

GENDER AND SOCIAL EXCLUSION ASSESSMENT 2011
SECTORAL SERIES: MONOGRAPH I

Sectoral Perspectives on Gender and Social Inclusion



AGRICULTURE

GENDER AND SOCIAL EXCLUSION ASSESSMENT 2011
SECTORAL SERIES: MONOGRAPH I

Sectoral Perspectives on Gender and Social Inclusion

AGRICULTURE

A co-publication of the Asian Development Bank, Department for International Development,
UK, and The World Bank

© 2012, the Asian Development Bank, Department for International Development, UK,
and The World Bank

ISBN 978 9937 2 4144 1

The findings, interpretations, and conclusions expressed in this work do not necessarily reflect the views of the Asian Development Bank or its Board of Governors or the governments they represent; the Department for International Development, UK; or The World Bank, its Board of Executive Directors, or the governments they represent.

The Asian Development Bank, the Department for International Development, UK, and The World Bank do not guarantee the accuracy of the data included in this publication and accept no responsibility for any consequence of their use.

Rights and Permissions

The material in this work is subject to copyright. Because the Asian Development Bank, the Department for International Development, UK, and The World Bank encourage dissemination of their knowledge, this work may be reproduced, in whole or in part, for non-commercial purposes as long as full attribution to this work is given.

Any queries on rights and licenses, including subsidiary rights, should be addressed to Stefania Abakerli, The World Bank, 1818 H Street NW, Washington, DC 20433, USA
e-mail: sabakerli@worldbank.org

The Asian Development Bank
Srikunj Kamaladi, Ward No. 31
GPO Box 5017, Kathmandu, Nepal

The UK Government Department for International Development
GPO Box 106
Ekantakuna, Lalitpur, Nepal

The World Bank
Yak and Yeti Hotel Complex
Durbar Marg, Kathmandu, Nepal

Printed in Nepal

Contents

Preface	v
Executive Summary	ix
Abbreviations/Acronyms	xiii
Annexes	85
Bibliography	95
1. Introduction and Overview	1
2. Gender Equality and Social Inclusion: Making It Happen in Agriculture	33
3. Checklist for Mainstreaming Gender Equality and Social Inclusion	81
List of Tables	
1.1 Inclusive, Pro-poor, and Gender-responsive Percentages of Annual Budget of the Government of Nepal, 2009-2010	16
1.2: Summary Gender Equality and Social Inclusion Budget Analysis of Seven Sectors (Total of Program Budget), Including Direct and Indirect Contributions	17
1.3 Gender Equality and Social Inclusion Budget Analysis of Annual Programs, Kavre and Morang (%)	18
2.1 Overview of Projects/Programs	48
2.2 Gender Equality and Social Inclusion Budget Analysis of Sectoral Budgets of the Community Livestock Development Program, Project for Agriculture Commercialization and Trade, and Two Regular Ministry of Agriculture Programs	57
2.3 Gender Equality and Social Inclusion Budget Analysis of Sectoral Budgets of District Agriculture Development Offices and Four Ministry of Agriculture Programs	58
2.4 Gender Equality and Social Inclusion Aspects of Agriculture-related Policies	64
3.1 Analysis of Barriers	79
3.2 Responses to Exclusion	80
3.3 Monitoring and Evaluation	82
3.4 Roles and Timing in Monitoring	84
List of Figures	
1.1 Excluded Groups	4
1.2 Steps for Mainstreaming Gender Equality and Social Inclusion	5
1.3 Domains of Change	6
1.4 Diversity Profile of Civil Service Personnel in Seven Sectors	14
1.5 Diversity Profile of Civil Service Personnel by Level, Sex, Caste, and Ethnicity	15
2.1 Land Distribution in Nepal as Percentage of Total Population	36
2.2 State Provision of Subsidies on Fertilizer Transportation	39
2.3 Women and Men Engaged in Agriculture by Caste/Ethnicity and Regional Identity	42

2.4	Diversity of Civil Service Personnel in Agriculture Sector	53
2.5	Diversity of Civil Service Personnel at Different Levels in Agriculture	54

List of Boxes

1.1	What is a REFLECT circle?	20
-----	---------------------------	----

List of Annexes

1.1	Definitions of Socially Excluded Groups	87
1.2	Step 1 Gender Equality and Social Inclusion Framework: Analysis of Policy, Institutional, Program, and Monitoring and Evaluation Barriers	89
1.3	List of Budgets Reviewed, FY 2009-2010, for Gender Equality and Social Inclusion Budgeting Covering 22 Programs and Annual Plans of Two Ministries	90
2.1	Analyses of Log Frames of Selected Programs	91
2.2	Gender-responsive Budget Indicators	93
3.1	Policy Analysis Format	94
3.2	Format for Disaggregated Diversity Profile	94
3.3	Program and Budget Analysis Format	94

Preface

Background and Objectives of GSEA 2011/ Sectoral Series: Monograph 1

Gender equality and social inclusion (GESI) have been recognized by the Government of Nepal and its development partners as critical to equitable development. Particularly following the Second People's Movement (or Jana Andolan II) of April 2006, the efforts of the government, with the support of development partners, have been aimed at transforming the country into an inclusive and just state, with an eye to restructuring existing power relations to ensure the rights of all citizens, regardless of caste, ethnicity, religion, gender, region, age, or class. The Interim Constitution (2007) guarantees social justice and affirmative action for women, Dalits, Adivasi Janajatis, Muslims, Madhesis, and other excluded or disadvantaged groups. It also proposes the future restructuring of the state to institutionalize an inclusive, democratic and progressive governance system, maximizing people's participation based on devolution of power, and the equitable distribution of resources.

The Gender and Social Exclusion Assessment (GSEA), which was jointly produced by the World Bank (WB) and the UK Department of International Development (DFID), was delivered to the National Planning Commission (NPC) in June of 2005 and published in summary version in early 2006 as *Unequal Citizens: Gender, Caste and Ethnic Exclusion in Nepal*.

As a complement to the Gender and Social Exclusion Assessment, DFID, WB and ADB have collaborated to produce a series of mono-

graphs with practical guidance on how to mainstream gender equality and social inclusion in seven key service-delivery sectors: agriculture, education, forestry, health, irrigation, rural infrastructure (with an emphasis on roads), and rural and urban water supply and sanitation—to which additional sectors may be added in the future.

The current process of political transition provides a very significant opportunity for greater inclusion and equitable development. The Interim Constitution (2007) and the Three-Year Interim Plan (2008-2010) reflect commitments made for the social, political and economic transformation of Nepal. For the country's development partners, including DFID, WB and ADB, mainstreaming gender equality and social inclusion in their overall work is mandated by global and national agency directives.¹ For instance, in its country partnership strategy (2010-2014), ADB recognizes the need to “address gender, ethnic, and caste discrimination through policy reform, targeted investments, and the mainstreaming of equal opportunity measures in key sector investments”, and aims to guide and ensure that in all ADB operations and sectoral assistance, gender and social inclusion concerns are adequately addressed (ADB 2009). DFID's country business plan for Nepal states that, “Gender is at the heart of our work ... all our work considers impacts on women and girls.”² Efforts to promote gender equality and social inclusion are likewise an integral part of the World Bank's current interim strategy for

Nepal (World Bank, 2009) and the new strategy being developed.

In Nepal over the last few years there has been a growing practice of developing gender- and inclusion-sensitive interventions, especially in the government's sector-wide programs supported by multiple donors (e.g., Local Governance and Community Development Program [LGCDP], health, education and rural transport SWAp [sector-wide approach]). Various sectors have also developed their own GESI strategies (e.g., forestry, agriculture, health and local development). This Series attempts to provide coherence to GESI mainstreaming done by the government, donor agencies and other development actors, and to introduce a tool that can be commonly applied across sectors for mainstreaming in policies, programming, budgeting, monitoring, and reporting. The aim of the Series is to help make the Government of Nepal's goal of universal access to key public services and resources a reality for all Nepali citizens. A major focus has thus been on identifying the specific barriers faced by different groups and the resultant impact of those barriers; assessing policies, program modalities, and project mechanisms that have worked best to overcome these barriers; and identifying the measures that work best to mainstream GESI in sectoral programming.

Process of Developing GSEA 2011/Sectoral Series Monographs

Each of the sectoral assessments consisted of document review, meetings with sector specialists and stakeholders, diversity and budget analysis, some fieldwork, wider consultative workshops, and follow-up meetings. Meetings and interactions were held with more than 100 people from government, civil society, commissions, representative associations/organizations of excluded groups, and projects/programs. Sectoral consultation workshops with approxi-

mately 30 participants in each were organized with key stakeholders, namely, government, project/program staff, donor agencies, and representative organizations. Literature review was a major source of information for the development of these monographs; however, some fieldwork was also done by team members in selected districts.

Draft versions prepared by Greg Whiteside (health), Elvira Graner (education), Bijaya Bajracharya (agriculture/forests/irrigation), Jennifer Appave (water supply and sanitation), and Shuva Sharma (rural infrastructure/roads) were used as background information and built upon where possible. As the GESI framework began to emerge as an important way forward, ADB, DFID and the World Bank decided that the sectoral assessments should be structured around this framework so that practitioners using the monographs would become familiar with the approach. Due to its previous experience in the development and application of the GESI framework, the Human Resource Development Centre (HURDEC), a private management consultancy firm of Nepal, was commissioned by WB/DFID to lead the development of the sectoral series. Jennifer Appave was commissioned by ADB to work with the HURDEC team from January to June 2010 to prepare the drafts. The Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation (SDC) provided technical support through two advisers.

The team members who prepared the different sectoral monographs in this series are as follows: 1) agriculture—Jennifer Appave and Chhaya Jha, with inputs from Yadab Chapagain and Yamuna Ghale (SDC); 2) education—Jaya Sharma and Chhaya Jha, with inputs from Yadab Chapagain (HURDEC); 3) forestry—Bimala Rai-Paudyal (SDC) and Chhaya Jha; 4) health—Chhaya Jha; 5) irrigation—Chhaya Jha and Jennifer Appave, with inputs from Pranita Bhushan and Yadab

Chapagain; 6) rural infrastructure—Chhaya Jha, with inputs from Kumar Updhayay (HURDEC) and Shuva Sharma; and 7) water supply and sanitation—Jennifer Appave and Chhaya Jha. Deepa Shakya and Sara Subba did the research for the sectoral monographs while Dharmendra Shakya and Ram Bhusal worked on the budget analysis and staff diversity analysis. Sitaram Prasai and Birbhadra Acharya (HURDEC) did the gender-responsive budget (GRB) assessment in Kavre and Morang districts. Carey Biron edited all the monographs except forestry, which was done by Mary Hobley. Chhaya Jha guided the entire process, and was responsible for the final writing of all the monographs under the guidance of Lynn Bennett, the lead researcher for GSEA.

The Sectoral Series Monograph would not have made it to their current published form without the diligence and creativity of the Himal

Books team responsible for the final editorial and design support. Led by Deepak Thapa, the team included Amrita Limbu (editorial assistance) and Chiran Ghimire (layout and design).

The monographs in this series should be considered as learning documents that will allow for sectoral data and analysis to be updated and improved based on sectoral experiences and sharing of good practices. The monographs in this series all have a common introduction and a common final chapter outlining the generic steps in the GESI mainstreaming process which is intended as a handy reference guide for practitioners. The sectoral monographs have been published in alphabetical order, covering agriculture, education, forest, health, irrigation, rural infrastructure (roads), and rural and urban water supply and sanitation. Additional sectors will be included over time.

Notes

- 1 For the World Bank, the gender-mainstreaming strategy (2001) and operational policy and Bank procedures statement (2003) provide the policy framework for promoting gender issues as part of strategically focused analytical work, policy dialogue and country assistance (World Bank 2006). The policy on gender and development (1998), Strategy 2020, and ADB results framework articulate ADB's commitment to gender, and require that gender inequalities be addressed in all aspects of ADB work (ADB 2010). The principal elements of DFID's gender policy and strategy are contained in DFID (2000, 2002). A "twin-track" approach based on mainstreaming of gender issues in all areas and sectors, while maintaining a focus on the empowerment of women as a disadvantaged group, has been adopted (Jensen et al, 2006).
- 2 The UK government's program of work to fight poverty in Nepal, 2009-2012.



