA PGM: [Chapter 3 – Section 4.1 Gender](#)
- ▶ FFA PGM: [Chapter 6 – Section 3.4 How to establish work norms?](#)
- ▶ FFA PGM: [Chapter 3 – Section 5.2 FFA implementation modalities supporting nutrition](#)

## Missed opportunity 2: Sensitisation in the areas of health, nutrition, rights, etc is not included, or sensitisation was only provided to women and not men.

### Description:

A wide range of sensitisation topics were provided as a complementary action to FFA programmes. Sensitisation topics included women's rights, GBV, SRHR, malaria prevention, diet, hygiene, care practices, infant and young child feeding (IYCF), and child growth monitoring. The sensitisation was delivered by a range of actors – government, other UN agencies, NGOs, and sometimes WFP – using FFA as a platform. For many women and men in this study, the sensitisation sessions provided valuable access to information and linkages with referral services. For example, in Guatemala, following an information session on cervical cancer, a woman leader lobbied to have transport provided for women to go to the nearest hospital to get pap smears. This resulted in early intervention of cervical cancer for three women.

Given the clear benefits of the sensitisation sessions, when it is not included, it is a missed opportunity to provide women and men with information. WFP's role here is to deliver, or invite other actors to deliver, their messages through FFA as a platform. Attendance at sensitisation sessions can either be considered a work norm or a soft condition.

When sensitisation is provided to both women and men, it promotes joint decision making in the household. In Niger, men said that having a better understanding of safe birth practices in health centres meant that they could support their wives in accessing these services. Similarly, when the benefits of exclusive breastfeeding were explained to men, they could support these practices. When sensitisation, such as on nutrition or care practices, is provided to only women, this confines these responsibilities to women; thereby perpetuating discriminatory gender roles.

### Mitigating measures:

- ▶ Invite a range of actors – government, other UN agencies, or NGOs – to provide sensitisation on topics relating to WSEE and WN.
- ▶ Explicitly invite both women and men to sensitisation sessions.
- ▶ Consider making attendance at sensitisation sessions a work norm or a soft condition.

### Resources:

- ▶ Gender Toolkit: [Partnerships](#)

## Challenge 3: Single year, rather than multi-year programmes, mean that programmes cannot bring about sustainable change.

### Description:

Empowering women and improving nutrition (through nutrition-sensitive actions) often involves long impact pathways with multiple actions over multiple seasons. Programmes that are designed as single-year interventions are less likely to be able to bring about sustained change unless actions are designed as a comprehensive package of sensitisation, training, assets, etc. In the Zimbabwe case study, women took a few months to develop confidence to request more complex responsibilities. Actions involving agriculture, like SWC and vegetable gardens, take multiple seasons of learning.

The main constraint to multi-year programmes is funding. Where possible, multi-year programmes working with the same caseload of beneficiaries is encouraged.

### Mitigating measures:

- ▶ Develop multi-year programmes with the same caseload of beneficiaries.

### Resources:

- ▶ See Zimbabwe case study for example of comprehensive package of sensitisation, training, and assets.

## Challenge 4: FFA projects do not articulate project-level impact pathways for WSEE and WN, and consequently have few monitoring indicators to track changes WSEE and WN.

### Description:

In all five countries studied, WFP staff could explain how it was intended that FFA would contribute to women's empowerment and improved nutrition. No FFA project, however, had documented project-level impact pathways (or theories of change) to empower women and/or improve nutrition. Programmes seeking to empower women and/or improve nutrition (through nutrition-sensitive actions), typically have long impact pathways, requiring multiple interventions to be delivered simultaneously. Therefore, articulating the impact pathways can be useful.<sup>136</sup> As highlighted in the Nutrition-Sensitive Guidance, findings from monitoring that occurs during the life of the programme can inform adjustments to improve implementation; detecting where specific bottlenecks may be occurring along the pathway. Currently, monitoring systems tend to be oriented towards activity tracking, rather than measuring changes experienced by beneficiaries.

Across the country case studies, data collection focused on the indicators from the WFP corporate indicators.<sup>137</sup> Several indicators relating to gender equality were collected:

- ▶ sex-disaggregated data for FFA beneficiaries and FFA participants;<sup>138</sup>
- ▶ decision making on the transfer (women only, men only, or joint); and
- ▶ proportion of committee members who are women.

WFP staff interviewed regarded women's participation in FFA work as a proxy for women's empowerment. Women's participation may not, however, be a sign of their empowerment. While changes in decision-making is a good indicator of intra-household dynamics, this study has found that the indicator ("Proportion of households where women, men, or both women and men make decisions on the use of food/cash/vouchers, disaggregated by transfer modality"<sup>139</sup>) is a blunt tool. There is a diversity of what 'joint decision making' means; a man can provide some control to women but still have veto and ultimate control.

While corporate indicators serve their purpose as global aggregates, ideally, project-level WSEE impact pathways and indicators can support more pro-active and adaptive management. For example, where an FFA project works to empower women through reducing workload and improving livelihoods, representative data on time saved or increased income should be collected. Currently, WFP does not have guidance on monitoring women's empowerment processes. A set of gender equality indicators for Asset Creation and Livelihood activities are forthcoming. Internationally, there has been a significant body of work on how to measure women's empowerment that can be further drawn on.<sup>140</sup>

For nutrition, few nutrition-sensitive indicators were collected on FFA projects studied. The guidance requires that objectives and indicators are incorporated in the project and recommends that there should ideally be project-level WN pathways and indicators.<sup>141</sup> For example, projects seeking to improve nutrition through integrating nutrition messaging or establishing vegetable gardens can track changes in nutrition behaviour, minimum dietary diversity for women (MDD-W)<sup>142</sup> or income.

<sup>136</sup> See the Nutrition-Sensitive Guidance's section on [programme impact pathways](#) for examples.

<sup>137</sup> This included food security data: the food consumption score (FCS), dietary diversity score (DDS), coping strategies index (CSI), Consolidated Approach for Reporting Indicators of Food Security (CARI), community asset score (CAS).

<sup>138</sup> In most countries, the gender of the FFA participant that was registered, but this was not updated with substitutions. For example, if a man registered, but the woman worked.

<sup>139</sup> Indicator C.3.1, which is an indicator for Result C.3. Improved gender equality and women's empowerment among WFP-assisted population, [WFP Corporate Results Framework 2017-2021](#).

<sup>140</sup> See for example, the [guidance](#) developed by the Donor Committee for Enterprise Development, or [research work](#) undertaken by Oxfam.

<sup>141</sup> See the Nutrition-Sensitive Manual's section on [nutrition-sensitive indicators](#) for examples.

<sup>142</sup> Now newly included in the [WFP Corporate Results Framework 2017-2021](#).



At the time of the study, progress was underway in Sri Lanka to develop an impact pathway and M&E system for a new FFA project using guidance in the Nutrition-Sensitive Guidance.

#### Mitigating measures:

- ▶ Select meaningful project-level M&E indicators to measure progress, outcomes and track unintended effects, for women and men and in relation to gender equality and women’s empowerment.
- ▶ Develop project-level impact pathways and select indicators in line with the Nutrition-Sensitive Guidance.
- ▶ Ensure that monitoring systems inform adjustments during the life of the projects.

#### Resources:

- ▶ Nutrition-Sensitive Guidance: [Step Four: Monitoring and Documentation](#)
- ▶ Gender Toolkit: [Monitoring](#)
- ▶ Gender Toolkit: [Gender and Food Assistance for Assets](#)

### 4.3.2 Women’s socioeconomic empowerment

**Challenge 5: Inappropriately determined transfers distort participation ratios of women and men in FFA work due to pre-existing cultural norms and economic barriers.**

#### Description:

The FFA PGM includes a section on determining the FFA modality and transfer value.<sup>143</sup> The Cash and Voucher Manual provides guidance on calculating the transfer value based on the food gap comprising both macro and micronutrient requirements, and based on the local diet and local market prices. Based on food gap calculations, in some contexts, the transfer value may be lower than market wage rate. FFA transfers are also set below the market rate as it helps self-selection of the poorest community members and prevents distorting the local labour market.<sup>144</sup> In some countries, FFA is not seen as compensation for work, but as a small incentive for community works that are required anyway. The FFA PGM recommends an approach of adjusting the transfer (in monetary terms) to approximately 80 to 90 percent of the local average wage for unskilled workers.

Due to pre-existing cultural norms and economic barriers, the transfer value can influence the gender participation ratios. Across four countries<sup>145</sup>, transfer values (in US\$) were compared to women’s participation. Acknowledging imperfections<sup>146</sup> in the country comparisons, it appears that the lower the transfer, the less likely it is the men will participate in FFA work (see Table 4.5).

In Kenya and Sri Lanka, the two countries with the lowest rate of male participation, the low transfer value – along with delays in payment – was cited as a key reason for many men deciding to not participate. In Sri Lanka, the market rate for unskilled labour is 1,200 rupees per day for men and 600 rupees for women. The transfer rate of 360 rupees (US\$2.20) per day meant too much of an opportunity cost for men to participate. In Kenya, many of the men who work on FFA (particularly elderly men) do so because they are unable to obtain other work. Men had indicated that it was part of many households’ strategy to have men working for daily or weekly income further away from home, and for women on FFA closer to home for a less regularly paid income.

**Table 4.5.** The relationship between transfer value and women’s participation across four study countries

	Transfer value per day	Women’s participation
<b>Niger</b>	Equivalent to US\$8.09 per day <sup>147</sup>	Under 5 percent
<b>Zimbabwe</b>	US\$3.67 per day x 15 days per month	Over 50 percent
<b>Sri Lanka</b>	US\$2.20 per day x 20 days per month	Over 67 percent
<b>Kenya</b>	Equivalent to US\$1 per day <sup>148</sup>	About 70 percent

<sup>143</sup> See FFA PGM [Chapter 6, Section 2 – FFA Transfer Modality and Value](#).

<sup>144</sup> According to the [FFA PGM](#), a transfer which, in monetary terms, equals or exceeds the wage rates normally provided for unskilled labour in the FFA targeted area may divert workers away from the private sector.

<sup>145</sup> Guatemala was not included as there was no cash transfer provided. The cash equivalent of the food ration had not been determined. Furthermore, the amount of time spent on work reportedly varied greatly from household to household, ranging from 4 to 20 days.

<sup>146</sup> Imperfections in this comparison include not taking into account purchasing power parity or the local wage rates in each context.

When the transfer value is set low, high women's participation in FFA may not be a sign of gender transformation or women's empowerment; rather it signifies pre-existing cultural norms where there is a lower valuation of women and of their labour, relative to men. Women's higher rate of participation may indicate that most men are not interested in the FFA work, as it is perceived as poorly remunerated and unreliable. In some countries in this study, women participated because they felt they had no other employment prospects nearby. Women may have felt obliged to work so that the community can get the asset; reflective of a social norm that differentially values (evidenced through the quantity and nature of the compensation) women's and men's labour and time.

In Kenya, men indicated in FGDs that they would increase their participation if the transfer value is raised. This raises the issue of another risk: that if transfer values are raised, women may be pushed out of the programme. This may, in turn, reduce women's control over the transfer, in addition to the many other benefits of their participation.

The inverse relationship between transfer value and women's participation raises three questions: Is there a way of ensuring women's place in FFA even if the transfer value is commensurate with the market minimum wage for men? Is there an optimum transfer value where both women and men participate, and no one group is effectively excluded? If the transfer value is set lower than the local average wage for men, are there other non-monetary incentives or benefits that can be provided for women to improve their longer-term food security and livelihoods, such as technical training, soft skills training, access to credit, and access to markets?

In Zimbabwe, women's participation was just over 50 percent even though the transfer value was comparatively high. This is, however, likely due to the very high rate of male migration to South Africa for work.

#### **Mitigation measures:**

This study revealed an inverse relationship (in four countries) between the transfer value and women's participation in FFA activities. Given the complexity of this issue, further work is required to recommend mitigation measures. An example of such work could be to study FFA programmes where this inverse relationship does not apply, so as to identify and understand the actions and contextual factors that support fair transfer values and women's participation. In the absence of such work, actions to take include:

- ▶ promoting women's participation in FFA work (see Key success factor 1);
- ▶ establishing transfer values in line with the Cash and Voucher Manual and FFA PGM;
- ▶ providing non-monetary incentives and benefits for participating women, such as technical training, soft skills training, access to credit, and access to markets; and
- ▶ monitoring gender participation ratios, and as necessary, understand the dynamics and decision making behind who participates. If necessary, take corrective action to promote women's participation.

#### **Resources:**

- ▶ FFA PGM: [Chapter 6 – Section 2.4 Determining the FFA transfer value](#)
- ▶ [Cash and Vouchers Manual](#). Section A.4.1 Transfer Value Calculation FFA PGM: Chapter 3 – Section 3.6. The Decent Work Agenda (DWA)
- ▶ Gender Toolkit: [Gender Analysis](#)
- ▶ Gender Toolkit: [Participation](#)
- ▶ Gender Toolkit: [Monitoring](#)

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<sup>147</sup> As per SPR200583, the work requirement in Niger was 13 days per month for seven months. A transfer of US\$67 per month was provided for 11 months of the year (4 months unconditional transfer). This is the equivalent of US\$737 for 91 days of work, or US\$8.09 per day of work.