Executive Summary

The purpose of this monograph is two-fold. First, it assesses the current situation of gender equality and social inclusion in Nepal's agriculture and livestock sector. It identifies the barriers faced by women, the poor and excluded groups in accessing agriculture services. It considers the policy and legislative as well as social barriers, and how the various policies, processes and programs have worked to address them. Second, it provides practical guidance on how to improve existing responses and take further action for more equitable access to agricultural services and benefits for women, the poor and the excluded.

Agriculture remains the most important source of livelihood for the rural poor in Nepal, engaging two thirds of the labor force. The outcome of agricultural production depends on several key assets and services: land, labor, water, rural infrastructure and other inputs (e.g., technology, extension services and financial services) that enhance production capacity and income. However, due to existing power relations, many of those who have traditionally had limited access to crucial services and opportunities in this sector continue to have little voice with which to compete for resources or influence decisions.

Despite the fact that women play a major role in agriculture and livestock management, the sector often fails to recognize them as independent farmers. Extension agents are more likely to contact men than women, and gendered norms make it difficult for women farmers to seek out male extension agents. The "farmer group" approach has provided the opportunity for women to

access extension services through these groups, but the government lacks sufficient human resources to deliver services, especially to those in more remote communities. In addition to gender- and location-based barriers, caste/ethnicity and income level also have a role in limiting access to agricultural and livestock services and assets. For some Adivasi Janajati and Madhesi groups, language is a barrier in accessing the services of extension agents and government offices. There has been an increasing trend towards provision of loans for women, the poor and excluded groups. Yet access to finance for women and the rural poor remains marginal due to their lack of property titles, which prevents them from meeting collateral requirements and accessing larger loans. These three groups also have less access to information about the availability of financial services, less self-confidence in dealing with officials, and women, especially, have limited mobility. Markets and demand for agricultural commodities are changing rapidly, especially for higher-value products. But poor and small-scale producers, often women, are excluded from these lucrative markets because they are unable to compete with larger producers.

Over the years, a progressive policy mandate has emerged in the agriculture sector for addressing gender and inclusion issues. Key sectoral policies such as the Livestock Master Plan (1996-2015), Agriculture Perspective Plan (1995), National Agriculture Policy (2004), Agricultural Extension Strategy (2005) and Gender Mainstreaming Strategy (2006) have

emphasized improving access to agricultural resources and benefits for women, the poor and the excluded. However, while there has been progress in addressing gender issues at the development planning level, a policy gap remains in tackling broader inclusion issues. For instance, the Agriculture Perspective Plan is meant to guide agricultural development, but ignores key land-specific issues; it deals mainly with how to increase immediate production outputs rather than with strategic and structural issues related to resource management, governance and structural reforms.

The Agriculture Policy of 2004 has various provisions for women, landless, the poor and the excluded. But many other policies are prepared in a gender- and inclusion-neutral manner. Nonetheless, these policies impact on women, the poor and the excluded strongly. For example, inadequate supply, unavailability and high prices of fertilizers make it more challenging for women, the poor and the excluded to access these at affordable prices. Further, despite a strong policy framework in the seed sector, supply is dominated by the informal seed system, which allows richer, male farmers to control seed transactions. Policies that provide subsidies to transport fertilizer to remote districts have not ensured that women, the poor and the excluded in those areas receive the fertilizer they require because the core reasons leading to its unavailability have not been addressed.

Policy directives setting quotas have ensured women's representation and participation in farmer groups, training opportunities and access to agricultural inputs. As a result of their engagement in groups, cooperatives and income-generating initiatives, women have increased their skills, social status and decision-making power. Further efforts are required, though, to reach socially excluded groups and promote their representation in key decision-making positions in

farmer groups. The Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives (MOAC) has a division mandated to work on gender issues but it has been ineffective due to lack of authority and an institutional failure to link its work with the Ministry's functions. There is a lack of understanding in the Ministry about the need to mainstream gender equality and social inclusion (GESI) as part of the responsibility of all staff. There is also low staff diversity among civil personnel (of 8,150 civil personnel, only 6% are women, 2% Dalit, and 1% Muslims while 58% are Hill Brahmin/Chhetri).

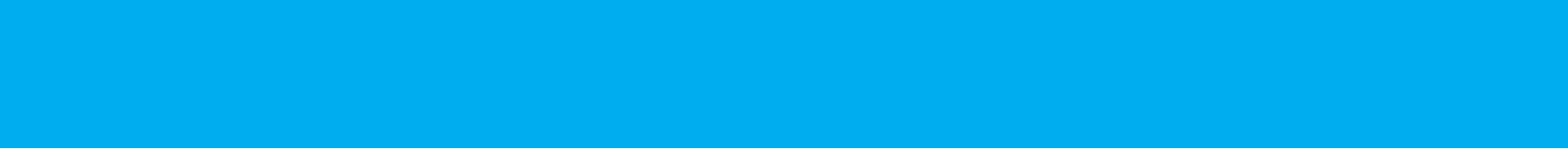
Despite persisting challenges in the sector, there have been some very promising and innovative attempts to address barriers faced by women, the poor and the excluded in accessing agricultural and livestock resources and improving their production capacity. The use of mobile phones at collection centers to provide market information, ropeways for transporting goods (thus reducing the time spent, usually by women and children, in transporting agricultural products), and leasehold farming to improve access to land for the poor and landless have all proved to be very effective in increasing access.

Efforts have also been made to create a supportive environment for the poor, women, Dalits and other socially excluded groups. Social mobilization group formation and investment in capacity building are some of the interventions that have helped address structural barriers. However, the discourse in the sector reflects an assumption that the farmer group approach will ensure access to services for all group members. Self-exclusion of the extreme poor and often socially excluded groups such as Dalits occur due to time constraints (especially for women and those who depend on daily labor for their livelihood) and inability to make the financial contributions generally required. Yet, while groups have proven to be a powerful mechanism to improve access to

services and inputs, relying solely on this model without assessing its suitability for all carries a significant risk that those most in need will not gain access. Further, with little or no GESI-sensitive planning of activities and allocation of budget, it is difficult to understand how the sector services will get to difficult-to-reach groups. Project design and implementation thus need to recognize that abilities, interests and needs will almost certainly vary, based on the ground realities of gender/caste/ethnicity/location and that these differences require flexibility in responses. Where programs have adapted their strategies (e.g., subsidies, employment opportunities, and land-lease arrangements for the poor), specific groups have indeed benefited. But targeted interventions need to be mainstreamed within universal programs so that these programs (which absorb a much larger share of government expenditure than targeted programs) address barriers constraining women, the poor and the excluded and become truly “universal”.

There are several practical operational steps that need to be put in place. These include a revision of different policies to address any exclusionary issues, especially for seed and fertilizer policies. Also important is a review of sectoral and project budgets, resource availability and allocation decisions, including the development

of gender- and inclusion-responsive budgeting. Further analysis of monitoring and evaluation systems is needed to insure that these are disaggregated by sex, caste/ethnicity/regional identity and location. Monitoring and reporting need to capture information and track changes in access to assets and services, improvements in voice and influence, shifts in policy and legal frameworks, and community-based governance structures. In addition, it is necessary to put in place the mechanisms, tools and organizational and human capacity essential for effective GESI mainstreaming. Unless there are clear linkages between personal reward structures and performance against GESI criteria, it is going to be difficult to institutionalize these practices within the sector. Finally, changing cultures, behaviors and structures requires that some of the longer-term exclusion issues are addressed such as by promoting entry into technical and professional employment in the agriculture sector through investment in scholarships, changes to the content of training courses of government staff, and creating more supportive working environments for women and Dalit professionals. Finally, the most important issue to be addressed is the positioning of women, the poor and the excluded as key actors in the sector, rather than as passive beneficiaries.



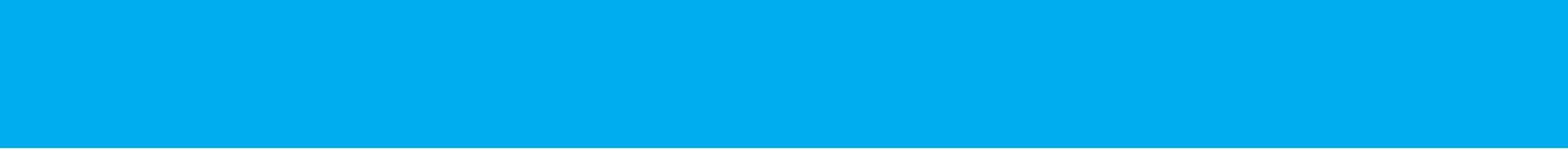
Abbreviations/Acronyms

ADB	Asian Development Bank
APP	Agriculture Perspective Plan
APPSP	Agriculture Perspective Plan Support Program
CAA	Commercial Agriculture Alliance
CADP	Commercial Agriculture Development Program
CBO	Community Based Organization
CBS	Central Bureau of Statistics
CEAPRED	Center for Environmental and Agricultural Policy Research, Extension and Development
CLDP	Community Livestock Development Program
COPE/PLA	Client Oriented Provider Efficient/Participatory Learning and Action
DADO	District Agriculture Development Office
DDC	District Development Committee
DFID	Department for International Development
DHS	Demographic and Health Survey
DIDCs	District Information and Documentation Centers
DLS	Department of Livestock Services
DLSO	District Livestock Office
DOA	Department of Agriculture
DPMAS	District Poverty Monitoring and Analysis System
ELF	Experienced Leader Farmers
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization
FTF	Farmer-to-Farmer
FY	Fiscal Year
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GEED	Gender Equity and Environment Division
GESI	Gender Equality and Social Inclusion
GMCC	Gender Mainstreaming Coordination Committee
GRB	Gender-Responsive Budget
GSEA	Gender and Social Exclusion Assessment
GTZ	Deutsche Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit
IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development
ILO	International Labor Organization

ILP	Intensive Livestock Production
IPC	Integrated Planning Committee
JT	Junior Technician
JTA	Junior Technical Assistant
LFP	Livelihoods and Forestry Program
LGCDP	Local Governance and Community Development Program
M&E	Monitoring and Evaluation
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MIS	Management Information Systems
MLD	Ministry of Local Development
MOAC	Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives
MOF	Ministry of Finance
MOHP	Ministry of Health and Population
MWCSW	Ministry of Women, Children and Social Welfare
NFDIN	National Foundation for Development of Indigenous Nationalities
NHSP-IP 2	Nepal Health Sector Program- Implementation Plan 2
NLFS	Nepal Labor Force Survey
NLSS	Nepal Living Standard Survey
NPC	National Planning Commission
NSCFP	Nepal Swiss Community Forest Project
OBCs	Other Backward Classes
PACT	Project for Agriculture Commercialization and Trade
PMAS	Poverty Monitoring and Analysis System
PRA	Participatory Rural Appraisal
PRSP	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper
SAPPROS	Support Activities for Poor Producers of Nepal
SDC	Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation
SSMP	Sustainable Soil Management Program
SSRP	School Sector Reform Program
SWAp	Sector-Wide Approach
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNIFEM	United Nations Development Fund for Women
VDC	Village Development Committee
WB	World Bank
WDO	Women's Development Officer
WSS	Water Supply and Sanitation
WTO	World Trade Organization

CHAPTER I

Introduction and Overview



1.1 Introduction

This introduction and overview chapter defines the dimensions of exclusion and presents the framework for gender equality and social inclusion (GESI) mainstreaming that has been used for all the sectoral monographs. It presents an outline of the current situation of gender equality and social inclusion in Nepal, and summarizes the findings of the seven sectoral monographs. It presents the barriers that have been identified for women, the poor and the excluded, and discusses the national, international and sectoral policy mandates for GESI, the institutional structures and mechanisms established by the government for women and excluded groups, the sectoral findings regarding institutional arrangements for GESI, the diversity of civil personnel in the various sectors, and the working environment. It summarizes the findings regarding the existing practice of gender-responsive budgeting (GRB), the results of GESI budgeting that was applied in the seven sectors, and the monitoring and evaluation (M&E) system in use. The good practices, lessons learned and way forward for the sectoral monographs are also summarized.