<sup>148</sup> At the time of the study, the work requirement in Kenya was 12 days per month for 12 months of the year (total 144 days). A transfer of US\$20 was provided for only 7 months of the year, coinciding with the food gap. This is the equivalent of US\$140 for 144 days of work, or US\$1 per day of work.

## Challenge 6: Limited analysis and pre-existing cultural norms create the preconditions for FFA activities to reinforce discriminatory livelihood roles and options for women (and men).

### Description:

Women's livelihoods and income were high priorities for women in all five countries. As mentioned in WSEE Change 6 (Section 4.1.1), women's income supports reducing women's financial dependency and is especially important for women heads of households.

Selecting the livelihoods to support through FFA can be challenging; and require participatory gender analyses. Livelihoods need to be near the home, be balanced with household responsibilities, be aligned with women's capacities and priorities, yet be financially viable and provide a meaningful return. Many women's traditional livelihood options, such as food processing, poultry rearing, or basket weaving, may not be profitable unless a market is guaranteed, supply chain is improved, or the quality of their produce is raised. Women may be unfamiliar with potential livelihood opportunities, and may confine their livelihood options to familiar 'women's livelihoods' that are unprofitable, with limited prospect of breaking cycles of poverty and food insecurity. Women may lack confidence in challenging traditional gender roles. For example, in the Zimbabwe case study, women were reluctant to try stone masonry until female builder trainers provided training in their community. Yet, given the changes in many communities visited, such as male migration, women often need to assume non-traditional livelihoods, such as cattle rearing.

Identifying livelihood opportunities requires WFP to work with partners with the right capacities; to conduct gender analysis-informed value chain or market assessments, provide skills development, and to facilitate the market linkages.

FFA projects need to steer away from reinforcing discriminatory roles and confining women's livelihood options. In some programmes, training was confined to traditional gender roles. For example, only men get builder training (which provides many economic opportunities), while women attend cooking classes (providing fewer if any economic opportunities). When talking about 'women's livelihoods', WFP staff interviewed often spoke about small-scale low-profit ventures, while the changing economies (such as with male migration and increasing numbers of female-headed households) means that women are increasingly taking on the role of primary income earner. WFP must thus ask: Will the income provided by this livelihood be meaningful? Would this livelihood be considered by a man? If not, why not? Are the livelihoods that men are pursuing more rewarding and more profitable? If yes, how can WFP support women to pursue such livelihoods?

### Mitigation measures:

- ▶ Form partnerships with actors with the capacities to identify and support viable livelihoods for women.
- ▶ Carefully assess livelihood options that are being proposed for women, including questioning assumptions that underlie selecting livelihoods.

### Resources:

- ▶ FFA PGM: [Chapter 4 – Section 6. FFA activities – a gender perspective](#)
- ▶ Gender Toolkit: [Gender Analysis](#)

## Challenge 7: FFA governance structures and positions, such as committees and supervisors, reinforce unequal gender relations in communities when not correctly implemented.

### Description:

FFA governance structures and positions have the potential to place women in leadership positions, such as committee leaders or supervisors. This can have a role-modelling effect, and transform social norms. Most of the communities studied had equal representation of women and men in committees. Two communities in Guatemala had women-only committees, because men were likely to takeover mixed committees.<sup>149</sup>

In a small number of communities, FFA positions were overwhelmingly or exclusively filled by men. These were due to concerns – often from both women and men – that women cannot take on such roles because they are too busy at home, have low literacy, or are not skilled in leadership. Such concerns can be addressed through support and training.

### Mitigation measures:

- ▶ Ensure that committees require equal representation of women and men. If there is a risk of men dominating or taking over the committees, address through education and membership requirements, consider requiring majority women, or supplement with women-only committees.<sup>150</sup>
- ▶ Support women's participation in committees and other leadership positions, such as through scheduling meetings at times that suit women, providing a space for children to play while women meet, etc.
- ▶ Provide training to support women in leadership roles.
- ▶ Educate men about the value of diverse leadership.

### Resources:

- ▶ FFA PGM: [Chapter 4 – Section 6. FFA activities – a gender perspective](#)
- ▶ Gender Toolkit: [Participation](#)

<sup>149</sup> Men who were interviewed said that this was a significant risk in mixed committees.

<sup>150</sup> Zimbabwe had FFA committees of four women and three men, placing women in the majority for decision making. Guatemala encouraged women-only FFA committees.



### 4.3.3 Improving women's nutrition

#### Challenge 8: Targeting nutritionally-vulnerable household members as FFA participants, rather than FFA beneficiaries.

##### Description:

FFA participants are defined, in the FFA PGM, as the persons who do the activities – work and training. FFA beneficiaries, on the other hand, are the persons who benefit from the transfer that is received for the assets built. In some programmes, the targeting of households with nutritionally-vulnerable members, like, PLW or persons with chronically illnesses, was misunderstood as meaning that these nutritionally-vulnerable members should be the FFA participants undertaking the work; whereas the intention was for them to benefit from the transfer.

Given their vulnerability, the nutritionally-vulnerable household member (particularly PLW) should not be automatically designated as the FFA participant. Their participation in works can compound difficulties in meeting nutrient requirements and contribute to poor health. Where nutritionally-vulnerable persons do work, the work assigned to them should be adapted to their requirements; varying types of work or revising work norms.

When carers of nutritionally-vulnerable members (e.g., young children) are the FFA participants, they may face time constraints due to their participation in the FFA work. This, in turn, can compromise care practices. Any potential negative impacts need to be considered to ensure that carers are able to provide adequate care.

##### Mitigating measures:

- ▶ Ensure that WFP staff and Cooperating Partners understand the distinction between FFA participants and FFA beneficiaries.
- ▶ Ensure that households have flexibility as to who represents the household in work. Where the nutritionally-vulnerable household member works, then take measures such as:
- ▶ select lighter work and lighter work norms for nutritionally-vulnerable persons, taking into account their particular nutrition needs;
- ▶ provide unconditional support to households with no able-bodied persons, such as to PLW during specific periods;
- ▶ adjust timing of FFA activities to support nutrition and health; and
- ▶ provide sufficient breaks, such as for rest, care taking and feeding of babies.

##### Resources:

- ▶ FFA PGM: [Chapter 8 – Section 1.2.1 Targeting, planning and beneficiaries](#)
- ▶ FFA PGM: [Chapter 6 – Section 3.4 How to establish work norms?](#)
- ▶ FFA PGM: [Chapter 3 – Section 5.2 FFA implementation modalities supporting nutrition](#)
- ▶ Gender Toolkit: [Gender and FFA](#)

#### Challenge 9: Cash transfers are not enough to afford a nutritious diet.

##### Description:

In some of the countries studied, the cash transfer – alongside other interventions – was not enough to afford a nutritious diet. Transfers are often calculated based on a calorie, rather than nutrient, gap. The WFP Cash and Voucher Manual provides guidance for calculating the transfer value to fill the food gap of both macro and micronutrient requirements based on the local diet and local market prices. A nutritious diet is usually more expensive as it requires more fresh food, such as fruit, vegetables and protein-rich foods specifically those of animal origin. In Sri Lanka, for example, the cost of a nutritious diet was 12,721 rupees compared to 6,360 rupees for a non-nutritious but calorie-adequate diet during the Yala season in 2013-2014.<sup>151</sup>

While FFA assets can – in the medium and long term – contribute to a more nutritious diet, they often are unable to support immediate food needs, particularly for nutritionally-vulnerable groups.

<sup>151</sup> WFP 2015. [Minimum Cost of Nutritious Diet, Sri Lanka, October 2013-2014](#), p. 7

### Mitigating measures:

- ▶ Ensure that the cash transfer is sufficient to meet nutritional needs, in line with WFP Nutrition-Sensitive Guidance and WFP Cash and Voucher Manual. The transfer should be sufficient to enable access to a nutritious diet (including not only quantity but quality and thus meet macro and micronutrient requirements); not just a calorie-adequate diet.
- ▶ Add a fortified complementary food or an extra transfer for nutritionally-vulnerable groups.

### Resources:

- ▶ [Cash and Vouchers Manual](#), Section A.4.1 Transfer Value Calculation
- ▶ Nutrition-Sensitive Guidance: [Step 3 – Take action. Food Assistance for Assets \(FFA\) See 3.1](#)
- ▶ FFA PGM: [Chapter 6 – Section 2.2 Defining and standardizing the food and nutrient gap.](#)
- ▶ FFA PGM: [Chapter 6 – Section 2.4 Determining the FFA transfer value.](#)

## Challenge 10: Vegetable gardens do not provide the foods to diversify the diet as expected.

### Description:

Vegetable gardens are a popular FFA asset aimed at improving nutrition. Where vegetable gardens are successful, they can provide a good year-round source of food and income, particularly for women. They can also be the site for training and demonstrations by agricultural extension services.

Despite this, many FFA vegetable gardens fail to be successful or sustainable after project duration. The following were some challenges observed across several countries.

- ▶ Vegetable gardens were not located sufficiently close to homes for daily maintenance and for guarding from theft.
- ▶ Tenure of the vegetable garden was not secured, discouraging investments – fencing, irrigation infrastructure, improvement of soil fertility – in the garden.
- ▶ Vegetable gardens take too much time to water or maintain. Water needs to be carried from too great a distance, making it a non-viable source of dry-season vegetable growing.
- ▶ The model of management and ownership of the vegetable gardens is ineffective. Joint ownership of vegetable gardens may not work in every context, resulting in garden beds being disused due to conflict over workloads and sharing of produce. Yet, if there is significant irrigation infrastructure (pump, tank, pipes, etc.), this is required for operation and maintenance. One successful model (in Zimbabwe) was allotments of garden beds within a communal garden area.
- ▶ Vegetable gardens were too small to provide sufficient quantity of vegetables for home consumption and sales.
- ▶ Training and demonstration was not provided by a skilled agricultural extension worker, resulting in vegetable gardens having low productivity.
- ▶ In subsistence or 'own consumption' communities: only 'flavouring' vegetables were planted, rather than vegetables that address micronutrient deficiencies, such as Vitamin A and iron-folate.

### Mitigating measures:

- ▶ Locate vegetable gardens close to water sources and households.
- ▶ Ensure the permanent tenure of the gardens. This will encourage investment in the garden.
- ▶ Invest in the garden's infrastructure to ensure that it is sustainable. Examples include:
  - fencing to reduce theft of vegetables and destruction by animals;
  - irrigation infrastructure – pump, tank, distribution pipes, micro-irrigation, watering troughs – to reduce time and effort required for watering; and
  - latrines to provide dignity and safety when tending the vegetable gardens.

- ▶ Ensure that the model of management and ownership can be viable in the local context. Ensure that a committee (or other suitable body) is established to operate and maintain the infrastructure, including in the collection of fees, organising repairs, etc.
- ▶ Link with agricultural extension services to plan, provide training and demonstrations on how to grow year-round, nutritious range of vegetables.
- ▶ Promote vegetables on the basis of nutrient deficiencies following a thorough analysis; like green leafy vegetables in areas of high anaemia and papayas or pumpkins in areas with Vitamin A deficiency.

#### Resources:

- ▶ Zimbabwe country case study report documents the programme's good practice in FFA nutrition gardens.
- ▶ FFA PGM: [Chapter 4 – Section 6. FFA activities – a gender perspective](#)

### Challenge 11: Lack of alternative water sources creates the precondition for people to consume water from FFA water reservoirs that were designed for animal consumption or domestic responsibilities.

#### Description:

Water reservoirs, such as ponds, pans, weirs, are FFA assets that have a significant potential to improve nutrition through reducing workload and hardship, improving hygiene and supporting livelihoods. A challenge is that in contexts with a limited number of water sources, people drink or prepare food with unsafe water from these reservoirs. This results in, a greater risk of diarrheal diseases.

In some countries, there are other actors, such as government and civil society, that can provide training and technology (water filters, water purification sachets etc.) for water purification. These actors can be invited to provide support in water purification.

#### Mitigating measures:

- ▶ Provide sensitisation that the water from water reservoirs is unsafe and not intended for drinking or food preparation.
- ▶ Link with other actors that can provide training and technology for water purification.

#### Resources:

- ▶ Guidance from Asset Creation and Livelihood Unit is forthcoming.

# 5 Conclusion

The objective of the study was to explore the potential of how FFA and complementary actions can empower women and improve their nutrition. This study found that FFA programmes can indeed transform gender dynamics, empower women and improve their nutrition. From the five countries, FFA supported WSEE and WN through the following actions.

**Gender-transformative three-pronged approach (3PA including ICAs, SLPs and CBPPs).** Good planning and quality assets were critical to achieving women's empowerment and women's nutrition outcomes. Planning led to women's empowerment or nutrition outcomes when women and men were equitably involved in CBPPs (or other planning processes) and when the plans were developed with strong gender equality and nutrition elements.

**Committees.** Women were empowered when they held key leadership positions in community committees that oversee FFA works (Kenya), food distribution (Guatemala) or asset management (Zimbabwe). Leadership in FFA can lead to women having a stronger role in community decision-making and governance (Guatemala). When committee members are trained in such skills as leadership, management and conflict resolution, it increases women's confidence in carrying out their leadership roles (Zimbabwe).

**FFA work.** The process of bringing women and men together to work on a shared (group or community) asset provided valuable opportunities for women (and men) to (a) form new friendships; (b) establish and be part of support networks, and (c) strengthen their sense of self-efficacy and self-worth (Niger, Kenya and Zimbabwe). Women reported using new networks to support each other in times of crisis and to seek or provide advice. Work sites can model gender relations with women and men working together as equals (Zimbabwe and Sri Lanka). Work arrangements need to be mindful of women's needs, particularly of PLW's nutritional and health requirements.

**Assets.** Assets, when strategically selected to consider the needs and priorities of women and men, can (a) significantly reduce women's workload and hardship, particularly in relation to unpaid domestic work, such as carrying water; (b) create opportunities to generate an income, and (c) improve diet. Water harvesting assets, such as dams and ponds, can reduce a woman's workload

by up to three hours per day. When layered with additional assets, such as wash basins and nutrition gardens, this can create an 'asset package' that yields significant change for women's lives and the nutrition of their households (Zimbabwe).

Irrigated vegetable gardens can significantly improve the stability, diversity and quality of diets when they are accompanied with good planning, agricultural training and nutrition messages for a year-round 'rainbow' diet (Zimbabwe). Small-scale irrigation infrastructure, such as pipes and watering troughs, mean that the time and energy required for watering is reduced, and that households can sustainably maintain the gardens even through seasons with household labour scarcity. Other assets, such as water reservoirs, latrines, roads and energy-saving stoves, can promote better health and hygiene (Kenya, Zimbabwe, Guatemala and Sri Lanka).

When women and men's long-term and equitable access to the assets are secured, they are more likely to be able to invest their energies and resources in them (Kenya and Zimbabwe).

**Transfers.** Transfers provide immediate relief and provide space for women and men to work on their longer-term food security and livelihoods. Cash transfers may be used differently when provided to a woman or a man (Zimbabwe). Messaging around the use of the cash increases the chances of joint decision-making between women and men (Zimbabwe) and the cash being spent on food (Niger). Nutrition messaging can potentially lead to women and men purchasing more nutritious foods.

**Sensitisation.** Sensitisation on hygiene, nutrition and gender equality for both women and men can potentially improve knowledge, and change attitudes and practices (Niger and Zimbabwe). Sensitisation can be used to promote joint decision-making in households and a redistribution of unpaid care and domestic work within households (Zimbabwe). FFA can be a platform from which other actors provide messaging, referrals or service delivery in GBV and SRHR for example (Niger, Zimbabwe, Guatemala). When women and men are introduced to other actors – government entities, health centres, civil society organisations – FFA programming builds their networks and enhances their ability to seek services beyond the programme life (Zimbabwe, Guatemala).

**Technical training.** Many women and men identified the technical training that they received,



such as in agriculture, soil-water conservation and construction, as being the most significant FFA action to bring about changes in women's empowerment and nutrition. In addition to providing the opportunity to develop knowledge and skills, training has an 'empowering', confidence and resilience-building effects. Training can also support nutrition-sensitive actions, e.g. growing nutrient-dense food or promoting good hygiene practices (Kenya, Zimbabwe).

**Complementary actions.** Agricultural extension, group farming, value chain facilitation, savings-and-loan groups, and latrine construction are some of the complementary actions with reported success in empowering women and improving their nutrition.

# 6 Recommendations

While the study confirmed the potential of FFA to empower women and improve their nutrition, there remain gaps across WFP's FFA programmes globally. Over the past years, the focus has been on promoting women's participation in FFA programmes. This study has found that women's participation in FFA activities is a necessary precondition, but not a guarantee, of WSEE. A shift is required for WFP to realise its ambition for its food assistance programmes, including FFA, to be gender transformative and to empower women.<sup>152</sup>

Similarly, the emphasis is only now broadening from not only improving food security but to simultaneously improve nutrition. WFP's recently-introduced Nutrition-Sensitive Guidance (March 2017), along with updates to the FFA PGM, provides much-needed guidance to support the inclusion of nutrition objectives and nutrition-sensitive activities in to FFA programming.

To advance women's empowerment and improve nutrition, the following need to be addressed:

**1. Promote women's participation, social cohesion and leadership.** Women's participation in FFA activities, including FFA work, technical training, and complementary services, is a precondition for their equitable benefit and empowerment. This study found that women's participation in FFA activities brought many benefits, including better social cohesion, women's organisation, women's leadership, improved skills, and transformed gender dynamics.

Further action is required of FFA programmes to promote women's participation, social cohesion and leadership. Examples include ensuring that women are not over-burdened (e.g., ensuring flexible and appropriate work times, tailored and appropriate work norms), women's work teams, women's group assets, supporting women's membership in FFA committees, and providing training to FFA committee members to foster leadership skills. Further work is required to systematise and take these actions to scale across FFA programmes globally.

**2. Use appropriate transfer values.** Across most programmes studied, inappropriately determined transfers distorted the participation ratios of women and men in FFA work. When transfers were low, men were less likely to participate in the FFA work. In these situations, high women's participation in

FFA may not be a sign of gender transformation or women's empowerment; rather it signifies pre-existing cultural norms where there is lower valuation of women and their labour, relative to men. Action is required to ensure women's place in FFA even when the transfer value is increased. Alternatively, action is required to ensure that women receive other non-monetary incentives or benefits to improve their longer-term food security and livelihoods, such as technical training, soft skills training, access to credit and access to markets.

The study found that transfer values were not enough to afford a nutritious diet. Transfers were often calculated based on a calorie, rather than nutrient, gap. A nutritious diet is usually more expensive as it requires more fresh food, e.g., fruit and vegetables, and protein-rich foods. While FFA assets, can – in the medium and long term – contribute to a more nutritious diet, they are often unable to support immediate food needs, particularly for nutritionally-vulnerable groups. Action is therefore required to adjust transfer values based on a nutrient gap.

**3. Promote women's skills, livelihoods, and income.** Across many communities, women and men spoke of the skills gained from the FFA programme as leading to lifelong change. Livelihoods and income were high priorities for women across the five countries. It was particularly important for women household heads, who are usually solely responsible for providing for their families.

FFA has significant potential to improve women's skills, livelihoods, and income through both FFA and complementary actions delivered by partners. Supportive FFA actions include assets that support women's livelihoods or save labour, and technical training. Supportive complementary activities include training (e.g., livelihoods and financial management), value chain facilitation, and access to credit. This is a nascent area of work within WFP's programming toolbox, and the study highlighted both successes (e.g., brokering relationships with agricultural exporters and FFA groups) and pitfalls (e.g., confining women's livelihood options to small-scale and unprofitable ventures). Further work is required to develop WFP's capacity and partnerships in this area and linkages with FFA programmes.

<sup>152</sup> [WFP Gender Policy 2015-2020](#), also citing Summary Evaluation Report of the WFP Gender Policy (2008-2013) (WFP/EB.1/2014/5-A\*)

#### 4. Use FFA as a platform for nutrition messaging and awareness raising on rights and referrals.

The study highlighted the potential of using FFA programmes as a platform for sensitisation on a wide range of topics including women’s rights, GBV, SRHR, malaria prevention, diet, hygiene, care practices, infant and young child feeding (IYCF), and child growth monitoring. WFP can potentially act as an enabler, with the sensitisation delivered by partners such as Government or other service providers. This appeared to be most successful when partners provided the sensitisation to both women and men (not only women).

Despite the potential benefits, currently only a few FFA programmes deliver sensitisation initiatives. Further work is required to document good practice and develop guidance and partnerships to take this to scale.

#### 5. Impact pathways and measurement.

Although WFP staff have a clear vision of how their FFA projects contribute to women’s empowerment and improving nutrition, the study found that FFA projects currently do not have project-level impact pathways documenting how FFA (and complementary) actions empower women.

Mechanisms to measure changes in women’s empowerment and nutrition are limited.

To improve the quality of programming, with tangible and empowering impacts, putting in place impact pathways and indicators are essential. Findings from monitoring during programme-life can inform adjustments to implementation. Further guidance on WFP gender equality indicators will be drafted by the end of August 2017, and these will need further nuanced for FFA programming and rolled out.

In addition to the above general recommendations, detailed recommendations below are drawn from the five country case studies and the global workshop. The recommendations are framed as ‘must do’ and ‘can do’ actions to promote WSEE and WN. ‘Must do’ actions are to ensure that (a) FFA programmes do no harm, and (b) align FFA processes with corporate guidance for FFA, gender, nutrition and protection (See Annex 4). ‘Can do’ actions are designed to further improve the potential of FFA programmes to promote gender equality, empower women and improve nutrition, and ultimately achieve zero hunger results.

#### 6.1.1 Recommendations common to WSEE and WN

Recommendation	References in report	Existing WFP resources
<b>Must do</b>		
<b>Actions for Regional Bureaux and Country Offices</b>		
1. Ensure that women are not overburdened, particularly PLW.	Section 4.3.1 Challenge 1	Gender Toolkit: Gender and FFA ( <a href="#">How</a> ) FFA PGM: <a href="#">Chapter 3 – Section 4.1 Gender</a> FFA PGM: <a href="#">Chapter 6 – Section 3.4 How to establish work norms?</a> FFA PGM: <a href="#">Chapter 3 – Section 5.2 FFA implementation modalities supporting nutrition</a>
2. Adjust work norms and/or transfer to respond to changes in women’s workload in line with SLP, gender analyses and VAM assessments.	As above	As above
<b>Actions for HQ</b>		
3. Develop minimum standards for PLW’s work and communications materials to explain good practice and risks in working during pregnancy and lactation. Provide specific recommendations on the adjustments required to FFA participation during the last trimester of pregnancy and the following six months of exclusive breastfeeding.	Section 4.3.3 Challenge 8	FFA PGM: <a href="#">Chapter 6 – Section 3.4 How to establish work norms?</a> FFA PGM: <a href="#">Chapter 3 – Section 5.2 FFA implementation modalities supporting nutrition</a>

Can do		
<b>Actions for Regional Bureaux and Country Offices</b>		
1. Update CO-level FFA guidance, if any, to reflect findings of this study, the WFP Gender Toolkit, and the Nutrition-Sensitive Guidance.	All sections	-
2. Develop guidance to support governments <sup>153</sup> to implement and design gender transformative and nutrition-sensitive FFA programmes.	All sections	-
3. Move towards more integrated FFA programming where a gender-smart and nutrition-sensitive combination of assets, training, sensitisation, transfers and complementary actions all contribute towards women's empowerment and improved nutrition.	All sections	-
4. Move towards multi-year programming to ensure that WSEE and WN changes are durable.	Section 4.3.1 Challenge 3	-
5. Using FFA as a platform, provide sensitisation relating to WSEE and WN.	Section 4.2.1 WSEE Key success factor 7  Section 4.2.2 WN Key success factor 2  Section 4.3.1 Challenge 2	
<b>Actions for HQ</b>		
1. Further update FFA PGM with learnings from this study, including a compendium of WSEE and WN actions through the project cycle, 'cheat sheets' and good practice examples.	All sections	FFA PGM
2. Provide tools to support Country Offices and Regional Bureaux adequately budget for WSEE and WN activities.	-	-
3. Develop the capacity of FFA staff globally on how to promote women's empowerment and improve nutrition through FFA programming. This may include: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● training a cadre of FFA staff to have gender equality and nutrition-sensitive competencies to provide roving expertise within regions;</li> <li>● developing training materials and tools; and</li> <li>● develop a peer-learning platform for WFP staff.</li> </ul>	All sections	-
4. Fund pilot projects over a period of five years for further learning on gender transformative and nutrition-sensitive FFA programmes.	All sections	-

<sup>153</sup> Particularly, middle income countries directly implementing FFA.