1.2 Gender Equality and Social Inclusion Framework and Defining the Excluded

For the last 60 years, since the 1951 overthrow of the Rana regime, Nepal has been struggling to transform its feudal economic and political system, and to leave behind the ingrained hierarchies of gender and caste. But these deep-seated systems for organizing the world and structuring power relations do not change easily. Despite formal laws that guarantee equal treatment to men and women as well as to Dalits, Tharus and Brahmins, to Madhesi and Paharis, and to Hindus, Muslims and Christians, many of the old habits of thought and daily behavior endure. The vulnerability

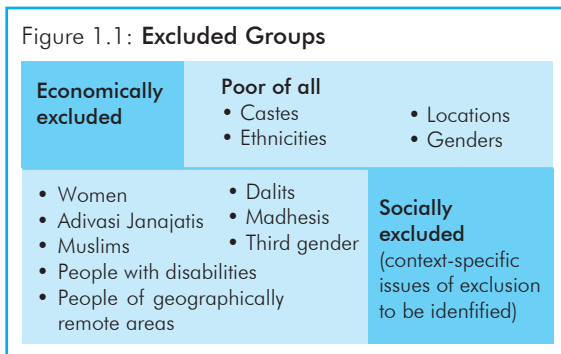
and dependency of women are persistent in a patriarchal culture where, despite the fact that their labor was critical to the subsistence agricultural economy, women were little valued, did not inherit family land, and could be cast out if the husband favored a younger wife.

Persistent too is the chronic poverty of groups such as the Dalits at the bottom of the caste hierarchy, who, in addition to the humiliation of being considered “impure” and therefore “untouchable,” have faced structural barriers to education and economic opportunities for generations. The Adivasi Janajatis, or indigenous groups in Nepal, most of whom were subdued some 250 years ago during the Gorkha conquests, have also found themselves placed within the Hindu caste hierarchy. Because of their numbers (37% of the population) and their military prowess, Adivasi Janajatis were given a place in the middle of the hierarchy rather than at the bottom, as they were in India. Ironically, even though it was a system imposed on them by outsiders, to preserve their own status in the hierarchy many Janajati groups adopted the same discriminatory behavior towards Dalits as that practiced by the “high-caste” rulers. Similarly, even the caste Hindus in the plains, or Madhes, of Nepal were looked down upon and treated as foreigners when they visited Kathmandu, the capital of their own country.

The list of grievances is long and groups that have been historically excluded are many in Nepal. As development practitioners and sectoral specialists, we need to know at least something of this historical and cultural context, so that we can design sectoral interventions in ways that are sensitive to the dense systems of exclusion that often still prevail in the communities where we hope to deliver services, infrastructure and livelihood opportunities. Our goal in this publication is to show how it is possible to design and implement the interventions we support in

ways that bring equal benefit to men and women from all these groups.

This monograph is concerned with two major dimensions of exclusion: economic and social. As shown in Figure 1.1, when it comes to poverty, or economic exclusion, we are concerned with the poor of *all* castes, ethnicities, locations and sexes. The socially excluded¹ groups include women, Dalits, Adivasi Janajatis, Madhesis, Muslims,



people with disabilities and people from geographically remote areas. What we also need to keep in mind is that the dimensions of exclusion are cross-cutting and cumulative. Some of our clients suffer some dimensions of exclusion but not others—for example, a poor Brahmin woman from Gorkha Bazaar is privileged in terms of her caste and her fairly well-connected location, but excluded by her poverty and gender. Other clients suffer from exclusion in almost all dimensions: for example, a poor Dalit woman in Jumla must contend with four dimensions—poverty, caste, gender and remoteness—of exclusion. The fact that these dimensions all interact with each other in different ways to frame the life chances of the different individuals we are trying to reach is why we need to look at exclusion in a holistic way. This is particularly true for gender, as prior efforts have taught us that it is far less effective to target gender and social inclusion separately. Further, looking at men’s and women’s realities is not enough—it is also necessary to ask “which women” and “which men.”

As will be elaborated in greater detail throughout this series, it is essential for each sector to define who the excluded in that sector are and the cause of their exclusion. The GESI framework² that is used for the sectoral monographs recognizes that both *formal* institutions (the legal framework, the policies of the sectoral ministry or even the specific procedures and components laid out in the formal project document) and *informal* institutions (the traditional norms of behavior for women and Dalits or the networks of political patronage) can present barriers to inclusion. Therefore, we keep an eye out for both of these dimensions throughout the GESI process.

The framework follows five key steps required to mainstream GESI in sectoral programming (visualized in Figure 1.2):

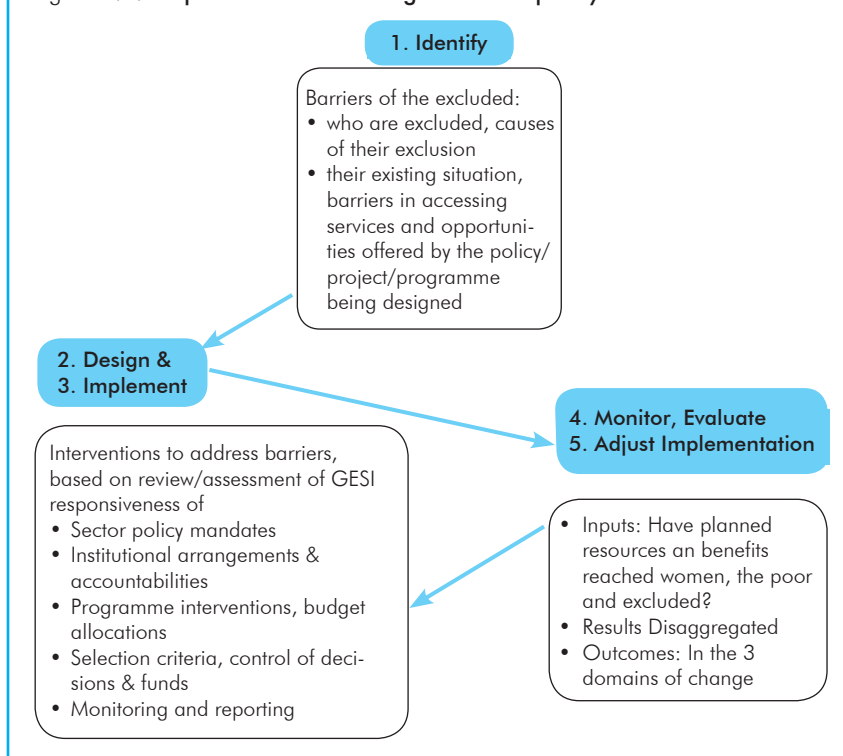
- i. identifying the excluded and the reason for their exclusion from access to services and opportunities in the sector;
- ii. designing policy and/or program-level responses that attempt to address the barriers in the program cycle;
- iii. implementation;
- iv. monitoring and evaluation to check whether planned resources and actions have reached women, the poor and the excluded; and (if M&E findings show the need)
- v. adjustment/redesign and continued M&E.

First step: Identification. This requires mapping the existing status of women, the poor, and the socially excluded in the sector, based on disaggregated qualitative and quantitative data and assessment of the available evidence. Analysis of existing policies (in the sector and beyond since policies in other sectors may also be blocking access), formal institutional structures and processes, and informal institutions (kinship, gender, caste systems and business and party net-

works) is necessary to understand exactly how social inequities based on gender, caste, religion, ethnicity and location have been created and/or maintained. The key actors in these existing structures also need to be critically assessed in terms of their ability (and incentives) to change their behavior and values, and to transform processes and mechanisms.

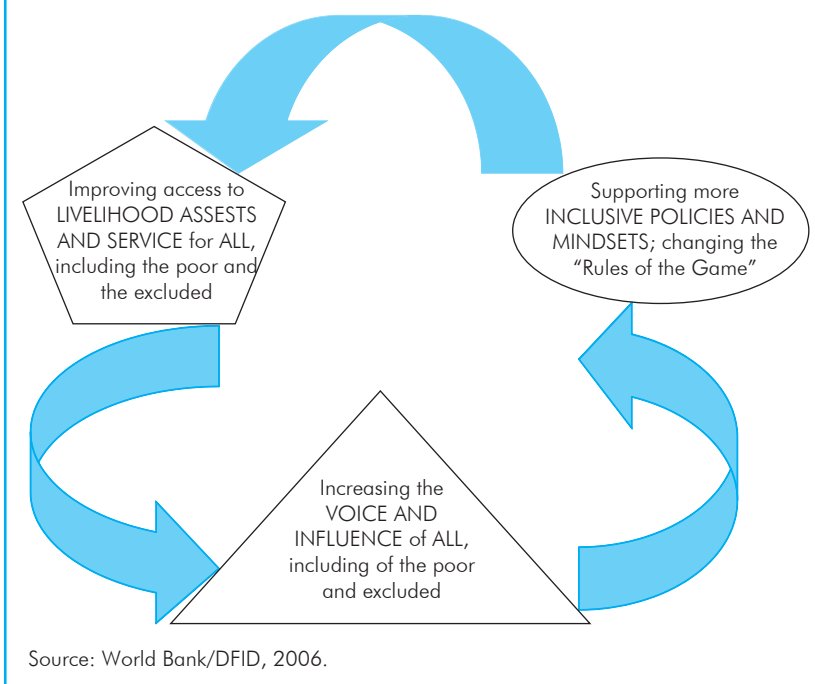
In addition to assessing the barriers constraining each group from enjoying their rights, we need to map existing policy and program responses (if any), and assess whether these are addressing, reducing or reinforcing these barriers (see Annex 1.2 for details). As we begin the design process, the situation prevailing in the sector—the set of policies and formal and informal institutions in place—will almost certainly be benefiting some individuals and groups more than others. Thus, we need to understand the political economy of the sector or subsector both nationally and locally in the sites³ where our projects or programs will be implemented. The stated intention of policies and procedures will always be positive and aimed at delivering services and benefits to all, but how do the policies work out on the ground for different groups? Do they deliver as intended; if not, what is intervening to prevent or change the intended outcomes? Usually, it is merely gaps in the delivery or communications systems that have been set up, or failure to understand the real needs of certain kinds of consumers, or other economic or social constraints that are preventing them from accessing the sector services. Either way, this is the detective work that needs to be done during the first step of the GESI process.

Figure 1.2: Steps for Mainstreaming Gender Equality and Social Inclusion



Second and third steps: Design and implementation. Once the sociocultural barriers and weaknesses in the policy framework or delivery system are understood, the job is to find ways to address these through interventions. This may require changes in policies, program activities, resource allocations, institutional arrangements and staff incentives as well as in the monitoring and reporting systems. Some things are easier to change than others and a single operation might not be able to make all the changes needed to respond to the diagnosis provided by Step 1. But even the larger, more intractable issues should be fed into the policy dialogue with government and other donors and be part of the longer-term sector strategy. At a minimum, *policies* need to be put in place that provide for the budget, processes (including stakeholder participation in the design) and systems needed to incorporate GESI mainstreaming into the operation under design. *Institutional arrangements* must also establish

Figure 1.3: Domains of Change



structures and mechanisms for routine work on gender and inclusion by technically competent individuals; promote diversity in staff composition; and adopt sensitive human resources policies for recruitment, promotion, transfer and performance evaluation.

To design a project or program so that it will be able to deliver real change and lasting progress for women, the poor and the excluded, it is useful to consider the content presented in Figure 1.3, which lays out three domains where change can happen. These are also domains that define exclusion and inclusion, and most projects and programs include activities in one or all of these areas. One important domain is access to assets and services (i.e., health, education, and employment opportunities), which almost all of our interventions seek to increase. What does your intervention need to do to make sure that access is open to excluded groups, and that you can track it?

The second domain has to do with *voice and*

influence. In Nepal, group-based projects and what the World Bank calls community-driven development approaches place a great deal of emphasis on organizing communities to manage resources, deliver services and construct infrastructure themselves. The way groups are formed, the depth of the social mobilization process and the level of effort to bring in people from excluded groups and give them genuine voice and influence over the group processes constitute another area where good design and careful implementation and monitoring can make a major difference. The final domain where our sector operations can make a difference is through *changing policies, institutional structures, and norms* (i.e., the "rules of the game"),

when intentionally or unintentionally these work against the interests of excluded groups. As noted above, not every operation can do this at the national policy level; but if our analysis has revealed that certain policies are perpetuating the exclusion of certain groups from the benefits our sector operation intends to deliver, then we need to be on the lookout for opportunities to get such policy changes on the agenda, and to push for their adoption. Often, even smaller project-level policies and procedures that are easier to influence can bring about important changes.

Nepal's weak implementation capacity means that even positive policy provisions are often not implemented effectively. Meanwhile, informal norms, social practices, values and biases of officials and service providers from dominant groups continue to hamper the implementation of measures that seek to transform power relations. Thus, implementation processes need to be designed in such a way as to provide space for service providers, local leaders, men and others

who hold power to reflect on and internalize the need for such shifts. This long-term design-and-implementation commitment to gender equality and inclusion-related activities is an essential element of mainstreaming GESI, and it requires a clear commitment from the management level to this way of doing business.

Final steps: Monitoring, evaluation, and reporting. M&E systems need to be designed to collect disaggregated data on outputs, outcomes and development results, and to be linked into management decision-making in such a way that data on inclusion failures automatically trigger project actions to understand and remedy the situation. At the output level, management should be able to ensure that the planned project resources and actions have reached women, the poor and the excluded. Yet, disaggregated intermediate outcomes also need to be tracked, such as the socioeconomic profile of user groups and executive committees, labor groups, pregnant women receiving antenatal visits, school attendance, new teachers hired, the placement of water taps, etc. Finally, disaggregated data on development results need to be collected and analyzed. This may be done by the project, but in some cases with the right coordination it can also be done by periodic national-level sample surveys such as the National Living Standards Survey (NLSS), the Nepal Demographic and Health Survey (NDHS), or the National Labor Force Survey (NLFS), or through the decennial census. Indicators of results at this level include, for instance, the time required to reach an improved water source or motorable road, primary-school completion rates, child mortality, increase in agricultural-based income, etc. In all of this, reporting formats need to capture disaggregated information about outputs, outcomes and results for different social groups, and the processes that linked them. Refer to Chapter 3 for a checklist for mainstreaming GESI.

1.3 Current Situation of Gender Equality and Social Inclusion in Nepal

Gender issues have been addressed during the past few decades of Nepal's planned development. Yet, it is only more recently that social inclusion has entered the development discourse, leading to recognition of other dimensions of exclusion in addition to gender.

1.3.1 Sector-wide barriers for women, the poor and the excluded

Each of the sectoral monographs in this series demonstrates that economic, political and socio-cultural institutional barriers exist for women, the poor and excluded groups, restricting their access to assets, services and opportunities to exercise their voice and influence. Women's access to assets and resources has improved considerably through many targeted programs while affirmative action strategies have helped to increase their representation in user groups and committees in all sectors. Forest and water supply and sanitation have been the most commendable sectors in promoting women's membership and participation, yet the operational space for women to voice their issues and exercise their agency remains strongly restricted by societal rules/norms/beliefs that continue to define how women are valued and what they can or cannot do (World Bank/DFID 2006). The sectoral monographs all show that women's ability to make decisions and benefit from accessing resources and services (e.g., to take care-seeking decisions when ill, to allocate time for attending community meetings, and to engage in livelihood activities) is often shaped by gendered norms and practices. Thus, along with changing discriminatory formal laws and policies, change must also take place in the home and family sphere in order to effectively address the barriers women face.

Government initiatives to promote an inclusive

public sector through, for example, free education and healthcare services have helped to increase access for the poor. However, the need to meet their daily subsistence needs, low literacy skills, and poor access to information about services and available resources limit the poor from benefiting fully from these programs. Further, self-exclusion of the very poor from group-based community development activities is common due to lack of time to contribute as well as lack of agency to influence decisions. Since so many services and opportunities flow through groups, this self-exclusion further reduces the access to resources and livelihood opportunities of those most in need. Similarly, the high opportunity costs incurred in the initial stages of group formation, with benefits uncertain and only coming later, also restrict the membership and participation of the very poor in user groups and committees.

Geographic location is a key determinant of exclusion across all sectors, influencing the level of access to public services such as schools, health posts, agricultural extension agents and finance institutions. For example, 38% of Janajatis in the hill regions have no access to a health post within an hour's walk. The lowest life expectancy (44) is found in the mountain district of Mugu, compared to 74 in Kathmandu. Only 32% of households in Nepal can reach the nearest agriculture center within a 30-minute walk, and only 28% can reach the nearest bank in that time. A significant part of the problem is that the government lacks the human resources necessary to deliver services or offer effective outreach to the remotest communities—and the available government staff are often reluctant to serve in remote areas, and thus find informal ways to avoid such postings. This is compounded by the dismissive attitude of many providers towards women, the poor, and the excluded.

Caste-based discrimination and untouchability remain a major barrier for Dalits in accessing

services, resources and assets, and in their ability to have voice and influence in decision-making processes. This is particularly so in accessing drinking-water facilities due to the traditional Hindu belief that Dalits are “impure” and will pollute a water source. Similarly, the low development outcomes in education (e.g., the illiteracy rate for Madhesi Dalit women is over 85%) and health (e.g., Madhesi Dalit women also have the lowest health indicators) are a result of a combination of factors, including poverty, lack of awareness and the discriminatory attitudes and behavior of non-Dalits towards Dalits (Bennett, Dahal and Govindasamy 2008).

For Adivasi Janajatis, language and issues around their cultural rights are the most significant barriers to accessing resources and benefiting from services. These are compounded by the low access of the most disadvantaged Adivasi groups to information on available development resources and procedures. Muslims and some Madhesi groups, especially women within these groups, face linguistic and sociocultural barriers that affect their level of mobility and ability to access services and participate in the public sphere. Although there is greater awareness of the needs of people with disabilities, this group continues to face social discrimination with virtually no disability-friendly services and facilities available, especially in rural areas.

1.3.2 Policy and legal framework for GESI

This section⁴ discusses the GESI policy framework and mandates at the international, national, and sectoral levels.

National mandates for GESI

Positive provisions in parliamentary declarations, the Interim Constitution (2007), the Three-Year Interim Plan (2008-10), and Nepal's ratification of various international instruments, including the International Labour Organisation (ILO)

Convention 169 on Indigenous Peoples, establish the fundamental rights of women, protect the cultural rights of Adivasi Janajatis, declare untouchability a legal offence, protect the rights of children and establish the rights of the poor, people with disabilities, Muslims and Madhesis.

The Local Self-Governance Act, 1999, empowers local bodies and has made them more accountable, particularly for local development activities. It directs local bodies to formulate their plans with the active involvement and participation of local people, focusing on the special needs of the poor, and mandates 20% representation of women on village and ward-level development committees. But these provisions do not address issues of inequity and vulnerability caused by gender, caste or ethnicity. The Local Self-Governance Regulations have provided for the inclusion and prioritization of the poor and the excluded in development activities. At the district development committee (DDC) level, however, the regulations make no distinct provision for the social and economic promotion of the poor and the excluded in the duties, roles and responsibilities of the DDC. However, the DDC can form subcommittees to address the needs of women and the disadvantaged by including members from nongovernmental organizations (NGOs), community-based organizations and civil society, and other experts.

The Gender Equality and Social Inclusion Operational Strategy (2009) of the Local Governance and Community Development Program (LGCDP) of the Ministry of Local Development (MLD)⁵ has provisioned for the informed participation of citizens, including women, the poor and the excluded, in local governance processes, and for capacity building of the Ministry's structures for mainstreaming GESI. It has established mechanisms of ward and village citizens' forums and GESI implemen-

tation committees in DDCs, and identified the roles and responsibilities of the GESI section of MLD. The DDC expanded block-grant guidelines to make a direct 15% budget allocation for women and 15% for people from excluded groups at the district level. The Village Development Committee Grant Operation Manual directs 5% for poor women, 5% for poor children and 10% for other excluded groups in village development committees (VDCs) and municipalities. The manual has also provided for integrated planning committees at the VDC level, with inclusive representation from Dalit, Janajati and women's organizations, from NGOs working in the VDCs, school management committees, social organizations, political parties, and line agencies. It directs that 33% of members must be women. (This is only a sample of provisions that are positive from a gender and inclusion perspective, as several others exist as well.⁶)

International commitments

Nepal has ratified as many as 16 international human rights instruments, including international conventions and covenants on women (United Nations [UN] Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women, Beijing Platform of Action), child rights (UN Convention on the Rights of the Child), indigenous people's rights (ILO Convention 169), and racial discrimination (UN Convention on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination). It has committed to international agreements on targets (Millennium Development Goals) set for women's empowerment, education, drinking water and sanitation, health, hunger and poverty. Nepal has also agreed to UN Security Council Resolution 1325 that establishes legal standards governing the protection of women during conflict, their participation in peace and security processes, and their protection against multiple forms of violence.

Sectoral policies: Gender equality and social inclusion policy provisions in the seven sectors

From our review, we find that commitments to GESI and progressive policy mandates have been made across the seven sectors, albeit to varying degrees. Revisions in policies have allowed programs addressing access to services for specific groups to be developed and implemented—for instance, free primary education, scholarships for girls and Dalits, multilingual education, incentive schemes for out-of-school children, universal and targeted free healthcare, safe delivery incentive schemes, quotas for women in community groups established by all the sectors, agriculture-related subsidies for the excluded, subsidies for poor households to build latrines, and so on.

SWAp (sector-wide approach) is increasingly being followed in Nepal, allowing for donor harmonization and more concerted efforts to address gender and inclusion issues. SWAps in health, education, and transportation—the Nepal Health Sector Program-Implementation Plan 2 [NHSP-IP 2] (2010-2015), School Sector Reform Program (SSRP) (2009-2015), and rural transportation infrastructure SWAp, respectively—have directives to address barriers experienced by women, the poor and the excluded. The NHSP-IP 2 includes a specific objective to address sociocultural barriers, a reflection of the government's shift to recognizing the need to address deeply embedded social norms and practices that affect health outcomes. GESI strategies have been included in the NHSP-IP 2, and strategies have been prepared for the agriculture and forest sectors though these have not yet been implemented.

Policies shifting control from centralized agencies to VDC-level community-based committees (school and health facility management committees) have increased the chances for women and the excluded to participate in decision-making. Yet, there is room for improve-

ment: both of these could contribute more effectively if representatives from excluded groups were to be selected by their own communities,⁷ if mechanisms were available for more inclusive representation to influence decisions, and if there were better monitoring by the relevant authorities. Policy provisions for representation of women and the excluded in user groups and committees, with specific guidance for representation in post-holding positions, have also become a well-established practice. The rural water supply and sanitation (WSS) national policy, for instance, has a mandate of 30% of women in user groups and committees, while for Dalits and Janajatis, too, there are provisions for representation (e.g., in health facility operation and management committees, farmer groups, road-building groups, water supply users' committees, and water users' associations). The more technical infrastructure sectors, such as WSS, rural roads and irrigation, have recognized the role women have in the operation and management of these sectors and have developed policies that promote their participation, especially in the construction and management phases. But policy development is weaker in ensuring that women, the poor and the excluded have voice and agency in local-level decision-making processes and has not effectively addressed the role that political and elite capture often has in influencing access to and utilization of resources and benefits in these sectors.

Policies for public and social audits adopted by many sectors (health, WSS, rural roads) are to be appreciated as these increase downward accountability of service providers. Implementation of these audits, however, remains problematic as does the risk of their becoming just another donor requirement with no repercussions if they are not properly carried out. Thus, it is important to have the participation of all excluded groups, follow-up to address any query that may arise

from the audits, and monitoring to ensure that full and correct processes are being implemented. Many policy revisions have focused on improving access to resources and services, but without addressing the structural issues that cause the exclusion of these groups. Thus, for example, the Agriculture Perspective Plan, the overarching policy framework guiding the agriculture sector, ignores key land-specific issues, and instead deals primarily with how to increase immediate production outputs rather than with strategic and structural issues related to resource management, governance and structural agrarian reform. In the forest sector, positive provisions are being increasingly implemented in community forestry, which has become more GESI responsive. But there is no recognition by decision makers that 75% of the national forests are barred to civilians—any use is illegal and punitive action is normal, impacting primarily on women, the poor and the excluded.