### 6.1.1 Recommendations—Women’s socioeconomic empowerment

Recommendations	References in report	Existing WFP resources
<b>Must do</b>		
<b>Actions for Regional Bureaux and Country Offices</b>		
1. Use FFA governance structures, like committees, to promote women’s leadership.	Section 4.2.1. WSEE Key success factor 4	Gender Toolkit: <a href="#">Participation</a>
2. Adjust FFA programmes to remove barriers to women’s participation, and to ensure their free and fair participation.	Section 4.2.1. Key success factor 1  Section 4.3.2 on Challenge 5	Gender Toolkit: <a href="#">Participation</a>  Gender Toolkit: <a href="#">Implementation: HOW</a>  Gender Toolkit: <a href="#">Gender and FFA</a>  FFA PGM: <a href="#">Chapter 3 – Section 4.1. Gender</a>  FFA PGM: <a href="#">Chapter 4 – Section 6. FFA activities – a gender perspective</a>  FFA PGM: <a href="#">Chapter 8 – Section 1.2.1 Targeting, planning and beneficiaries</a>  FFA PGM: <a href="#">Chapter 6 – Section 2.4 Determining the FFA transfer value</a>  FFA PGM: <a href="#">Chapter 6 – Section 3. Productivity Work Norms (in particular Section 3.4)</a>
<b>Can do</b>		
<b>Actions for Regional Bureaux and Country Offices</b>		
1. Raise awareness on rights and referrals, particularly on women’s rights, GBV, and SRHR.	Section 4.2.1 WSEE Key success factor 7	FFA PGM: <a href="#">Chapter 4 – Section 6. FFA activities – a gender perspective</a>
2. Explore ways to promote viable women’s livelihoods through a combination of training, assets and complementary actions, like value chain facilitation and access to financial services and information.	Section 4.3.2 Challenge 6	FFA PGM: <a href="#">Chapter 4 – Section 6. FFA activities – a gender perspective</a>
<b>Actions for HQ</b>		
3. Develop guidance on women’s livelihoods, elaborating on the existing FFA PGM. Develop resource materials on successful complementary actions, including group formation, value chain facilitation and financial services.	Section 4.2.1 Key success factor 6  Section 4.3.2 Challenge 6	FFA PGM: <a href="#">Chapter 4 – Section 6. FFA activities – a gender perspective</a>
4. Explore ways to enhance linkages between FFA and other WFP or RBA programmes to promote women’s livelihoods, such as P4P, Rural Women’s Economic Empowerment Programme, home-grown school feeding.	Section 4.2.1 Key success factor 6  Section 4.3.2 Challenge 6	FFA PGM: <a href="#">Chapter 4 – Section 6. FFA activities – a gender perspective</a>



<p>5. Develop and test guidance on gender equality and women’s empowerment impact pathways and monitoring systems. Propose a set of gender equality and women’s empowerment indicators for measurement in FFA projects.<sup>154</sup> (See Section 4.3.1 on M&amp;E).</p>	<p>Section 4.3.1 Challenge 4</p>	<p>Gender Toolkit: <a href="#">Monitoring</a></p> <p>Gender Toolkit: <a href="#">Gender and Food Assistance for Assets</a></p>
<p>6. Conduct further research on the relationship between transfer value and participation ratios of women and men.</p>	<p>Section 4.3.2 Challenge 5</p>	<p>FFA PGM: <a href="#">Chapter 6 – Section 2.4 Determining the FFA transfer value</a></p> <p><a href="#">Cash and Vouchers Manual</a>. Section A.4.1 Transfer Value Calculation</p> <p>FFA PGM: <a href="#">Chapter 3 – Section 3.6. The Decent Work Agenda (DWA)</a></p> <p>Gender Toolkit: <a href="#">Gender Analysis</a></p> <p>Gender Toolkit: <a href="#">Participation</a></p> <p>Gender Toolkit: <a href="#">Monitoring</a></p>

### 6.1.3 Recommendations—Improving women’s nutrition

Recommendations	References in report	Existing WFP resources
<p><b>Must do</b></p>		
<p><b>Actions for Regional Bureaux and Country Offices</b></p>		
<p>1. Ensure that nutritionally-vulnerable FFA participants participate freely, and when they do participate, are supported by the programme (e.g., through guidelines and policies, by committees, by the Cooperating Partner and WFP).</p>	<p>Section 4.3.3 Challenge 8</p>	<p>FFA PGM: <a href="#">Chapter 8 – Section 1.2.1 Targeting, planning and beneficiaries</a></p> <p>FFA PGM: <a href="#">Chapter 6 – Section 3.4 How to establish work norms?</a></p> <p>FFA PGM: <a href="#">Chapter 3 – Section 5.2 FFA implementation modalities supporting nutrition</a></p>
<p>2. Ensure that transfers support a nutritious diet.</p>	<p>Section 4.2.2 Key success factor 3</p> <p>Section 4.3.3 Challenge 9</p>	<p><a href="#">Cash and Vouchers Manual</a>. Section A.4.1 Transfer Value Calculation</p> <p>FFA PGM: <a href="#">Chapter 3 – Section 5.2 FFA implementation modalities supporting nutrition</a></p> <p>Nutrition-Sensitive Guidance: <a href="#">Step 3 – Take action. Food Assistance for Assets (FFA) See 3.1</a></p>

<sup>154</sup> Currently in process by the WFP Gender Office.

► Take action on water reservoirs where people are drinking unsafe water.	Section 4.3.3 Challenge 11	-
<b>Can do</b>		
<b>Actions for Regional Bureaux and Country Offices</b>		
4. Use FFA as a platform to provide women and men with nutrition sensitisation and link to nutrition and health services	Section 4.2.2 Key success factor 2  Section 4.3.3 Missed Opportunity 2	Gender Toolkit: Stakeholder Analysis  Gender Toolkit: <a href="#">Partnerships</a>  FFA PGM: <a href="#">Chapter 3 – Section 5.4. Integrate FFA with nutrition-specific training</a>  FFA PGM: <a href="#">Chapter 3 – Section 5.5. Layer/integrate FFA with other nutrition programmes</a>  Nutrition-Sensitive Guidance: <a href="#">Step 3 – Take action. Food Assistance for Assets (FFA)</a>
5. Improve the quality of vegetable gardens to ensure that they meet the nutritional needs of beneficiary households.	Section 4.3.3 Challenge 10	FFA PGM: <a href="#">Chapter 4 – Section 6. FFA activities – a gender perspective</a>
6. Develop impact pathways and M&E in line with the Nutrition-Sensitive Guidance and Gender Toolkit.	Section 4.3.1 Challenge 4	Nutrition-Sensitive Guidance: <a href="#">Step Four: Monitoring and Documentation</a>  Gender Toolkit: <a href="#">Monitoring</a>
<b>Actions for HQ</b>		
7. Integrate the findings from this study in subsequent revision of the Nutrition-Sensitive Guidance.	All sections	-

# Annex 1

## Study teams across five countries

<b>Niger</b>	<p>The study team in Niger comprised of Abdou Salamou Makama – Program Assistant (Cash), Zinder Sub-Office; Alexandra Pirola – Program Policy Officer, Niger Country Office; Damien Vaquier – Policy and Program Officer, OSZPR HQ; and Zalyann Peishi – Senior Consultant, OSZPR HQ.</p> <p>The sole FGD and workshop facilitator was Abdou Salamou Makama.</p>
<b>Kenya</b>	<p>The study team in Kenya comprised of Fredrick Merie – Monitoring Assistant, Mombasa Satellite Office; Shirley Odero – Programme Associate (Protection and Empowerment), Kenya CO; Quinn Marshall – Program and Policy Officer, OSN HQ; and Zalyann Peishi – Senior Consultant, OSZPR HQ.</p> <p>The primary FGD and workshop facilitator was Fedrick Merie with support from Shirley Odero.</p>
<b>Zimbabwe</b>	<p>The study team in Sri Lanka was Jacqueline Chinoera – Consultant PAC, Zimbabwe CO; Farai Mukwende – Program Associate, Masvingo Sub-Office; Miriro Mvura – PAC Program Assistant, Zimbabwe CO; and Zalyann Peishi – Senior Consultant, OSZPR HQ.</p> <p>The primary FGD and workshop facilitator was Jacqueline Chinoera with support from Miriro Mvura and Farai Mukwende.</p>
<b>Guatemala</b>	<p>The visiting study team in Guatemala comprised of Michela Bonsignorio – Advisor on Protection and Accountability to Affected Populations, OSZPH HQ; Zuzana Kazdova – Gender Consultant, GEN HQ; and Zalyann Peishi – Senior Consultant, OSZPR HQ. The mission was supported extensively by WFP Guatemala: Irma Palma – National Programme Officer (Resilience); Josefina Tamayo – Gender Specialist; Marco Merida and Rony Berganza – Field Monitors.</p> <p>The primary FGD and workshop facilitator was Michela Bonsignorio with support from Josefina Tamayo, Zuzana Kazdova, and Irma Palma.</p>
<b>Sri Lanka</b>	<p>The visiting study team in Sri Lanka comprised of Agnieszka Korus – Humanitarian Policy Advisor, RBB; Quinn Marshall – Consultant, OSN HQ; and Zalyann Peishi – Senior Consultant, OSZPR HQ. The mission was supported extensively by WFP Sri Lanka: Royce Anthoneypillai – Programme Assistant, Kilinochchi Area Office; Victoria Ta-Asan – Head of Kilinochchi Area Office; and Sashrika Jayasinghe – Policy Programme Officer, WFP CO.</p> <p>The sole FGD and workshop facilitator was Royce Anthoneypillai.</p>

# Annex 2 Study tools

## In-country discussions

STAKEHOLDER	DISCUSSION TOPICS
<p><b>Country Office</b></p> <p>Time required: 1 day</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ Familiarisation with and discussion on the study (if necessary)               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Study objectives, approach and methodology</li> <li>● Priorities for CO</li> <li>● The study’s program in country, including logistics, visits to various stakeholders, etc</li> <li>● The study’s tools – clarification, modification etc</li> <li>● Secondary data sources</li> </ul> </li>   <li>▶ Briefing on FFA in the country:               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● WFP program in the country</li> <li>● Meetings with gender, nutrition and protection focal points. Each need to clarify study questions</li> <li>● Site profile for the sites that we are visiting</li> <li>● Cooperating partners, their capacity, and capacity building</li> <li>● FFA implementation, including 3PA implementation and timeline</li> </ul> </li>   <li>▶ Briefing on country context:               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Food security, shocks, and coping mechanisms</li> <li>● Gender, including key indicators eg., literacy, school attendance, workforce participation, formal land ownership, etc. Key issues including access to finance, community leadership, size of household, reproductive health and household size, household structure (monogamy / polygamy), women’s workload and split in household responsibilities.</li> <li>● Nutrition indicators (especially women’s BMI, MDD, etc) and drivers of malnutrition</li> <li>● Protection concerns, conflict and related issues</li> <li>● Other socioeconomic trends</li> </ul> </li>   <li>▶ Other questions and issues</li> </ul>
<p><b>Field Office and Cooperating Partner</b></p> <p>Time required: ½ day</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ Familiarisation with and discussion on the study               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Study objectives, approach and methodology</li> <li>● Areas of specific interest for the FO</li> <li>● The study’s program, including logistics, visits to various stakeholders, etc</li> <li>● The study’s tools – clarification, modification etc</li> </ul> </li>   <li>▶ Briefing on country context (see above)</li>   <li>▶ Briefing on FFA for the three sites:               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Site profile for the sites that we are visiting</li> <li>● Cooperating partners, their capacity, and capacity building</li> <li>● FFA process analysis, missed opportunities, and issues arising – 3PA, committees, work, assets, transfer, training, sensitisation, etc.</li> <li>● Complementary activities</li> <li>● M&amp;E processes and secondary data</li> </ul> </li>   <li>▶ Other questions and issues</li> </ul>

## Key informant interview checklist

STAKEHOLDER	DISCUSSION TOPICS
<b>All stakeholders</b>	Inform about <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● The study and its purpose</li> <li>● Program of the study in the area, and why we are talking to them</li> <li>● Multi-stakeholder workshop, if applicable</li> </ul>
<b>Local government authorities</b> (1 hour)	Ask about <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Engagement with the FFA program to date</li> <li>● Where FFA fits in with local government priorities, perceptions of FFA particularly as it relates to WSEE and WN</li> <li>● Relevant and complementary activities – particularly WSEE and WN related</li> <li>● Relevant stakeholders in the area as they relate to WSEE and WN.</li> <li>● Contextual information – e.g., validation of secondary information on population, livelihoods, gender issues, etc</li> </ul>
<b>Women’s organisations</b> (1 hour)	Ask about <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Work of the women’s organisation, and engagement with FFA program to date</li> <li>● Gender and protection issues in the area, including changes, trends, concerns</li> <li>● Advice on how to engage with women and empower women. What is the vision of WSEE in this context? What is realistic in this lifetime, and what needs to be generational change?</li> <li>● Advice on how to improve gender dynamics, social norms, etc. How to bring about change.</li> <li>● What is the sensitisation that has been undertaken re gender / WSEE? E.g., GBV, girls’ attendance, division of workload, share decision making, access to land and productive assets</li> <li>● Reflections on key gender issues raised in other meetings (e.g., may be on seasonal migration, gender violence, etc.) and implications on FFA.</li> <li>● Reflections on women’s role in improving nutrition</li> </ul>
<b>Complementary activities</b> (30 min – 1 hour each partner)	Ask about <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Details about the complementary actions – their objectives and programme</li> <li>● Integration/co-location with FFA program to date. How can integration be improved? Benefits of integration?</li> <li>● How can FFA be improved or adjusted to achieve shared objectives? What other activities may need to be added to improve outcomes?</li> </ul>



## FGD facilitator's guide

### FGD objectives:

To gain women and men beneficiaries' perspectives of:

1. The **FFA processes and activities** undertaken at the site with regards to gender equality and women's empowerment;
2. The **impacts and outcomes** experienced by different groups of women;
3. The **causal links** between FFA processes and the *most significant* outcomes/impacts; and
4. **Complementary actions** or **contextual factors** that influenced the *most significant* outcomes/impacts.