Almost all sectors provide specific support to women but efforts to address the structural causes of gender-based discrimination are almost nonexistent. Only very recently has the government developed a national plan of action on gender-based violence, with the health sector recognizing violence against women and girls as a public health issue. But these aspects are not integrated in the policies developed in other sectors—for instance, the seed policy in the agriculture sector is considered liberal, but does not recognize that seed transactions are male dominated, and by men of higher-income groups. Similarly, in the forest and WSS sectors, affirmative action policies are in place to ensure the representation of women on user group committees, but gendered norms and roles of women limit the actual level of participation, voice and influence they have in these forums. Indeed, many gender-focused policies have concentrated primarily on increasing representation of women in community-level

bodies and increasing access to sectoral resources, with far less recognition of the structural issues of division of labor, including the implications of gender-specific responsibilities of childcare, breast-feeding and taking care of the ill. There are almost no policies that provide women with sufficient support to manage such responsibilities alongside professional growth.

In no sector have government agencies clearly defined who constitute the “excluded,” and the interchangeable use of terminology denoting the “excluded,” the “disadvantaged” and the “marginalized” creates confusion. There are provisions for women, Dalits and Janajatis (e.g., for scholarships, representation and access to funds), who have thus been recognized as excluded groups, but there is hardly any mention of other excluded groups (e.g., Muslims, other backward classes, or OBCs, and Madhesis) or effort to address the causes of their exclusion. There are only a few sectoral policies mandating sex- and caste/ethnicity/location-disaggregated data and analytical evidence for monitoring. For example, the education and health sectors’ management information systems (MIS) have limited disaggregation though a pilot for reporting caste/ethnicity-disaggregated data is ongoing in health. The forest sector’s recently revised MIS incorporates GESI-sensitive indicators, but these still need to be implemented. However, positive examples and initiatives do exist in several programs—e.g., in the forest sector, the Livelihoods and Forestry Program (LFP) has established livelihoods and social inclusion monitoring, which not only demands disaggregated data but also analysis at outcome levels for different social groups.

The personal commitment of policy-makers to GESI is clearly an important influence on both the quality of the policies and the seriousness with which they are implemented. It is also critical to find and convince other important players in each sector, not only through training, which builds

knowledge, but by other means that build understanding and increase the internalization of equality, inclusion and social justice principles. A major part of this will need to be based on an improved understanding among policy-makers, administrators and sector employees of the specific barriers preventing different social groups from accessing and using services and resources as well as a commitment within the respective sectors to develop, budget, implement and monitor mechanisms and processes to overcome these barriers.

1.3.3 National and institutional mechanisms for gender equality and social inclusion

The government has created various institutional mechanisms and structures over the years to address gender and inclusion issues, from the central to the district and VDC levels.

Central level

The National Planning Commission (NPC) has a Social Development Division responsible for addressing women's empowerment issues. NPC's Agriculture and Rural Infrastructure Development Division has the responsibility to work on social inclusion. The Ministry of Women, Children and Social Welfare (MWCSW) has been implementing women-focused programs targeted at reaching disadvantaged and marginalized groups such as children, senior citizens and people with disabilities. Through its Department of Women's Development, the Ministry has women's development offices in 75 districts managed by Women's Development Officers (WDOs). MLD, responsible for social inclusion, has a Dalit and Adivasi Janajati coordination committee under its mandate, while the establishment of the National Dalit Commission, National Women's Commission and the National Foundation for the Development of Indigenous Nationalities has aimed to increase the participation of women, Dalits and Janajatis in governance

through improved protection of their rights. Finally, while gender focal points are included in NPC and all ministries and departments, and mandated to work on gender issues, they have been unable to deliver effectively due to multiple reasons, including their lack of authority, the absence of any institutionalized linkage between their gender mandate and the main work of the ministries as well as having no specific programs or resources for gender-related work.

District level

WDOs are present in each district under the Department of Women's Development/MWCSW, where they head the Women's Development Office and are mandated to mainstream gender and child rights in the districts. DDCs have a social committee with a Social Development Officer, who is also designated as the gender focal point for the DDC as a whole. Various watchdog committees have been formed, such as the Indigenous Ethnic District Coordination Committee and Dalit Class Upliftment District Coordination Committee, with representation from political parties. The Gender Mainstreaming Coordination Committee (GMCC), under the WDO and with representation from line agencies, is tasked with monitoring and coordinating district-level gender work. The GESI Implementation Committee, formed by the GESI strategy of LGCDP/MLD (with the Local Development Officer as chair, the WDO as vice-chair, the social development officer as member-secretary, and representation of GMCC, Dalit and Janajati coordination committees, and district-level NGOs/federations/associations of women and the excluded) is responsible for informing program planning on gender- and inclusion-related issues, auditing all programs and coordinating GESI-related activities in the district.

These institutional mechanisms have been

established at higher levels but most have experienced inadequate resources and weak institutional mechanisms, and thus have not been effective in protecting and furthering the GESI cause. In addition, there are overlaps between MWCSW and the National Women's Commission and only minimal efforts have been made to coordinate between the different commissions and the representative institutions of women, Dalits and Janajatis for collaborative efforts on gender and social inclusion.

VDC/municipality level

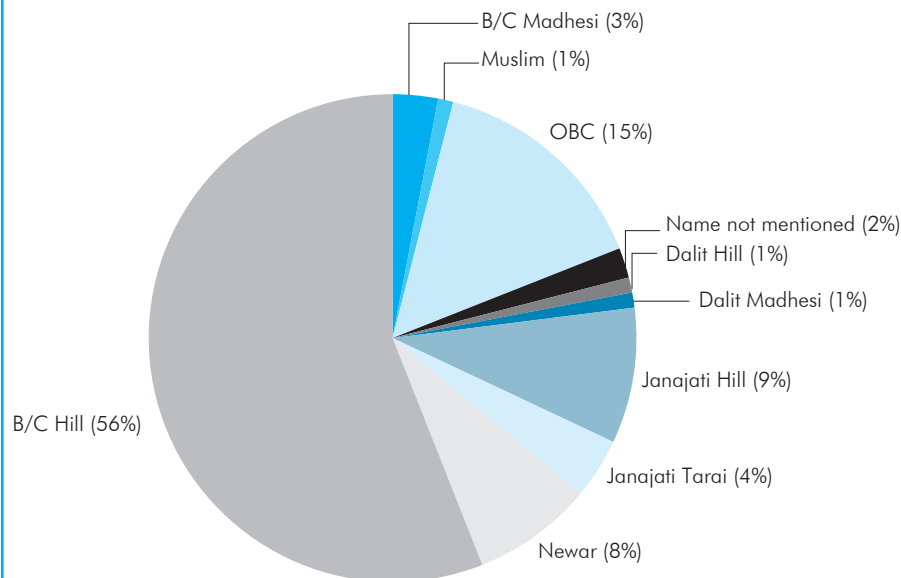
While there is no institutional mechanism with specific responsibility for GESI in VDCs or municipalities, the representative Integrated Planning Committees in each VDC are supposed to have members representing the interests of women, Janajatis, Dalits and NGOs, as mandated in the VDC Grant Operation Manual, and also have the general responsibility of ensuring that these issues are addressed. A potentially very effective new structure, established by the VDC Grant Operation Manual and GESI strategy of LGCDP/MLD 2009, are the village and ward citizens' forums. These create spaces for all citizens, including women, the poor and the excluded, to discuss, negotiate, prioritize and coordinate development efforts, and especially the allocation of block grants in their area, ensuring that they are both inclusive and equitable. A supervisory/monitoring committee has been mandated by the LGCDP/MLD GESI strategy. This mechanism has the responsibility to monitor GESI-related aspects of projects/programs. Finally, there are a number of community groups, women's federations, rights-based organizations, Dalit NGOs, indigenous people's organizations and pressure groups at the community level that have gathered experience through years of work, and have the ability to claim rights and influence local decisions.

Sectoral issues

Responsibility for GESI in the sectors is currently with the gender focal points, who, as discussed above, have not been able to work effectively. Some sectors (agriculture, education and forest) have institutional structures to address GESI issues specifically—for instance, the Gender Equity and Environment Division within the Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives (MOAC) and the Gender Equity Development Section and Inclusive Education Section within the Department of Education. The Gender Equity and Environment Division has a very narrow focus on gender and, in general, even when their mandate is broader and covers other excluded groups these GESI institutional structures do not have much influence on the policies and programs of their respective ministries. For one, the high turnover in government staff in ministries/departments results in changes in the political will and commitment towards GESI issues. For example, there have been frequent changes of staff charged with the role of coordinating the Gender Equity Working Group which is meant to facilitate the implementation of the GESI strategy in the forest sector. This constant turnover in the leadership has decreased the effectiveness of this group. The Ministry of Health and Population (MOHP) has planned to establish a GESI unit, but this is still in process.

Clearly defined responsibilities for any GESI unit, and routine working procedures linked to the main activities in the sector, are essential for these structures to be useful. Additionally, designated gender focal points, or even the GESI unit in general, need to have the technical expertise required to provide assistance on gender and inclusion in policy and project design, and in monitoring and evaluation. While training of gender focal points is common, practical application skills to integrate gender and inclusion from

Figure 1.4: Diversity Profile of Civil Service Personnel in Seven Sectors



Source: Nijamati Kitabkhana, February 2010; assessment by study team.

planning up to monitoring processes remain limited. Additionally, systems have not been revised to enable them to do their work (e.g., planning and monitoring processes/formats do not demand GESI mainstreaming). Although all sectors include GESI issues in their policies, strategies, and procedures, there are no sanctions for not achieving or improving GESI outcomes in the sector. The broader institutional culture might also not encourage (or, indeed, might actively discourage) GESI issues being raised or taken seriously. In the forest sector, for example, some government staff reported that other staff would simply laugh if they brought up social issues in a meeting. As such, transforming institutional culture clearly requires adopting innovative ways (e.g., appreciative inquiry, peer monitoring) to internalize and institutionalize GESI-sensitive thinking and behavior.

Workforce diversity

A diverse workforce enhances the ability of government institutions to represent and respond to the needs of specific identity groups and bet-

ter serve Nepali citizens, including those who have been historically excluded (Social Inclusion Action Group 2009⁸). Efforts are needed to make staff profiles more inclusive with regard to women and people from excluded groups and to develop human resource policies that are gender and inclusion sensitive. A review⁹ of personnel of the government in the seven key sectors finds the following.

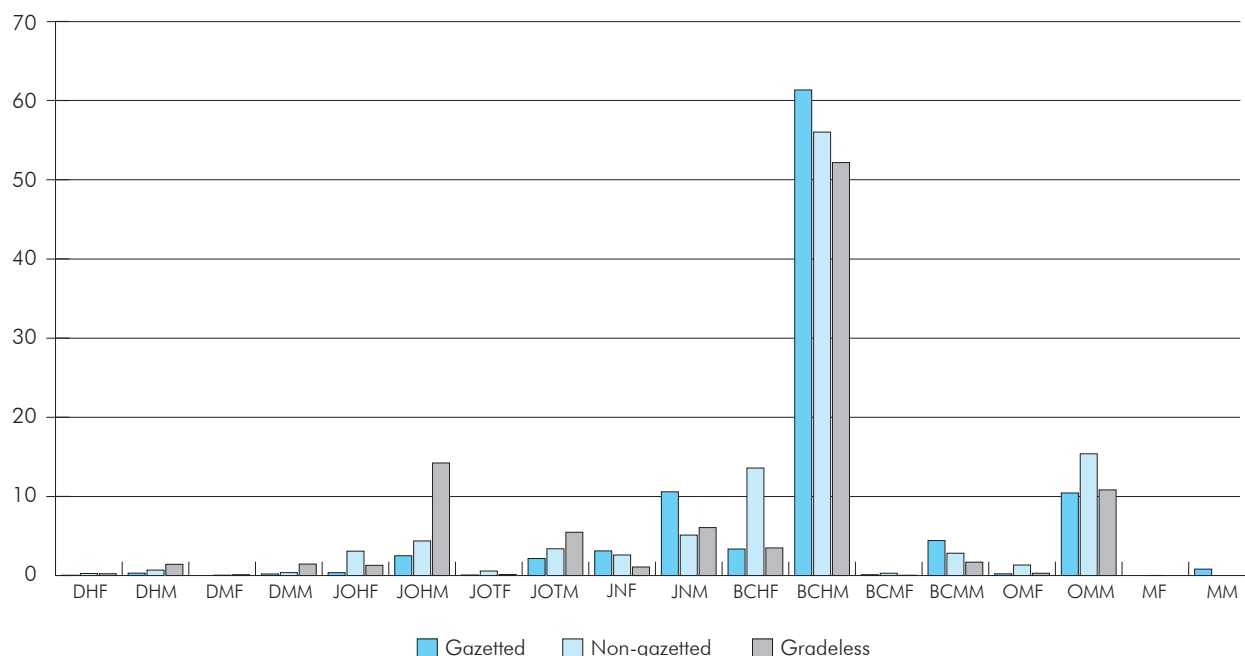
Diversity status. Altogether there are 41,183 staff members (of whom 6,742 are women, i.e., 16.37%) in the

sectors we reviewed. Compared to the national population,¹⁰ there is overrepresentation of Brahmins/Chhetris and Newars (who are primarily in key decision-making positions), almost an equal proportion of OBCs (mostly in non-gazetted technical positions), while all the other groups are underrepresented (Figure 1.4).

There are 4,594 staff at the gazetted level, of whom 7.27% are women. Among the women, Brahmins/Chhetris comprise the majority at 69.22%, and Dalits the fewest at only 0.20%.¹¹ The highest presence of women¹² is in the third-class non-gazetted positions (a majority of which are in the health sector as assistant nurse midwives and mother-and-child health workers; Figure 1.5).

Across sectors, the highest participation of women is in health, at 28.54%, and the lowest in forestry at 3.25%. Brahmins/Chhetris have the highest representation across all sectors, while Muslim representation is comparatively better in forestry than in the other sectors. OBCs are disproportionately overrepresented in the irriga-

Figure 1.5: Diversity Profile of Civil Service Personnel by Level, Sex, Caste, and Ethnicity



Note: DHF/M—Dalit Hill female/male; DMF/M—Dalit Madhesi female/male; JOHF/M—Janajati others Hill female/male; JOTF/M—Janajati others Tarai female/male; JNF/M—Janajati Newar female/male; BCHF/M—Brahmin/Chhetri Hill female/male; BCMF/M—Brahmin/Chhetri Madhesi female/male; OMF/M—OBC Madhesi groups female/male; MF/M—Muslim female/male.

Source: Nijamati Kitabkhana, February 2010; grouped for the study based on GSEA caste/ethnic groupings.

tion sector, but have the lowest representation in education. Similarly, Hill Dalits have better representation in rural infrastructure and Madhesi Dalits in agriculture as compared to other sectors.

1.3.4 Gender-responsive budgeting and gender equality and social inclusion budgeting

This section analyzes allocations/expenditures of the government and programs' budget to examine the extent to which resources are being spent on sector activities that are expected in some ways to help women, the poor and the excluded. The objective is to "follow the money" to assess what efforts have been made to address the issues that constrain these groups' access to sector benefits, analyze how much of the budget has been allocated and spent on such issues, and assess the

degree to which government funding for these issues is channeled through targeted programs or integrated into mainstream programs.

NPC issues guidelines directing ministries and line agencies in the formulation of their program budgets. In close coordination with the Ministry of Finance (MOF), NPC identifies the ministry-specific and sector-specific budget. The government's annual budget speech presents three types of analysis of the budget from a gender and inclusion perspective: expenditures in support of "inclusive development and targeted programmes"; the gender-responsive budget (GRB) exercise; and pro-poor expenditures (Annex 8a, 8b, and 8c of the annual budget speech 2009-2010, respectively).

We tried to identify how classifications were made and the process that was followed.

Table 1.1: Inclusive, Pro-poor, and Gender-responsive Percentages of Annual Budget of the Government of Nepal, 2009-2010

Sector	FY 2009-2010 budget (in '000 Nepali rupees)	Inclusive development and targeted programs		Gender-responsive budget						Pro-poor	
		Allocation	%	Directly supportive	%	Indirectly supportive	%	Total	%	Allocation	%
Agriculture	7,876,587	333,900	4.24	2,015,617	25.59	5,587,704	70.94	7,603,321	96.53	6,720,121	85.32
Education	46,616,672	18,368,433	39.40	1,300,659	2.79	22,187,486	47.60	23,488,145	50.39	40,589,748	87.07
Forest	3,449,974	60,453	1.75	71,880	2.08	1,826,637	52.95	1,898,517	55.03	1,780,218	51.60
Health	17,840,466	-	-	7,156,379	40.11	10,243,816	57.42	17,400,195	97.53	10,098,860	56.61
Irrigation	7,761,390	-	-	7,500	0.10	7,103,102	91.52	7,110,602	91.62	6,839,801	88.13
Rural infrastructure	35,693,647	4,280,025	11.99	12,996,863	36.41	12,588,029	35.27	25,584,892	71.68	34,949,331	97.91
Water and sanitation	29,500,624	-	-	6,806,427	23.07	18,740,825	63.53	25,547,252	86.60	13,890,848	47.09

Source: Annexes 8a, 8b, and 8c, Annual Budget, Government of Nepal, FY 2009-2010.

Indicators are not specified for inclusive development/targeted programs, but there are indicators for GRB¹³ and pro-poor budgeting.¹⁴ Our discussions with Ministry and line agency staff, however, indicate that the guidelines are not clear, and that, as noted earlier, it is typically left to the budget officer to categorize and score the various budget lines to the best of his (it is primarily men) understanding. Some of the ministries were not even aware of the inclusive development and targeted program analysis while at the district level none of the line agencies had applied these budgeting processes. The budget speech of Fiscal Year (FY) 2009-2010 categorized high percentages of expenditures in all sectors as pro-poor and gender responsive, but with low expenditures for inclusive development and targeted programming (Table 1.1).

Since the scoring and indicators were not clear for the other two kinds of budgeting, we have focused on reviewing the government's GRB indicators, identifying what sub-indicators are relevant and whether this approach is effective for tracking GRB expenditures in different sectors. The budget speech of 2007-2008 also declared that all ministries would need to follow gender-responsive budgeting,¹⁵ for which NPC has introduced a classification system of pro-

grams and projects, while a GRB committee has been formed within the budget division of MOF, with representation from MWCSW, MLD, NPC and UN Women.

According to the GRB guidelines, each proposed program in the sector has to be scored as per the indicators developed by the Gender-responsive Budgeting Committee, in which five aspects of gender sensitivity (participation, capacity building, benefit sharing, increased access to employment and income-earning opportunities, and reduction in women's workload) have been allocated 20 potential marks each. For each budget item/activity, the officer doing the analysis had to assess what percentage of the expenditure directly benefits women. Programs scoring 50 points or more are classified as *directly responsive* to women, those scoring 20 to 50 as *indirectly responsive*, and those scoring less than 20 as *neutral*.¹⁶

Sector staff categorize all expenditure items in the sectoral budget into these three categories based on the five indicators of gender responsiveness. However, these indicators, which were developed in the context of agriculture, are not necessarily applicable in other sectors. There are no sub-indicators to guide the scoring of budget lines or assess how the activities budgeted contribute to the indicators. Also, GRB indicators

tend to be better at capturing expenditures for targeted women's programs than at picking up expenditures for efforts made in universal programs to mainstream GESI. Finally, of course, the GRB exercise focuses only on gender and does not capture expenditures aimed at increasing outreach to excluded groups.

Gender equality and social inclusion budget analysis

While we have assessed the existing GRB practice and indicators used, and identified possible sub-indicators for GRB analysis in the different sectors, we have also developed and applied our own tentative GESI budgeting methodology.¹⁷ This is intended to capture expenditures that reach and support excluded groups and those that support women. Although there is no single rule about how to determine whether public expenditure is discriminatory or equality enhancing, there are some general principles discussed in gender-budgeting literature, which we have adapted.¹⁸ Our efforts here are intended as a first step to identifying the approximant resource flows to these different purposes; but much more work and wider consultation are needed. We hope that this initial attempt can become the basis for further collective work with MOF, the Gender-

responsive Budgeting Committee, sectoral ministries, donor agencies such as UN Women, and NGOs which are interested in tracking budget expenditures.

Again, the GESI budget analysis assesses what activities have been planned/implemented that provide direct, indirect and neutral support to women, the poor and excluded social groups to address the barriers they experience in accessing resources and benefits from the sector. We have followed the GRB practice of using three categories but have not followed the GRB indicators as they have not been very effective in application across the sectors. The GESI budget analysis was carried out at two levels. First, we assessed national-level expenditures in the sector using the above criteria. We reviewed a total of 22 programs and two annual plans (see Annex 1.1 for the list of budgets reviewed). Our analysis resulted in the breakdown shown in Table 1.2.

The next step was to move to the district level, to ground both the national-level GRB budget exercise and our own GESI analysis in two districts,¹⁹ Kavre and Morang. We first worked with the line agency staff to assess the current approach to GRB they were using in each sector. In consultations at the district level, officers shared which indicators were relevant to assess

Table 1.2: **Summary Gender Equality and Social Inclusion Budget Analysis of Seven Sectors (Total of Program Budget), Including Direct and Indirect Contributions**

S.N.	Sector	Total Nepali rupees (000) (programs)	Women	Poor	Dalits	Janajatis	Muslims	OBCs	Location	Disability	Youth and adolescents
1	Agriculture	1,622,500.0	1.64	45.00							
2	Education	14,936,192.0	6.91	14.46	5.61	3.52			11.55	1.00	1.00
3	Forest	3,449,974.0	0.49	4.83					0.63		
4	Health ^a	13,254,910.0	18.41	15.74					2.72		2.17
5	Irrigation	2,411,912.9	4.23	80.04	3.93	3.93	1.72		1.65	3.79	3.79
6	Rural infrastructure ^b	14,279,739.0	9.99	38.27					1.45		
7	Water and sanitation ^c	3,371,603.0	1.04	1.46							
	Total	53,326,830.9	9.43	21.80	1.66	1.08	0.04		4.37	0.37	0.91

Notes:

^a Excluding contribution of 0.34–0.42% to Janajatis, Muslims, Madhesi.

^b Excluding contribution of 0.01–0.06% to Dalits, Janajati, adolescents, elderly, disabled.

^c Excluding contribution of 0.10–0.16% to Dalits, Janajati, adolescents, elderly, disabled.

Source: Based on budget documents of sector ministries, selected programs, FY 2009–2010.

Table 1.3: Gender Equality and Social Inclusion Budget Analysis of Annual Programs, Kavre and Morang (%)

S.N.	Sector	Total Nepali rupees (Morang, Kavre)	Women	Poor	Dalits	Janajatis	Muslims	OBCs	Location	Disability	Youth and adolescents
1	Agriculture	63,355,341	12.46	1.35	0.29	0.15					
2	Education	1,336,366,884	14.20		5.08	0.08	0.09			0.26	
3	Forest	2,874,100	39.65	22.50							
4	Health ^a	78,720,450	53.05								9.92
5	Irrigation	72,695,000	1.32								
6	Rural infrastructure ^b	142,369,146	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
7	Water and sanitation ^c	132,054,576	0.59						1.59		
	Total	1,828,435,497	13.25	0.08	3.73	0.06	0.06		0.11	0.19	0.43

Note:

^a Excluding contribution of 0.34-0.42% to Janajatis, Muslims, Madhesis.

^b All items were found neutral, with the district staff arguing that the infrastructure is for everyone and hence cannot be targeted. It is, of course, true that we cannot build roads for Dalits, for women, etc.

^c Excluding contribution of 0.10-0.16% to Dalits, Janajatis, adolescents, elderly, disabled.

Source: Kavre and Morang annual programs, FY 2008-2009.

the gender responsiveness of items in the sectoral budgets. They said that they were aware of a number of positive policy provisions in each sector mandating that benefits reach girls/women, the poor and the excluded, but they felt that these automatically ensured that the entire budget would be responsive to women or specific excluded groups. In reality, this has proven to be a problematic assumption.

Next, we worked with the line agency staff to do a GESI analysis of the district-level health budgets, using directly supportive, indirectly supportive and neutral categories.²⁰ The results are shown in Table 1.3.

Effort has been made by the different ministries/programs to address the barriers for women and poor groups but for other groups the assumption seems to be that benefits will automatically reach them through implemented activities. The directly supportive and indirectly supportive expenditure of the budgets for women and the poor address important needs of women. But almost no activities or funds have been planned to address the barriers of women, the poor and the excluded, as discussed in Section 1.2, or the

structural issues that constrain their access. This indicates that a more conscious recognition of the need to address such sociocultural, empowerment and governance issues, along with core technical sector services, is required.