### FGD duration:

- 2.5 to 3 hours for the women-only FGD
- 2 to 2.5 hours for the men-only FGD

### Participants

- Between 10-12 women and 10-12 men whose households were engaged with the FFA activities.
- Ideally, the FGD should include women across these profiles:
  - Women and men of all ages, from young (18 and above) to over 60.
  - Female heads of households (including for seasonal migration).
  - Women and men who have young children under the age of five.
    - \* Of these, women who were pregnant or lactating during the work or transfer period.
  - Women who care for sick and/or elderly persons, or persons with disabilities. Men whose families include sick and elderly
- Ideally too, the FGD should include women who are engaged in FFA in the following ways:
  - Women and men who participated in the CBPP or community planning process.
  - Women and men who participated in the work, as well as women and men who did not but benefitted from the transfer.
  - Women and men who benefit from the assets or manage the assets.

### Support needed:

- English to local language interpreter. Ideally, this person would also have facilitation skills, so that we can minimise time required to translate every point.
- A meeting venue, preferably one where there is a wall to hang up cards. If not, then two flipchart stands.
- Refreshments for the participants as locally appropriate.
- Additional support for households so that they can participate in the FGD (as locally appropriate).

### Materials needed:

- Large coloured cards (A4 sized) in two colours x 20 per colour
- Marker pens x 3
- Masking tape x 2 rolls
- Flip chart stands x 2 (if we cannot stick cards on the walls)

Objective	Duration	Instructions and talking points
<b>FGD opening</b>	20 min	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Welcome participants to the FGD. We thank you for your inviting us into your community, and spending this time with us. We know that you are busy.</li> <li>● Introduce the 'visitors' as well as other stakeholders.</li> <li>● <b>Purpose of the FGD.</b> We are here today to hear from you about your experiences, opinions and ideas about WFP's Food for Assets programmes. Specifically:               <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. We would like to better understand the FFA program in your community and how women (or men) were engaged in the program.</li> <li>2. We would like to learn about any changes that occurred in your lives connected to the FFA program. We want to understand if these changes were different for different women (or men).</li> <li>3. We would also like to hear your opinions about the process of how these changes occurred.</li> </ol> </li> <li>● While we will be asking you specific questions, you are very welcome to share any thoughts, opinions and ideas about the FFA programme and your experiences during our discussion.</li> <li>● <b>Timekeeping and rules.</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– We expect we will take 2.5 hours.</li> <li>– So that everyone can have a chance to speak, it would be appreciated if you could please provide brief responses to the questions.</li> <li>– Everyone's experience and opinions are valid and are to be respected; whether you are young or old, if you have young children or older children or no children.</li> </ul> </li> <li>● By show of hands, how many participants are:               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– Women (or men) who actually participated in the (asset creation) work.</li> <li>– Women (or men) whose other household members participated in the work.</li> <li>– Women (or men) whose households received the transfer. (Should be 100%)</li> </ul> </li> <li>● By show of hands:               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– Women who are under 49. [Women of reproductive age]</li> <li>– Women (or men) who are over 60. [Elderly]</li> <li>– Women heads of households, and women whose men have migrated for work. (Or men to migrate for work)</li> <li>– Women (or men) who have young children under the age of five. Were you pregnant or breastfeeding during the time of the work?</li> <li>– Women (or men) who have to care for sick, elderly or people with disabilities</li> </ul> </li> </ul>
<b>Objective 1. FFA process and activities</b>	10 min	<p><b>Establish key activities and processes</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● <b>Open question:</b> When did FFA begin in your community? Do you remember what happened?</li> <li>● Refer to the flip chart stand for the main activities, for example:               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– CBPP meetings</li> <li>– Technical training</li> <li>– Sensitisation</li> <li>– Committees established/meetings</li> <li>– FFA work activities</li> <li>– FFA transfer</li> </ul> </li> <li>● Were there any other activities happening in the community at the same time as the FFA programme? [Prompt: NGO activities, activities that your community organised, etc]</li> </ul>

	35 min	<p>Determine women's and men's engagement</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Focusing on these main activities here &lt;point to cards with the main activities&gt;, how were women involved? [If necessary, prompt: For example, with CBPP / community meetings, were women present?] Can you tell us a bit about it? <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– &lt;Facilitator to cross-check with Tool: Catalogue of good practice&gt;</li> <li>– Was women's and men's involvement similar or different? In what ways? Why do you think that was?</li> <li>– What you have described here as women's and men's involvement – was it different for FFA compared to other community activities?</li> </ul> </li> </ul>
		<p><b>Additional questions:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● <b>CBPP:</b> Would decisions have been different if more women had been involved in the decision-making? Would different assets have been selected? Would activities have been implemented differently? How and why?</li> <li>● <b>Sensitisation:</b> Did both women and men attend this?</li> <li>● <b>Technical training:</b> What training did you receive? Did both women and men attend this?</li> <li>● <b>Committees, TLs, etc:</b> Were women represented? Why / why not? Were committee members trained?</li> <li>● <b>Work:</b> If women did not participate in the work, what were the reasons for them not participating? For PLW, did they know where they were excluded from the work?</li> <li>● Check work norms and amount of time taken to walk to work site.</li> <li>● [Or, if few women participated ask: Why did so fewer women, than, men, participate in the FFA programme? What did this mean for the women in the community?]</li> <li>● <b>Transfer:</b> How were decisions made about the transfer? Is this the same as how decisions are usually made about money/food? For women that did not work, did this influence how much decision making you had on the transfer?</li> </ul> <p><b>Do no harm / protection</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Did you, or women you know who participated in the FFA activities, experience any difficulties or problems in being part of the programme? <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– Were there any challenges or difficulties when women were working?</li> <li>– Were there any challenges or difficulties when women were receiving the transfer?</li> <li>– Was your participation in the FFA activities a source of conflict in your household?</li> </ul> </li> <li>● Did you know who to go to or where to go to if you faced problems?</li> <li>● [Checklist of protection risks that we may need to prompt for:] <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– Safety problems at programme sites</li> <li>– Safety problems en route to and from programme sites</li> <li>– Inappropriate work for targeted group: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– pregnant women and new mothers engaged in hard labour</li> <li>– Lack of basic services at programme sites</li> <li>– Sexual exploitation and abuse by WFP or partner staff</li> </ul> </li> </ul> </li> <li>● Summarise discussion in this section.</li> </ul>
<b>Objective 2. Outcomes and impacts</b>	20 min	<p><b>Establish changes that occurred</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● <b>Open question:</b> Did your involvement in the FFA programme result in any changes in your lives – good or bad – in your lives? [If participants do not elaborate, prompt and remind about positive and negative changes.]</li> </ul>

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● May require prompting: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– Changes because of the transfer.</li> <li>– Changes because of the asset.</li> <li>– Changes because of the work.</li> <li>– Medium-term and longer-term changes...</li> <li>– Where there changes in how you dealt with the last hungry season because of FFA?</li> </ul> </li> <li>● Also: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– Changes in how you see yourself?</li> <li>– Changes in the decision making in the household?</li> <li>– Changes in how they were seen by the community?</li> <li>– Changes in what women do and men do? [gender roles]</li> <li>– Are women eating better now? More food?</li> <li>– Are there changes in your daily routine? How you spend your time?</li> <li>– Are there changes in your health?</li> </ul> </li> <li>● &lt;With each change, stick a card representing the change onto the wall.&gt;</li> <li>● &lt;Check against outcomes and impacts as listed in impact pathway. May need to prompt for WSEE and WN outcomes&gt;</li> <li>● Were there any negative changes that resulted from FFA? How could they have been avoided or minimised?</li> </ul>
	20 min	<p><b>Choosing the most significant changes</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Of all these changes listed, which are the <b>most significant</b> (or most meaningful) changes to you? &lt;Preferably we discuss 3-4 changes, with some WSEE and some WN&gt;.</li> <li>● Is this the same for all women (or men) sitting here? Do different women (or men) feel differently?</li> <li>● <b>Why</b> are they the most significant changes to you?</li> <li>● What had you hoped would change, but didn't change? Why do you think that was? What could have been done to make that change happen?</li> </ul>
<p><b>Objective 3. Causal links between FFA and outcomes and impacts</b></p>	30 min	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Now, let's focus on a small number of the significant changes &lt;top 2-3 changes, depending on time you have&gt;. [Focus on changes that we want to understand the causality of. Particularly the ones with more complex causality, e.g., changes in decision making]</li> <li>● Focusing on one change at a time: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– Open question: What led to this change taking place?</li> <li>– Which FFA activities help to achieve them? &lt;point to the cards representing the activities&gt;</li> <li>– What do you think were the key factors that contributed to the change happening?</li> <li>– What could have been done for the change to be even more significant?</li> <li>– Would it have still been successful if you did x alone, or did we need x, y and z activities?</li> <li>– I see this is a big change. Do you think this is a lasting change for you and your household? Why?</li> </ul> </li> </ul>

<p><b>Objective 4.</b></p> <p><b>Complementary actions or contextual factors</b></p>	<p>10 min</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Beyond the FFA programme, do you think that other activities and events in your community contributed to &lt;the change&gt;? May need prompting: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– Women’s groups</li> <li>– Community activities</li> <li>– New business opportunities</li> <li>– Migration of men</li> <li>– Other NGO activities, e.g., nutrition training, WASH activities, etc.</li> </ul> </li> </ul> <p>Why were these other activities in your community important? Without these other activities, would the change have still occurred?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Where there other events / shocks experienced by your community that negatively impacted on the success of FFA?</li> </ul>
<p><b>Summing up and closing</b></p>	<p>20 min</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● We have come to the end of our time together. I would like summarise what you have said here today to make sure that we got what you said accurately. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– Key FFA activities – what worked well for women and what could have been done better.</li> <li>– Most significant changes in their lives as women – what they were, why they were able to happen, and what could have made the changes more significant.</li> <li>– Other actions / contextual factors – what they are, why they were significant/</li> </ul> </li> <li>● Thank you for all your participation. You have provided us with a very important insight into how FFA has brought about change in your community for women. This information will be used to help us work with FFA activities in the future so that it better meet the needs, interests and priorities for women and men.</li> <li>● Is there anything else that you think is important for us to know?</li> <li>● Do you have any other messages that you would like to take with us?</li> </ul>



## Sub-national multi-stakeholder participatory workshops

### Purpose

Prior to the workshop, there would have been structured interviews, visit to the asset(s), and focus group discussions (women only and men only). From this, simple *impact pathways* will be developed to demonstrate how change occurred for that site. Hypotheses will also be developed about the *key success parameters* that supported the change. (Barriers to change will be noted).

The central aim of this workshop is to validate and gain different perspectives on:

- The *impact pathways* for women's socioeconomic empowerment (WSEE) and improved women's nutrition (WN), particularly key causal linkages.
- The *key success parameters* (FFA program actions, complementary actions or contextual factors) that support women's empowerment and improved women's nutrition to be achieved.
- *Key recommendations* to improve FFA programs in similar contexts, including recommendations to mitigate protection risks.

Translated in non-jargon terms, the questions we are putting to stakeholders in this workshop are:

1. What changes occurred for women and men in your community as a result of FFA? How and why did these changes occur?
2. Thinking of these changes, what was needed for these changes to occur? Was it FFA alone, or were other actions needed?
3. Thinking back to how FFA was implemented in your community, what could have been done differently for FFA that would have meant bigger or better changes, and fewer negative changes?

### Proposed participants

Workshop participants should be able to speak to the changes in the community as a result of the FFA program. Ideally, they should be champions of women's empowerment and have strong and positive ideas of how women can be empowered through FFA. They should include beneficiaries, community members, implementing partner staff, and other stakeholders who were involved with the FFA activities (either the work or the assets, or both). The workshop should include a few participants with a good understanding of nutrition, including the drivers of malnutrition and links between women's empowerment and good nutrition. We recommend that up to 25 people attend the workshop, with a rough split of participants as follows:

- 9 direct beneficiaries from various sites (6 female and 3 male)<sup>155</sup>
- 6 community members from various sites (3 female and 3 male) who were not beneficiaries of the FFA transfer, but are community leaders or may have benefited from the asset
- 5 FFA staff and partners (preferably more female than male)
- 5 people from stakeholder organisations or complementary activities that were most strongly involved in the FFA program or supported the achievement of its outcomes. This may (or may not) be from civil society (e.g., women's groups or religious leaders), local government or even local businesses.<sup>156</sup>

### Example program based in Guatemala workshop

Seat participants in four tables:

- Table 1 Beneficiary women (9 women)
- Table 2. Beneficiary men (6 men)
- Table 3: Female implementers and stakeholders
- Table 4: Male implementers and stakeholders.

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<sup>155</sup> Beneficiaries and community members need to be supported in their attendance for the workshop. This could include transportation, child care, and compensation for their time.

<sup>156</sup> There may be other stakeholders who were not as involved in the FFA program, who would like to attend this workshop. For various reasons, we may need to include these stakeholders, but their numbers should be kept as a minimum. They should also note that this is not a 'feedback' workshop, and that feedback can be provided as a separate meeting.