The key issues are the criteria, indicators and process of budget review. Government analysis classifies a majority of activities as directly or indirectly contributing to women, based on government directives regarding services to them. A deeper analysis, however, indicates that no activities are budgeted to address the specific gender-based barriers women experience. These are necessary even within a universal program in order that structural barriers are addressed and a more even playing field created—only then can GESI be considered to have been mainstreamed. This also highlights the need for a more rigorous analysis so that the budget speech's classification can be more realistic.

At the moment, the discourse reflects an assumption that positive formal policy provisions will ensure that all will benefit and that group membership (where relevant) will ensure access to services for all members. But this fails to

address the fact that it is mostly the extreme poor and often socially excluded groups such as Dalits who are either excluded or exclude themselves from joining groups. While groups are indeed a powerful mechanism to improve access to services and inputs, relying solely on this model without assessing its suitability for all presents a significant risk that those most in need will not gain access. Overall, our work on gender and inclusion budgeting indicates that for effective and systematic budgeting, more rigorous work has to be done, in particular with the Gender-responsive Budgeting Committee. There has to be a consensus to take gender and inclusion budgeting together; existing indicators and sub-indicators for GRB need to be revised and sharpened; unique issues of social groups need to be addressed; and the process must be improved, so that it is not left to the understanding of just one desk officer.

1.3.5 Program responses: Gender equality and social inclusion approaches

This section highlights the program responses and efforts across the sectors to promote and mainstream a more inclusive service-delivery approach. We also discuss measures and practices that have been found to be effective and successful in improving access to sector services and livelihood opportunities for women, the poor and excluded groups—increasing their voice and influence and supporting changes in the “rules of the game.”

Increasing access to assets and services

Significant progress has been made in the service-delivery sectors in increasing outreach and access to services, assets and resources for the poor and excluded groups. For instance, key reforms in the education sector, through national programs such as Education for All and the School Sector Reform Program (SSRP), represent significant efforts to improve access

and equity, enhance quality and improve efficiency through scholarships and incentives for girls, Dalits and Adivasi Janajatis. Still, remaining challenges include effective implementation of the multilingual education policy, monitoring of scholarship distribution, and ensuring funding to meet the opportunity costs for the poorest and most disadvantaged communities. There is also a need to look more carefully into the selection procedures and internal governance of the school management committees, to ensure that they fulfil their potential for giving parents from all groups a say in the running of their local school.

Likewise, in the health sector, government initiatives of pro-poor targeted free healthcare policies and the Aama (Mother) Program for maternity services have had considerable success in reducing the economic constraints of the poor and the social constraints of women, and generally improving health indicators. The recently developed NHSP-IP 2 has various activities to address the barriers of women, the poor and the excluded, and has made very impressive plans with disaggregated objectives and indicators.

In the infrastructure-related sectors, access to water supply has improved substantially over the past few decades. However, the low priority and resources accorded to sanitation have resulted in uneven coverage, especially for the very poor and in the Tarai, where lack of land poses an additional challenge. The construction of rural roads has improved access to markets, schools, health posts, government offices, and so forth, as well as provided work opportunities for women and the poor in road-building groups. In the irrigation sector, men continue to heavily dominate the management of systems even though women farmers are now increasingly involved. The group-based approach in the forest and agriculture sectors has increased access for women and other traditionally excluded groups to resources as well as ben-

efits from community forestry management and agricultural extension services and support.

Building voice and influence of excluded groups

Across the sectors, social mobilization as a process has been one of the main tools for organizing people for easier and more efficient transfer of assets and services, and also for improving reach and access. Groups (forest users, farmers, mothers, water and sanitation users, etc) are mobilized for their labor and financial contributions to support the implementation, delivery and management of services. Policy directives setting quotas for women and excluded groups have improved their representation in user groups and executive committees, which has been important in creating operational space for the voice and interests of these groups to be addressed.

However, evidence from the sectoral assessments indicates that these groups are, in many cases, still highly exclusionary of the extreme poor and socially disadvantaged groups, often reflecting and even reinforcing existing power structures. In addition, although representation of women is generally high in user groups and executive committees, their active involvement in decision-making processes is not com-

mensurate with their formal presence. While the group-based approach to development has thus increased access to assets and services, there is insufficient understanding of and focus on the barriers faced by excluded groups or on how to build their capacity to influence decision-making processes. In many of these we have found the approach is more transactional than transformational,²¹ and only in those efforts where REFLECT-type processes (see Box 1.1) have been adopted has there been effective strengthening of voice (e.g., Participatory Learning Center by GTZ/GIZ, COPE/PLA [Client Oriented Provider Efficient/Participatory Learning and Action] process by Support for Safe Motherhood Program/UN Population Fund and REFLECT by CARE/Nepal Family Health Program).

Some notable networks and federations have been able to advocate successfully on behalf of their members. The Federation of Community Forest Users has become an important political player throughout the country, while the Federation of Water and Sanitation Users Nepal and Nepal Federation of Water Users Association are additional examples of civil society groups organizing and mobilizing members to voice their interests, influence policy and decision makers as well as demand accountability and transparency from service providers. The United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF)-supported women's federations and paralegal committees are a force to be reckoned with in many districts. Still, even in these successful second-tier organizations, important issues remain regarding inclusion and diversity in the membership, decision-making positions and governance as well as in establishing more effective and transparent management.

Box 1.1: What is a REFLECT circle?

REFLECT circle is a forum where the disadvantaged are brought together to identify, analyse and take actions on issues that directly affect them. The main purpose of the circle is the empowerment of the poor and the excluded. The facilitator of the circle helps educate members on their rights and support them to take actions to ensure access to services. It helps build the capacity of members to advocate and lobby for their rights. The circle not only takes up issues of the disadvantaged, it also encourages members to fight for the rights of the community as a whole. It encourages the poor to bargain with the richer sections in the community and also takes up issues of the whole community, including that of the rich and the elite, up to the VDC and district levels. In this way, the circle can be effective in ensuring the rights of the disadvantaged as well as garner support of the rich and the elite of the community.

Source: Field notes discussion with Action Aid 2009.

Changing the "rules of the game"

Overarching changes are required to remove the barriers that women, the poor and the excluded

face in accessing assets and services. The forest sector, for instance, has made notable progress in this area by addressing GESI issues in sector programming and operational practice. LFP's pro-poor and social inclusion strategy has been effective in developing a common understanding of social exclusion issues as well as strategic approaches to deal with them. Similarly, the health and education sectors have been progressive through the previously mentioned NHSP-IP 2, Education for All and SSRP policies. However, the informal "rules of the game"—the sociocultural values, beliefs and attitudes that underlie and shape discriminatory behavior and norms—continue to play a strong and influential role in creating barriers for women, the poor and excluded groups. It is in this area that substantive efforts are needed to overcome deep-seated resistance to changing discriminatory practices, both in the workplace and in community groups. Behavior change without systemic structural change in sector institutions, communities and families will continue to reproduce the current gap between good policies and poor implementation. Unfortunately, however, sufficient and sustained work along these lines was not evident in any sector.

1.3.6 Monitoring and reporting

Ministries, including MLD, report on M&E formats issued by NPC (specifically the Poverty Monitoring Division, which has the key responsibility to work in this area). For effective GESI mainstreaming, integrating gender and social inclusion into M&E systems is crucial. NPC has established a system of gender coding for the 10th Plan/PRSP (Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper) monitoring and demands reporting, with some disaggregation, on intermediate and outcome indicators in the poverty monitoring and analysis system (PMAS). It has also developed (with donor support) a district poverty monitoring analysis system, which has been implemented

in 22 districts and could potentially be adapted for poverty monitoring in the new federal units once these are determined. But, at present, neither system is actively used.

To a certain extent, the education and health sectoral information management systems do provide disaggregated information. The education sector has the most well-established system of monitoring and reporting, providing comprehensive, high-quality and disaggregated data by sex and caste/ethnic group on, among other things, student enrolment and numbers, teachers and non-teaching staff, student attendance and scholarship allocation. However, it only disaggregates social groups by Dalit and Janajati without differentiating the subgroups within which some are more disadvantaged than others. Moreover, its categories do not capture groups like the Madhesi other backward classes/OBCs or Muslims—both of which have low education outcomes and need to be tracked. Similarly, the current monitoring mechanisms of the health sector collect sex- and age-disaggregated data, but information on service utilization by the poor and the excluded is not integrated. The sector is piloting caste/ethnicity-disaggregated data but managing such huge amounts of data has been challenging.

The WSS, forest and agriculture sectors maintain disaggregated data on membership and participation of women in the user groups/committees and key decision-making positions while also disaggregating user-group data by caste/ethnicity. The MOFSC also incorporates monitoring indicators sensitive to gender, poverty and social equity in its MIS, but this needs to be implemented more systematically. In the forest sector, LFP and Nepal Swiss Community Forest Project (NSCFP) have established systems for maintaining a disaggregated database, monitoring and reporting against gender, poverty and social equity indicators. However, a review of the log-frames of various programs indicates that there is a general

lack of disaggregated indicators or inclusive objective statements. Only in the recent NHSP-IP 2 (health) is there consistent demand for disaggregated data at the results level, or for measuring any shift in sociocultural behavior. In SSRP (education) there is a gap, with very little demand for disaggregated measurements of progress as the indicators are mostly quantitative and neutral from a GESI perspective. Still, many programs do have indicators for representation by women and excluded communities in various groups and committees. Nepal Water and Health, for instance, has very well-disaggregated indicators, e.g., “At least 90% of completed projects [in which 90% of the beneficiaries are the poor and the excluded] remain fully functional 3 years after the project’s completion.”

The sectoral M&E review indicates that there are efforts at collecting disaggregated data and that sex-disaggregated data are most commonly requested. But consistent disaggregation against all social groups with regional identities (women and men of Hill and Madhesi Dalits, Adivasi Janajatis [except Newars], Newars, Muslims, OBCs, Hill and Madhesi Brahmins/Chhetris) is not followed. There are very few sectors with examples of an information management system that can handle such data (probably only LFP and NSCFP in forestry, and rural WSS). With NPC formats still not demanding such disaggregation nor asking for progress against outcomes in disaggregated forms, monitoring and reporting are a key area for more intense mainstreaming of gender and inclusion.

1.3.7 Good practices and lessons learned

In this section we discuss some practices that have been found effective across sectors to address the structural barriers limiting access to resources, assets and benefits for women, the poor and the excluded, and the common lessons that can be drawn from these efforts.

Good practices

Improved targeting and inclusion through use of well-being ranking and proxy means testing (indicator targeting) provide a powerful baseline for identifying the poor and the excluded for program interventions. Community members usually carry out such rankings themselves, using economic and social indicators to categorize households. In education, this is supplemented by proxy means testing to target secondary and tertiary scholarship and work-study support. Evidence that this combination has worked well is still to come in, but there is consensus among practitioners that it can bring together objective and subjective rankings. This is then used to target resources and services, and ensure more equitable distribution. The forest sector will be testing a combined community-based and proxy means testing approach to identify disadvantaged households, with independent verification to try to standardize approaches and remove existing confusion at the local level.

Empowerment and community education. Social mobilization based on individual and collective empowerment through efforts to understand and transform the unjust structures that affect their everyday lives and livelihoods has proved effective in building the voice of the excluded and the poor as well as their capacity to influence decisions. Where communities have been mobilized to reflect on the social norms that perpetuate untouchability, gender-based discrimination or violence against women, there has been an increase in access to services and greater involvement in community-level planning for these groups. The REFLECT-type approaches have been particularly effective because they draw in not only the excluded but the rest of the community as well. The whole community is organized into groups to discuss and learn about different rights-based issues, and respond through collective action.

Establishing firm quorums for key meetings. The

lack of access to information about entitlements, services and procedures to obtain available resources is a major component of the exclusion faced by women, the poor and excluded groups. Knowledge is power and more educated elite groups who have time to network in the district centers and create contacts with local politicians are more likely to know the details of incoming development programs or new government policies—and to use this information to their advantage. Setting quorums for key meetings has been effective in ensuring that all households are adequately represented and informed. If a quorum is not met, project staff members are required to cancel meetings until the required number of households is present.