Time	Session
9.00 – 9.30	<b>Session 1. Welcome, workshop purpose and housekeeping</b>
9.30 – 10.30	<b>Session 2. Process analysis findings</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Feedback from the study team about the key findings for each FFA step</li> <li>• Discussion and verification by beneficiaries</li> </ul>
10.30 - 10.45	Tea break
10.45 - 12.45	<b>Session 3. Women’s Empowerment</b> <p><b>Changes – Total 45 min</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Presentation on the key changes reported.</li> <li>• Group work in tables to discuss the following: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– Did these changes happen? Yes/No</li> <li>– Are there other changes that you feel are important to women’s empowerment?</li> <li>– How would you rank these changes in terms of most significant?</li> </ul> </li> <li>• Plenary rapid feedback table by table.</li> <li>• Concluding round up discussion “What is women’s empowerment?”</li> </ul> <p><b>Drivers – Total 45 min</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Presentation on the key drivers or factors reported (that led to women being empowered)</li> <li>• Group work in tables to discuss the following: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– Do you agree that these are the drivers? Yes/No</li> <li>– Rank these drivers according to most important to least important.</li> <li>– Are there any other factors or drivers that we missed here?</li> </ul> </li> <li>• Plenary rapid feedback table by table.</li> <li>• Agreement on the story of how change occurred.</li> </ul> <p><b>Recommendations – Total 30 min</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Presentation on key recommendations by study team</li> <li>• Plenary rapid feedback.</li> <li>• Summary conclusion.</li> </ul>
12.45 – 1.45	Lunch (and contingency if we run overtime in the morning)
1.45 – 2.00	Energiser (if culturally appropriate) Recap of the morning’s discussions
2.00 – 4.00	<b>Session 4. Improved Women’s Nutrition</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• A short presentation on women’s nutrition, including UNICEF causal framework, what women need to eat, etc.</li> </ul> <p><b>Changes – Total 45 min</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Presentation on the key changes reported.</li> <li>• Group work in tables to discuss the following: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Did these changes happen? Yes/No</li> </ul> </li> </ul>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– Are there any other changes that occurred?</li> <li>– [Questions to get further detail about changes that occurred]</li> <li>● Plenary rapid feedback table by table.</li> <li>● Concluding round up discussion</li> </ul> <p><b>Drivers</b> – Total 45 min</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Presentation on the key drivers or factors reported (that led to improved women’s nutrition)</li> <li>● Group work in tables to discuss the following: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– Do you agree that these are the drivers? Yes/No</li> <li>– Rank these drivers according to most important to least important.</li> <li>– Are there any other factors or drivers that we missed here?</li> <li>– [Other clarifying questions]</li> </ul> </li> <li>● Plenary rapid feedback table by table.</li> <li>● Agreement on the story of how change occurred.</li> </ul> <p><b>Recommendations</b> – Total 30 min</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Presentation on key recommendations by study team</li> <li>● Plenary rapid feedback.</li> <li>● Summary conclusion.</li> </ul>
<p><b>4.00 – 4.20</b> <b>And tea break</b></p>	<p>Summary of key findings for the day</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Most important changes for women as a result from FFA</li> <li>● Explanations of how change happened</li> </ul> <p>Explain what the main outcomes of the workshop are, and how the information is going to be used.</p> <p>Thank participants for their time.</p>

## Catalogue of potential good practice

This catalogue was prepared during the study's inception phase. It details the potential features that can be incorporated into FFA processes that might enhance WSEE and WN. This list is aspirational. While some features are already included in the FFA PGM, some are not. The purpose of this catalogue is to prompt discussion on processes that take place on the ground.

FFA process	WSEE	Additional considerations to improve WN	Information sources
<p><b>Capacity of partners in FFA</b></p>	<p>Do <b>senior managers / leaders</b> in the cooperating partner (Cooperating Partner) and other partners prioritise GE and WSEE?</p> <p>Are there both women and men employed as 'front-line' <b>community facilitators</b> / field staff by WFP, the Cooperating Partner and other key partners?</p> <p>Do field staff have sufficient <b>capacity</b> in gender-sensitive and gender-transformative approaches? If not, then was there capacity building (training or support) on gender-sensitive and gender-transformative approaches? If yes, on what aspects?</p>	<p>Do <b>senior managers / leaders</b> in the Cooperating Partner and other partners priorities improved nutrition and nutrition-sensitive action?</p> <p>Do field staff have sufficient <b>capacity</b> in nutrition-sensitive programming?</p> <p>Was there <b>capacity building</b> in nutrition-sensitive programming? If yes, on what aspects?</p>	<p>Project reports</p> <p>KII interviews</p>
<p><b>CBPP</b></p>	<p>Were both women and men <b>meaningfully engaged</b> in CBPP processes? Were the outcomes aligned with both women's and men's needs, interests and priorities?</p> <p>What was the percentage of female and male <b>attendance</b>? Did the community planning team include diverse women and men in the community?</p> <p>Were there mechanisms put in place to ensure that both women's and men's opinions could be voiced and were considered? e.g., <b>Women-only consultations</b>, timing suitable to women, transportation, safety, childcare, use of visual aids (accommodating for different levels of literacy) etc.</p> <p>Were women given sufficient time and space to contribute to the planning discussions? [How much time and space was allocated, relative to men?] Were women engaged in all steps of the CBPP (p. 90 of PGM)?</p>	<p>Did the community planning team include (or consult) women and those who are knowledgeable on nutrition, care practices and health?</p> <p>Were the community planning team <b>sensitised on nutrition challenges</b> (e.g., undernutrition and stunting) and potential ways to address these challenges through FFA actions?</p> <p>Did the CBPP process <b>identify critical risk factors</b> to good nutrition (e.g., low availability of nutrient-rich food, or lack of access to clean water)? Or was the CBPP informed by a nutritional analysis?</p> <p>Did the CBPP process identify potential <b>FFA assets</b> that can address the <b>risk factors</b> to good nutrition (e.g., water borne diseases), or generate <b>positive effects</b> on incomes, caregiver's workloads, diets and nutrition?</p>	<p>CBPP documentation</p> <p>Attendance sheets</p> <p>Project reporting</p> <p>KII</p>

FFA process	WSEE	Additional considerations to improve WN	Information sources
	<p>Were Cooperating Partner staff leading the processes sufficiently skilled in gender-responsive, participatory community facilitation?</p> <p>Were <b>gender sensitisation session(s)</b> included as part of the CBPP process (recommended in PGM p. 93). What did these sessions include, and what purpose did it serve?</p> <p>Did the CBPP process lead to <b>FFA assets</b> that are in the interest of both women and men, or women or men depending on the analysis? Assets that are in women's interest may include assets that reduce women's workload (including for unpaid domestic and care), improve women's nutrition, promote women's livelihood, or enhance women's safety.</p> <p>Were planned FFA actions screened for <b>potential negative impacts</b> in the lives of women and girls, including in relation to violence, empowerment and nutrition?</p>	<p>Were there processes in place to collaborate with other sectors to ensure a <b>multi-sectoral response</b> to undernutrition? Did the CBPP identify necessary <b>complementary actions</b> to address critical risk factors in good nutrition? (E.g., hygiene promotion)</p> <p>Were planned FFA actions screened for potential negative <b>impacts</b> on nutrition?</p>	
<b>Targeting</b>	<p>Was there targeting based on the <b>gender analysis</b>? e.g., Ensuring that FHH were able to participate in FFA or received an unconditional transfer.</p>	<p>Was there targeting based on <b>nutritional vulnerability</b> (e.g., as households or during lifecycle)? E.g., Through referral from nutrition programs.</p>	<p>Project reporting KII</p>
<b>FFA work activities (including timing and work norms)</b>	<p>Did the work norms adequately accommodate women and men's <b>workloads</b>, particularly workloads of PLW, FHH and persons with disabilities? How? How satisfactory were the work norms for the women and men participants?</p> <p>Are some groups of women (or girls, boys, men) <b>excluded</b> from the programme? Who is not being reached? Who should be involved in, and benefiting from, the FFA programme?</p> <p>Are women and men treated with equal respect as decision-makers, implementers, and participants?</p>	<p>Were there <b>do no harm' adjustments</b> for nutritionally-vulnerable women, such as PLW or underweight women? [These may include adjustments in <b>type</b> of work, <b>quantity</b> of work, or providing an <b>unconditional grant</b> instead.]</p> <p>Is the <b>time</b> spent on work supporting (and not hampering) women's ability for self-care and care for her children?</p> <p>Also see PGM.</p> <p><b>Additional</b> questions for PLW</p>	<p>Project reporting KII FGDs PGM work norms</p>



FFA process	WSEE	Additional considerations to improve WN	Information sources
	<p>Did the <b>timing</b> (both during the day and in the season) of the work consider women and men's different needs, interests and priorities?</p> <p>Were there special considerations given for <b>overburdened households</b> or households with reduced capacity?<sup>157</sup></p> <p>Were there measures in place to ensure the <b>safety and security</b> of all participants? What were the measures? How effective were they?</p> <p>How many <b>supervisors or team leaders</b> were men? How many were women? Did they supervise the same or different work?</p> <p>Was <b>child care</b> provided to accommodate women's unpaid domestic and care work?</p> <p>If women experienced a problem with their work, did they know where to take the problem to? <b>Complaints mechanisms</b></p>	<p>Are PLW <b>aware</b> of why they have different work norms or why they have been excluded from work? This is important so that they do not feel discriminated against, but also so that FFA can demonstrate good practice for PLW and work.</p> <p>Did the FFA work supporting (and not hampering) <b>good pregnancies</b> and <b>appropriate breastfeeding</b>?</p>	
<p><b>FFA transfer</b></p>	<p>Was there adequate <b>'do no harm'</b> and <b>protection</b> analysis? What <b>safety risks</b> were identified and how were they mitigated, including in relation to gender-based violence (including within households)?</p> <p>Was the decision of the <b>transfer modality</b> (food / cash / vouchers) based on comprehensive, participatory gender analysis?</p> <p>Were women named on the <b>registration card</b>, so as to ensure their entitlement to the transfer?</p> <p>Was there <b>messaging / sensitisation</b> regarding purpose of the transfer (who for and what for), and decision making over the transfer? Was there sensitisation for example about saving part of the money for women's livelihoods?</p> <p>employment, unpaid car work, safety risks etc)</p>	<p>For food, was the food distributed <b>nutritionally sound</b>?</p> <p>For cash, were decisions about the <b>transfer value</b> based on analysis of the cost of a healthy diet? Were decisions about the transfer value based on an understanding for households' needs to access health services, clean water, etc.?</p> <p>Was the waiting time at distribution time used as an opportunity for <b>nutrition messaging</b>? e.g. Producing, preparing and eating nutrient rich foods, care practices, etc.</p> <p>Was there an opportunity used to distribute other nutrition support at the same time? E.g., <b>Supercereal</b> for PLW. This needs to be context appropriate.</p>	<p>Project reporting</p> <p>KII</p> <p>FGDs</p> <p>Cost of Diet analysis</p>

<sup>157</sup> Overburdened households include households with high dependency ratios, PLW, FHH and persons with disabilities, etc (Need to check to see if PGM has a definition). Special consideration may include altered work norms or unconditional transfers

FFA process	WSEE	Additional considerations to improve WN	Information sources
<b>FFA transfer (cont'd)</b>	<p>Was the transfer <b>distributed</b> to women or men? Why?</p> <p>Was the <b>waiting time</b> at distribution used as an opportunity for <b>messaging</b> around social norms and entitlement of transfer etc?</p> <p>Was the <b>waiting</b> or <b>transport cost</b> a barrier to access because of existing responsibilities (e.g., paid employment, unpaid car work, safety risks etc)</p>		
<b>FFA assets</b>	<p>What <b>impacts</b> – positive and negative – did the FFA assets have in the lives of women? What adjustments can be made to reinforce positive / empowering outcomes and minimise / eliminate the negative impacts?</p> <p>Do the assets reduce women's unpaid domestic and care <b>workloads</b>? How? To what extent?</p> <p>Do the assets support women's <b>livelihoods, diets, income</b>? Which women? How? To what extent?</p> <p>Do the assets improve women's <b>resilience</b> to shocks? Which women? How? To what extent?</p> <p>Are the assets of <b>sufficient size and good enough quality</b> to ensure that they have their desired impact?</p> <p>Are the assets used by their <b>intended beneficiaries</b>, particularly women? To what extent? If not, why not?</p> <p>Do the intended beneficiaries (particularly women) <b>experience material benefits</b> from the use of the assets? What specific benefits? To what extent? e.g., reduced workload or increased incomes.</p>	<p>Do the assets promote <b>year-round access</b> to a range of nutrient-rich foods? e.g. through increased production, improved access to markets, increased incomes.</p> <p>Have the assets improved <b>dietary intake</b>? Have the assets improved the <b>local food environment</b>? e.g., by selling vegetables locally.</p> <p>Do the assets reduce the <b>risks</b> presented by water-borne disease? E.g., <b>latrines</b></p> <p>Have the assets increased <b>access to clean water</b>? E.g., wells</p>	<p>KII with asset managers</p> <p>Site visit to asset</p> <p>Project reporting</p>

FFA process	WSEE	Additional considerations to improve WN	Information sources
<p><b>FFA asset governance, management and training</b></p>	<p>What proportion of representatives on FFA decision-making entities (e.g., in committees) are women? What proportion of leadership positions are occupied by women? If there is a lack of gender parity, why is that? What is being done to achieve gender parity in representation?</p> <p>Do women have <b>ownership and command</b> of the FFA assets? Was tenure secured for women? Are there strategies to minimise risk of elite / male capture?</p> <p>Do women have a role in <b>managing</b> the assets? What are the roles? How are they similar to or different from those of men?</p> <p>Were <b>women trained</b> on equitable and inclusive management of the assets that they are engaged with? What was the nature of the training? What opportunities were created for women to apply the training?</p> <p>Were <b>men trained</b> on equitable and inclusive management of the assets? How have the men applied their training?</p> <p>Are the assets <b>well managed and maintained</b>? How? How successfully? Are they sustainable (e.g. management fees, recurrent costs, maintenance plans)? Who is involved, why and how?</p>		<p>KII with asset managers FGDs</p>
<p><b>Complementary activities</b></p>	<p>Were the activities based on the information gathered from the participatory <b>gender analysis</b>?</p> <p>Was there <b>gender messaging</b>? Were there activities focused on changing discriminatory and oppressive social norms, institutions and practices e.g. work, intra-household decision making, mobility, women's roles, men's roles, early / forced / child marriage, FGM, etc.? What changed, why and to what extent?</p>	<p>Was there <b>BCC</b> on improved diets, improved care practices, etc.?</p> <p>Was there <b>screening</b> for undernourished PLWs?</p> <p>Were there <b>referrals</b> to health and nutrition services?</p>	<p>Project reporting KII</p>

FFA process	WSEE	Additional considerations to improve WN	Information sources
<p><b>Complementary activities</b></p>	<p>Were there activities to support <b>sustainable or diversified livelihoods for women</b>, such as women's livelihood training, women's savings and loan groups, women's associations or cooperatives, awareness-raising education for men / community leaders etc.? What were they? How effective were they? Which women benefited? How were risks mitigated (e.g. violence)?</p> <p>Were there activities to support <b>women's access to markets</b>? What were the activities? Which women benefited? What changed for women? How effective were the activities? e.g. value chain development</p>	<p><b>referrals</b> to health and nutrition services?</p> <p><b>WASH</b></p> <p>Were there <b>hygiene promotion</b> activities?</p> <p>Was there training on how to <b>treat water</b> from water pans?</p> <p><b>Agriculture</b></p> <p>Was there <b>agricultural training</b> on the production of variety of <b>nutrient-rich foods</b>? E.g., Fruit, vegetables, livestock.</p> <p>Was there training on <b>food drying, storage and processing</b> to increase the year-round availability of nutritious foods?</p>	
<p><b>Project design and M&amp;E</b></p>	<p>Was project design based on the participatory gender analysis, context analysis and participation of all stakeholders?</p> <p>Did we clearly articulate women as our <b>target group</b>? Why? Did we clearly differentiate and articulate the different needs, interests and priorities of different women, e.g., PLW, women heads of households, elderly women, etc.</p> <p>Were <b>there GE or WSEE objectives and impact pathways</b>?</p> <p>Were there a range of qualitative and quantitative GE and WSEE indicators? e.g., on women's workload, command of assets, women's income, women's coping strategies; changes in policies, practices, beliefs etc.</p>	<p>Were <b>nutrition target groups</b> identified, <b>impact pathways</b> articulated, and <b>nutrition objectives and indicators</b> incorporated?</p> <p>Were <b>nutrition indicators</b> monitored? Eg., improved diet, improved nutrition status, improved access to water.</p> <p>Did we monitor to ensure that we did no harm to nutrition outcomes?</p>	<p>Project reporting</p> <p>M&amp;E systems</p> <p>KII</p>

# Annex 3. Global workshop programme

## The Potential of FFA to Empower Women and Improve Women's Nutrition

### Global Sense-Making Workshop – 26 and 27 April 2017, Rome Workshop Programme

TIME	SESSION	FACILITATOR
<b>Day One</b>	<b>Wednesday 26 April 2017</b>	
<b>8.00 – 8.30</b>	Registration and coffee at cafeteria	
<b>8.30 – 9.00</b>	Welcome and workshop purpose Introductions, workshop's program, outline of participants' feedback and expectations, housekeeping	Speaker: Zlatan Milisic Presenter: Damien Vaquier
<b>9.00 – 10.45</b>	<p><b>Session 1. Findings from across the five countries</b></p> <p>This session presents what we learned about WSEE and WN across the five country case studies.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Outlining study's background, <b>approach and methodology</b>, challenges and limitations (20 min with questions)</li> <li>● Highlighting the <b>most significant changes</b> in WSEE and WN across the five countries (30 min with questions)</li> <li>● Describing the <b>challenges</b> in WSEE and WN in the five countries (20 min with questions)</li> <li>● Describing the <b>causal links</b>: How FFA and complementary actions led to WSEE and WN changes. (30 min with questions)</li> </ul>	Chair: Damien Vaquier Presenter: Zalyynn Peishi Notetaker: Ornella Caspani Medina
<b>10.45 – 11.00</b>	Coffee break	



Part 1: Women's Socioeconomic Empowerment (WSEE)		
11.00 – 1.00	<p><b>Session 2. Building a WSEE impact pathway</b></p> <p>This session focuses on building a programme-wide WSEE impact pathway to explain how change happens. As it is not possible to build a full impact pathway in a short session, the focus here will be on better understanding 6 WSEE changes and their causal links.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Group work to discuss six priority 'changes', and their causal links; that is, the actions and factors that led to them, and the downstream opportunities that are possible because of the change. (45min)</li> <li>• Plenary presentation and discussion (45 min).</li> <li>• Plenary presentation and discussion on consolidated FFA impact pathway (30 min)</li> </ul>	<p>Facilitators: Zalynn Peishi and Jacqueline Paul</p> <p>Notetaker: Zuzana Kazdova</p>
1.00 – 2.00	Lunch	
2.00 – 3.15	<p><b>Session 3. WSEE challenges</b> – What we need to know to not do and what we can do better</p> <p>This session focuses on the common WSEE pitfalls, lessons learned or missed opportunities, and how they are obstacles to WSEE.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Group work to discuss common pitfalls / lessons learned / missed opportunities, and strategies to mitigate them. How can we institutionalise these mitigation strategies? (30 min)</li> <li>• Facilitated plenary discussion, including other changes (45 min)</li> </ul>	<p>Facilitators: Jacqueline Paul and Zalynn Peishi</p> <p>Notetaker: Zuzana Kazdova</p>
3.15 – 3.30	Coffee break	

<p><b>3.30 – 4.45</b></p>	<p><b>Session 4. Key success parameters for WSEE</b></p> <p>This session focuses on the key success parameters (that is, FFA program actions, complementary actions or contextual factors) that were necessary for the changes to occur.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Group work to discuss priority key success parameters, and elaborate on how they can be optimised for FFA. (30 min)</li> <li>• Plenary feedback and facilitated discussions (45 min)</li> </ul>	<p>Facilitators: Jacqueline Paul and Zalynn Peishi</p> <p>Notetaker: Zuzana Kazdova</p>
<p><b>4.45 – 5.00</b></p>	<p>Summary of key findings for the day</p> <p>Outline workshop’s program for the next</p>	<p>Facilitators: Zalynn Peishi and Jacqueline Paul</p>
<p><b>5.00 – 6.00</b></p>	<p>Drinks and ‘ideas exchange’</p>	
<p><b>Day Two Thursday 27 April 2017</b></p>		
<p><b>8.00 – 8.30</b></p>	<p>Arrival and coffee at cafeteria</p>	
<p><b>8.30 – 8.50</b></p>	<p>Recap sessions yesterday and outline of sessions for today</p> <p>Refresher on key findings for WN</p>	<p>Presenter: Damien Vaquier</p> <p>Presenter: Zalynn Peishi</p>
<p><b>Part Two Improved women’s nutrition (WN)</b></p>		
<p><b>8.50 – 9.15</b></p>	<p><b>Session 1. WFP Interim Nutrition-Sensitive Guidance</b></p> <p>In March 2017, the Nutrition Division released interim guidance: <i>Unlocking WFP’s Potential: Guidance for Nutrition-Sensitive Programming</i>. This session outlines its key features as relevant to FFA programming.</p>	<p>Presenter: Quinn Marshall</p>
<p><b>9.15 – 10.30</b></p>	<p><b>Session 2. Building a WN impact pathway</b></p> <p>This session focuses on building a programme-wide WN impact pathway to explain how change happens. The focus here will be on better understanding several WN changes and their causal links, in order to validate the FFA impact pathway in the Nutrition-Sensitive Guidance.</p>	<p>Facilitators: Zalynn Peishi and Quinn Marshall</p> <p>Note taker: Damien Vaquier</p>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Group work to discuss 'changes' and their causal links. That is, the actions and factors that led to them, and the downstream opportunities that are possible because of this change. (30 min)</li> <li>• Plenary presentation and discussion, including other changes (40 min)</li> <li>• Introduction on FFA Nutrition-Sensitive Checklist (5 min)</li> </ul>	
<b>10.30–10.45</b>	Coffee break	
<b>10.45 – 11.15</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Presentation and facilitated discussion (in plenary) on a programme-wide WN impact pathway (30 min)</li> </ul>	Facilitators: Philippe Crahay and Quinn Marshall
<b>11.15 - 12.30</b>	<p><b>Session 3. WN challenges</b> – What we need to know to not do and what we can do better</p> <p>This session focuses on common pitfalls / lessons learned / missed opportunities, and how they are obstacles to improved WN</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Group work to discuss common pitfalls / lessons learned / missed opportunities, and strategies to mitigate them. How can we institutionalise these mitigation strategies? (30 min)</li> <li>• Facilitated plenary discussion (45 min)</li> </ul>	Facilitators: Zalyynn Peishi and Quinn Marshall Note taker: Damien Vaquier
<b>12.30 – 1.30</b>	Lunch	
<b>1.30 – 2.45</b>	<p><b>Session 4. Key success parameters for WN</b></p> <p>This session focuses on the key success parameters (that is, FFA program actions, complementary actions or contextual factors) that were necessary for the changes to occur.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Group work to discuss priority key success parameters, and elaborate on how they can be optimised for FFA. (30 min)</li> <li>• Plenary feedback and facilitated discussions (45 min)</li> </ul>	Facilitators: Zalyynn Peishi and Quinn Marshall Note taker: Damien Vaquier

2.45 – 3.45

**Session 5. Programme-wide recommendations and key actions**

Facilitators: Mark Gordon and Zalynn Peishi

In this session, the stakeholders will agree on actions that will need to be taken to advance WSEE and improve WN in FFA. Ideas would have been recorded through the workshop, and this will be the opportunity to turn the ideas into action

Note taker: Damien Vaquier

- Plenary discussion on key programme-wide recommendations. (1 hour)

3.45 – 4.30

Group work, including a coffee break

Facilitators: Mark Gordon and Zalynn Peishi

- Group work based on work function: Discussion will be on their own key actions to determine if actions are feasible, can be resourced, when they are to be actioned, etc. (45 min)

4.30 – 4.50

Summary of key findings for the workshop (20 min)

Presenter: Mark Gordon

4.50 – 5.00

Workshop closing

Speaker: Kawinzi Muiu

## Annex 4. Relevant WFP resources

- **The FFA evaluation series** ([synthesis report and management response](#)).
- **The FFA Programme Guidance Manual** (general content available on [WFP Manuals and externally](#); more specifically, "[integrating nutrition, gender, and protection sensitive lenses](#)", "[crosscutting aspects to FFA planning \(including gender and protection\)](#)", "[a gender perspective to FFA activities](#)" and "[strengthening the nutrition focus of FFA](#)").
- **The Gender Toolkit** ("[FFA general section](#)", "[quick guide](#)" and "[in-depth guidance](#)").
- **The [Interim Guidance](#) for Nutrition-Sensitive Programming** (see FFA section pages 47 to 51).
- **The Protection guidance** (see the [asset creation section](#)).



# Annex 5. Summary of critical actions and mitigating measures

## Common to WSEE and WN

**Challenge 1:** Women are over-burdened by the additional demands posed by FFA work norms in addition to their domestic responsibilities.

- ▶ Adjust timing for implementation of FFA and existing workloads, particularly on women and caregivers.
- ▶ Adopt fair work norms.
- ▶ Accommodate specific requirements for those households over-burdened with work related to the care of children or other responsibilities but willing to participate in FFA activities.
- ▶ Establish specific work norms for PLW and households with less or no labour capacity.
- ▶ Establish specific but physically light tasks for PLW and households with limited labour capacities; such as child caring or distributing water for FFA workers.
- ▶ Provide unconditional assistance for highly vulnerable and food insecure households that have no labour capacity.
- ▶ Provide sufficient breaks for care taking and feeding activities.
- ▶ Provide a set of alternatives to women with young infants and children, such as baby-sitting and crèches.

**Missed opportunity 2:** Sensitisation in the areas of health, nutrition, rights, etc is not included, or sensitisation was only provided to women and not men.

- ▶ Invite a range of actors – government, other UN agencies, or NGOs – to provide sensitisation on topics relating to WSEE and WN.
- ▶ Explicitly invite both women and men to sensitisation sessions.
- ▶ Consider making attendance at sensitisation sessions a work norm or a soft condition.

**Challenge 3:** Single year, rather than multi-year programmes, mean that programmes cannot bring about sustainable change.

- ▶ Develop multi-year programmes with the same caseload of beneficiaries.

**Challenge 4:** FFA projects do not articulate project-level impact pathways for WSEE and WN, and consequently have few monitoring indicators to track changes WSEE and WN.

- ▶ Select meaningful project-level M&E indicators to measure progress, outcomes and track unintended effects, for women and men and in relation to gender equality and women's empowerment.
- ▶ Develop project-level impact pathways and select indicators in line with the Nutrition-Sensitive Guidance.
- ▶ Ensure that monitoring systems inform adjustments during the life of the projects.

## Women's Socioeconomic Empowerment

**Key success factor 1:** Actively supported the free and fair participation of women in FFA activities.

- ▶ Specifically invite women to participate in all stages of FFA programming, while ensuring that the women (and men) understand that participation is voluntary.
- ▶ Sensitise women and men about the benefits of women's participation.
- ▶ Ensure that women are not over-burdened by, for example, ensuring flexible and appropriate work times, tailored and fair work norms, substitution of household members for the work.
- ▶ Provide facilitative services, such as child care and support to PLW.
- ▶ Ensure women are safe by ensuring FFA worksites are accessible and safe; providing safety training and protective gear as necessary, sensitising women and men on sexual exploitation and abuse (SEA);

having functional referral mechanisms in place; training committee members and Cooperating Partners; constituting women-only work teams, and areas for women to change their clothing after work.

- ▶ Check that women are not pressured or coerced into participating by their households or communities.

**Key success factor 2:** Used the 3PA (or other planning processes) to analyse the context and ensure that programming is gender transformative and empowers women.

- ▶ Ensure the equal, equitable and meaningful participation of women and men in SLP and CBPP.
  - ◇ Ensure that equal numbers of beneficiary women and men participate in the SLP and CBPP processes.
  - ◇ Support women's participation through providing child care (or an allowance for women to purchase child care) and other facilitative services, such as transportation.
  - ◇ Ensure that spaces are created for a diverse range of women to discuss their needs, interests, capacities and priorities; utilising women-only discussions as preferred by the women.
- ▶ Ensure that SLP and CBPP processes provide information on women's and men's needs, interests, capacities and priorities. For example, understanding women's and men's workloads, livelihoods, access to services.
- ▶ Use 3PA processes to map services and opportunities for partnership on complementary services such as sensitisation and referral, and livelihoods and financial services. Undertake partner mapping to better understand who does what, for whom, where, and to determine which partners are committed and competent in gender equality.

**Key success factor 3:** Actively promoted women's social cohesion and organisation

- ▶ Actively provide opportunities for women to meet, work together and collaborate in ways that are aligned with their needs and priorities. This may include women-only committees, women's work teams, group assets owned by women, training events, and savings and loan groups.
- ▶ Where appropriate, provide training for women as part of the groups, e.g., leadership skills, business planning, joint management of a group asset or a savings and loan group. Consider making attendance at training a work norm so that women are not overburdened.

**Key success factor 4:** Actively promoted women's leadership and engagement in community decision-making.

**Challenge 7:** FFA governance structures and positions, such as committees and supervisors, reinforce unequal gender relations in communities when not correctly implemented.

- ▶ Ensure that women are represented in committees. At a minimum, this should be equal participation.<sup>158</sup> Depending on context, women-only committees can ensure that men do not 'take over'.
- ▶ Ensure that women can attend meetings by, for example, holding meetings at times that suit women, providing children with a space to play while mothers meet, supporting breastfeeding.
- ▶ Provide training for committee members to equip them to perform their roles skilfully and with confidence.
- ▶ Provide beneficiaries – women and men – with sensitisation about the benefits of women's leadership.

**Key success factor 5:** Reduced women's workload and hardship.

- ▶ Use CBPP to better understand and identify opportunities to reduce women's workload and hardship.
- ▶ Select household or community assets that reduce women's workload and hardship. Examples include water points, wash basins, vegetable gardens, cattle dip tanks, access roads, woodlots, fuel-efficient stoves. (See FFA PGM: [Chapter 4 – Section 6. FFA activities – a gender perspective](#) for a list of assets that have been supported)
- ▶ Sensitise women and men to promoting women's control and decision making over the transfer.
- ▶ Sensitise women and men to promoting sharing of unpaid domestic and care work; such as meal preparation, cleaning, child minding, particularly when women undertake FFA work.
- ▶ Ensure that FFA actions do not overburden women; requiring tailored and fair work norms.

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<sup>158</sup> In Zimbabwe, committees were all of seven persons: four women and three men. Having women in the majority ensured that if there was a difference in opinion, women's preference would have primacy.

**Key success factor 6:** Supported women's livelihoods and reduce financial dependency.

**Challenge 6:** Limited analysis and pre-existing cultural norms create the preconditions for FFA activities to reinforce discriminatory livelihood roles and options for women (and men).

- ▶ Based on participatory gender and market analysis, support women in pursuing viable livelihoods of their choice, and reflecting their capacities and priorities.
- ▶ Promote household and/or community assets that support women's livelihoods, including indirectly by reducing women's hardship and workload.
- ▶ Provide technical or complementary training to support women's livelihoods, such as agricultural extension, financial services and value chain facilitation.
- ▶ Support complementary actions, like group formation, savings and loan groups, business skills training, and value chain facilitation.
- ▶ Link with other actors that can support women's livelihoods, such as:
  - ◊ market actors, such as input suppliers, buyers, processors, or transporters;
  - ◊ other WFP programmes, such as home-grown school feeding, FFT, smallholder programmes, and Purchase for Progress (P4P);
  - ◊ agricultural value chain development programmes, like those of FAO and IFAD; and
  - ◊ training organisations, NGOs, business incubation programmes, and cooperatives.
- ▶ Form partnerships with actors with the capacities to identify and support viable livelihoods for women.
- ▶ Carefully assess livelihood options that are being proposed for women, including questioning assumptions that underlie selecting livelihoods.

**Key success factor 7:** Supported women's access to information on rights and referrals, including in relation to GBV and SRHR, and the ability to exercise their rights.

- ▶ Working with partners, use FFA as a platform to raise awareness on rights and referral services, including in relation to:
  - ◊ women's legal rights;
  - ◊ gender roles, relations and responsibilities;
  - ◊ sexual reproductive health and rights (SRHR) and services; and
  - ◊ gender-based violence (GBV), including legal rights and services.
- ▶ Model good practices by sensitising on SEA for FFA work sites, and assigning a gender focal point for complaints.
- ▶ Support assets that reduce the risk of violence, such as access roads, woodlots and water sources.

**Challenge 5:** Inappropriately determined transfers distort participation ratios of women and men in FFA work due to pre-existing cultural norms and economic barriers.

- ▶ Promote women's participation in FFA work (see Key success factor 1);
- ▶ Establish transfer values in line with the Cash and Voucher Manual and FFA PGM;
- ▶ Provide non-monetary incentives and benefits for participating women, such as technical training, soft skills training, access to credit, and access to markets; and
- ▶ Monitor gender participation ratios, and as necessary, understand the dynamics and decision making behind who participates. If necessary, take corrective action to promote women's participation.

## Women's Nutrition

**Key success factor 1:** Used the 3PA (or other planning processes) to ensure programming improves nutrition outcomes for women.

- ▶ Ensure the equal, equitable and meaningful participation of women and men in SLP and CBPP processes. Ensure that a diverse range of women (including spanning the life cycle) are represented.
- ▶ Integrate a nutrition focus in all stages of the 3PA, particularly CBPP.
- ▶ Use 3PA processes to map services and opportunities for partnership on complementary services such as sensitisation and referral, or training on production of nutritious food.

- ▶ Where possible, co-locate or integrate with FFA with other WFP programmes for other partners' food and nutrition security programmes

**Key success factor 2:** Used FFA as platform to provide nutrition sensitisation and link to nutrition and health services.

- ▶ Map services and opportunities for partnership on sensitisation and referral.
- ▶ Provide nutrition sensitisation and messaging, including on women's nutrition in all life cycle stages, care practices, hygiene and sanitation, maternal and child health, and SRHR. Where appropriate, invite government partners (health workers, midwives, women's officers etc.) or other actors to support this.
- ▶ Link beneficiaries with nutrition, health and SRHR services by government and others.
- ▶ Use soft conditionality (e.g., making it a work norm) for households to participate in sensitisation and other activities (e.g., growth monitoring).

**Key success factor 3:** Ensured that the transfers and FFA work supported good nutrition, particularly for women.

**Challenge 9:** Cash transfers are not enough to afford a nutritious diet.

- ▶ Ensure that the timing and composition / value of the transfer supports good nutrition, in line with WFP Nutrition-Sensitive Guidance and WFP Cash and Voucher Manual. The transfer should be sufficient to enable access to a nutritious diet (including not only quantity but quality and thus meet macro and micronutrient requirements); not just a calorie-adequate diet.
- ▶ Ensure that the transfer is accompanied by sensitisation on nutritious foods to support informed decision making and use of the transfer.
- ▶ Add a fortified complementary food or an extra transfer for nutritionally-vulnerable groups.
- ▶ Ensure that PLW have tailored work norms and that facilitative services, such as child care for breastfeeding mothers.
- ▶ Adjust work norms and/or transfers to respond to changes in women's workload.

**Key success factor 4:** Identified and supported assets to reduce women's workload and hardship, and improve safety and hygiene.

- ▶ Use CBPP to better understand and identify opportunities to reduce women's workload and hardship, and improve safety and hygiene.
- ▶ Select household or community assets that reduce women's workload and hardship, and improve safety and hygiene.

**Key success factor 5:** Identified and supported actions for better diets.

- ▶ Use the CBPP to identify pathways to better diets, and select actions to support better diets (which may not be through own production).
- ▶ Provide messaging on better diets; tailored to the different beneficiaries (gender, age, disability, literacy etc.).
- ▶ Support asset packages that can increase own production, income, or physical access.
  - ◇ Ensure the assets are packaged or layered with other assets to be sustainable.
  - ◇ Ensure that assets are of sufficient size or scale to improve diets.
  - ◇ Assuring permanent tenure / access to land and ownership of assets.
  - ◇ Establish an asset management committee (with gender balance in membership).
- ▶ Link to nutrition-sensitive agricultural extension services to promote a nutritious diet comprising rainbow fruit and vegetables and animal protein.
- ▶ Link to other complementary services (value chain actors) so that women and men can derive the maximum benefit from assets.
- ▶ If introducing new foods, provide cooking classes (to women and men) to ensure consumption.

**Key success factor 6:** Identified and supported actions for better sanitation.

- ▶ Provide awareness raising or training to support better sanitation, such as on mosquito breeding grounds and faecal-oral transmission of cholera.
- ▶ Encourage FFA committees to take community action, like rubbish clearing to reduce mosquito breeding grounds. To avoid overburdening women, consider making this a work norm.
- ▶ Where possible, introduce innovations to improve sanitation. E.g., Zimbabwe latrines.

**Challenge 8:** Targeting nutritionally-vulnerable household members as FFA *participants*, rather than FFA *beneficiaries*.

- ▶ Ensure that WFP staff and Cooperating Partners understand the distinction between FFA participants and FFA beneficiaries.
- ▶ Ensure that households have flexibility as to who represents the household in work. Where the nutritionally-vulnerable household member works, then take measures such as:
  - ◇ select lighter work and lighter work norms for nutritionally-vulnerable persons, taking into account their particular nutrition needs;
  - ◇ provide unconditional support to households with no able-bodied persons, such as to PLW during specific periods;
  - ◇ adjust timing of FFA activities to support nutrition and health; and
  - ◇ provide sufficient breaks, such as for rest, care taking and feeding of babies.

**Challenge 10:** Vegetable gardens do not provide the foods to diversify the diet as expected.

- ▶ Locate vegetable gardens close to water sources and households.
- ▶ Ensure the permanent tenure of the gardens. This will encourage investment in the garden.
- ▶ Invest in the garden's infrastructure to ensure that it is sustainable. Examples include:
  - ◇ fencing to reduce theft of vegetables and destruction by animals;
  - ◇ irrigation infrastructure – pump, tank, distribution pipes, micro-irrigation, watering troughs – to reduce time and effort required for watering; and
  - ◇ latrines to provide dignity and safety when tending the vegetable gardens.
- ▶ Ensure that the model of management and ownership can be viable in the local context. Ensure that a committee (or other suitable body) is established to operate and maintain the infrastructure, including in the collection of fees, organising repairs, etc.
- ▶ Link with agricultural extension services to plan, provide training and demonstrations on how to grow year-round, nutritious range of vegetables.
- ▶ Promote vegetables on the basis of nutrient deficiencies following a thorough analysis; like green leafy vegetables in areas of high anaemia and papayas or pumpkins in areas with Vitamin A deficiency.

**Challenge 11:** Lack of alternative water sources creates the precondition for people to consume water from FFA water reservoirs that were designed for animal consumption or domestic responsibilities.

- ▶ Provide sensitisation that the water from water reservoirs is unsafe and not intended for drinking or food preparation.
- ▶ Link with other actors that can provide training and technology for water purification.







ஓவ கயிலீ  
பெருங்கண்டல்  
*Rhizophora mucronata*  
Rhizophoraceae





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