Building a strong civil society able to represent and advocate for changes in the “rules of the game,” has been a major advance in some of the sectors (e.g., Federation of Community Forest Users, Nepal in the forest sector). However, these organizations and federations also need to address issues of diversity and inclusion within their own structures, where representation of excluded caste and ethnic groups is typically low. Another danger with such NGOs or second-tier groups is that they can be captured by political parties.

Policy directives for representation/participation. Setting quotas for women and excluded groups in user groups/committees, along with creating training opportunities, has ensured their representation and participation in development activities as well as strengthened their access to resources and benefits. Still, further efforts are needed to reach socially excluded groups and promote their representation in key decision-making positions in executive bodies and their ability to influence decisions.

Adoption of a workforce diversity policy is a mechanism to change the structure of organizations and the rules of the game that determine

entry. These policies (such as those adopted by NSCFP) have improved inclusiveness in individual organizations and among partners, identified groups to be prioritized, established benchmarks for diverse representation in staff categories, and followed up with affirmative action to recruit people from discriminated groups until their representation in various staff categories, committees and working teams is ensured, reflecting their representation of Nepal’s population.

Changing internal budgeting and monitoring systems to track resource allocation effects on women, the poor and the excluded has been successfully employed by a number of programs. This has positively evolved the way in which these institutions allocate and deliver services and enabled programs to identify the causes of changes in livelihood and social inclusion outcomes. LFP (through its livelihood and social inclusion monitoring) uses the three domains (see Figure 1.3) of change to track change in voice, influence and agency, access to assets and services, and also whether the poor and excluded have been able to change policies and institutions in their favor.

Social accountability mechanisms. Social audits and similar tools have provided increasing opportunities for civil society, including community groups, to press for greater accountability and responsiveness from service providers. These have become accepted tools and processes, but still need to be implemented more effectively, with meaningful participation of the women, the poor and the excluded, and with follow-up actions that demonstrate the value in participation.

Lessons learned

Women, the poor and the excluded face multiple exclusions, many of which cannot be solely tackled through sector-based interventions, as the causes are rooted in deep societal structures that

require coherence of interventions at many levels and across many sectors. For example, simply providing low-quality leasehold land is insufficient to bring people out of poverty when the initial investments to improve productivity are large and require time to deliver benefits. For the extreme poor, this could lead to an increase in livelihood insecurity and vulnerability.

Behavior change is required to overcome deep-seated resistance to changing discriminatory practices in both the workplace and community groups among those who have benefited from these practices. But changes in the behavior of a small number of well-meaning individuals will still leave gaps between well-intentioned policies and actual implementation. Changes in incentives for staff working in the sectors are also needed. Overcoming deep-set informal resistance to social inclusion and changing discriminatory and indifferent attitudes of service providers remain two of the greatest challenges facing all sectors.

Social mobilization and facilitation processes need to focus on empowerment not only on increasing access to assets and services. There is a need to build understanding of the rights and responsibilities of individuals as citizens to have a voice in decisions and a share in benefits. When this approach is used, groups are more sustainable and generally continue functioning after the project or program intervention is over to take up new activities of concern to members.

Sociocultural constraints on women are strong and thus it is necessary to work on shifting gender-based power relations both in the workplace and in communities at large. Compared to men, women of all social groups tend to have high opportunity costs attached to their participation which often involves high levels of benefit.

Dealing with the extreme poor's self-exclusion from development processes requires special targeted support to ensure that they can access

resources and associated benefits. Action should be based on analysis rooted in an understanding of the unequal power relations created by class, caste, ethnicity and gender, which have to be addressed by any support provided.

Policy mandates and affirmative action provisions are necessary for resources to reach women, the poor and the excluded along with the political commitment required for implementation. During the implementation process, all gaps need to be understood and addressed, and the reasons causing the failure need to be understood and acted upon.

Increased formal representation does not automatically lead to increased voice. Although there has been significant representation of women in user groups/committees, they still do not have sufficient voice in these groups. Their attendance is limited at meetings, they rarely speak, and if and when they do, they are often not listened to. The same is often true of Dalits and other excluded groups whose presence is mandated by donor or government funding requirements. For real change, capacity building and advocacy for shifts in discriminatory practices are necessary and need to be directed not only at the excluded but *all* members of the group/user committee. Also necessary for any effective change of the formal structures such as user groups is political and power-focused analysis to understand how these structures interact with informal structures and systems.

Targeted interventions are important but GESI needs to be integrated into mainstream programs and services. Though equity-related and, to some extent, inclusion issues are captured in some of the sector programs, too often in these programs inclusion has remained a separate component. The issue of social exclusion has not been approached holistically. For example, in the education sector, despite the change in terminology from "special education" to "inclusive educa-

tion,” the focus remains solely on disability and is separated from the gender equality section. This reveals a limited understanding of what it means to mainstream GESI in a sectoral program.

Institutionalizing gender and inclusion in budgeting requires further clarity and capacity. The methodology and process for the government’s gender-responsive budgeting are not clear enough. The current indicators are not adequate for analysis across sectors and it is not clear that the current post-allocation analysis adds value at either the sectoral or MOF level. There also seems to be an implicit bias in the point allocation system towards smaller, targeted, women-only projects and programs rather than genuine integration of women’s needs and constraints into mainstream sector programs. In addition, the approach lacks a wider inclusion dimension that, with very little additional effort, could allow it to track expenditures benefiting other excluded groups using the same basic process. Clear, consistent guidelines on process and analytical categories are urgently needed.

Institutional structures for GESI need to be made functional and integrated into the core products and services provided by the sector. Institutionally, just creating structures is insufficient, as demonstrated by the position of the gender focal points within the sectoral ministries. Rather, for any such position to be influential, it must be integrated into the sector’s core systems and organizational structure. The GESI function should be assigned to the planning and monitoring division of each ministry and ultimately be the responsibility of its chief. The responsibility should be backed with resources to bring in or create the necessary staff capacity to be able to provide technical backstopping necessary to fulfil the GESI mandate.

Increasing access to services for women, the poor and the excluded requires a multi-sectoral approach. For example, in order to improve access to health

services, other actions are required in sectors such as education (e.g., building awareness), rural infrastructure (e.g., road and trail networks), modes of transport services (e.g., availability of stretchers, public transport), water and sanitation, and access to finances (e.g., community-level emergency funds).

1.4 Mainstreaming Gender Equality and Social Inclusion: The Way Forward

In Section 1.2 we discussed the steps of GESI mainstreaming and the three domains of change, and explained any questions or queries. In this section, common measures on mainstreaming GESI in the sectors are grouped under our framework of three stages: identifying; design and implementation; and monitoring and reporting (and response to the findings through changes in project implementation). As has been illustrated, gender-, caste-, ethnicity-, and location-based exclusion are complex interlinked issues that cannot be addressed in isolation. To respond to this complexity, multipronged measures are necessary for mainstreaming, as reflected in the suggestions made here.

Step 1: Identifying the barriers

Analyze existing power relations and the formal and informal institutions that enforce and perpetuate social and economic inequalities. Gender inequality and social exclusion in the sectors are linked to the wider sociocultural and politico-economic context. First, identify the key socioeconomic constraints and harmful social and cultural practices that limit access to sector resources and assets for women, the poor and the socially excluded. Often the “barriers” that need to be removed or worked around are part of interconnected formal and informal institutions that structure Nepali society, which allocate privileges and obligations in accordance with different roles or ascribed characteristics. The sector programs

work with these systems and try to improve them so they can deliver services more effectively. Yet, it is generally recognized that changing any of these “rules” upsets some stakeholders, and this is why there always needs to be awareness of the “political economy” of the individual projects/programs. Likewise, the more “informal” institutions, which are deeply embedded in values, beliefs and norms, can also block change, and thus need to be considered. Some—like the gender system or caste hierarchy—are so deeply ingrained that people often follow them without even being aware that they are doing so. On the other hand, not all these traditional values are negative or exclusionary, and many can indeed be a strong source of renewal and positive change.

The GESI framework is a tool to increase the chances that the changes we want to bring can actually happen on the ground. GESI requires us to look at both formal and informal systems. To identify barriers, we need to look in two areas: first, how the formal project systems are likely to work for different groups of people. This will bring us to the second layer, to see how informal systems might be distorting the way the formal systems work for some individuals and groups. So, when we try to “identify barriers,” we are actually uncovering whole systems that keep some individuals and groups from gaining equal access to universal services and benefits that the project/program we are supporting is intended to deliver.

Assessing GESI in existing policy, programs, budgeting and M&E. It is important to assess the existing policy mandates that provide the space to work on GESI issues in the sectors, and where there are gaps in these policies. Likewise, the policy mandates that enable or constrain different groups need to be identified and the existing programs of the ministry and other actors in each sector need to be examined to identify how the barriers facing the excluded are being addressed—and the strengths and

weaknesses of the current approaches. Existing political economy and governance issues need to be understood: their implications for the sector in general and for women, the poor and the excluded in particular. Further, the budget needs to be reviewed through a GESI lens to identify how positive policy and programmatic provisions are being resourced, and to identify needs for improvement. Finally, an assessment needs to be carried out to determine whether the M&E system is capturing changes in a disaggregated manner, and on issues that are of central importance to increasing access to services for women, the poor and the excluded. As gender and inclusion issues are linked to wider governance and management systems, a GESI assessment might bring up issues that could be considered by some as beyond its scope. But these aspects, too, need to be understood for their impact on women, the poor and the excluded.

Steps 2 and 3: Design and implementation

GESI mainstreaming requires that project/program plans must consciously recognize and address, at each stage, the constraints experienced by women, the poor and the excluded, and must build on their existing strengths.

Address policy and organizational change issues

The aim here is to focus more on the policy and organizational level and how GESI issues can be better addressed in program/project responses.

Support and strengthen GESI at policy level. Programs/projects are applying GESI-sensitive policies, but overarching policy guidance from the government is missing. A GESI policy that provides a common framework would ensure that certain principles and a clear definition of exclusion and the excluded are consistently applied by all sector actors, and would direct revision of systems, mechanisms and processes as required.

Promote diversity in service providers. The number of women and people from excluded groups working in the sectors varies but is generally low, highlighting a need for affirmative action. This will require long-term investments through scholarships as well as individual coaching to prepare technically qualified women and people from excluded social groups. Measures to create a supportive working environment, like childcare or flexible timings and safety from sexual harassment, can be very effective in attracting and retaining women professionals. But little thought seems to have been given to how to open the way for other groups like Dalits or Muslims so that they feel comfortable and perform well in the workplace.

Develop skilled service providers to deliver GESI-sensitive services. Support for mainstreaming of GESI issues in tertiary and technical institutions will build the technical capacity of professionals. GESI-sensitive messages also need to be integrated into related training affecting the sector.

GESI in job descriptions and strengthening GESI arrangements. Work needs to be done with the Ministry of General Administration (now called the Ministry of Human Resource Development) for revision of job descriptions of all positions to integrate GESI-related tasks. GESI units and desks are required in the ministries, their departments and district-level divisions/departments to provide technical support for mainstreaming gender and inclusion in the sectors. This is also necessary in programs that have not provided dedicated responsibilities to identified structures. Mechanisms for coordination between these different structures are essential, while the capacity and skills of government and program staff to address GESI need to be strengthened and used.

Capacity building on GESI must be a process rather than a one-off event so that skills are built on to integrate gender and inclusion in everyday

work. Gender and social development specialists need to have the relevant technical expertise to respond to and guide technical staff on how to mainstream GESI while technical staff members need to be able to respond to social issues linked to their technical work.

GRB and GESI budgeting. GESI budgeting, as a tool, can identify the kinds of activities budgeted/spent for but the government's current budgeting criteria and process require revision to be more effective. GESI budget analysis should not be done only after the program has been designed and funds allocated; rather, it must be done simultaneously with program development, to ensure that activities/subprojects to address the barriers constraining access to services for women, the poor and the excluded are identified and an adequate sum allocated in the budget and work plans. Likewise, activity planning and budgeting must be linked to disaggregated data and the information generated from the use of tools such as poverty mapping, social mapping and gender analysis.

Designing program/project responses

Balance targeted and universal action. Targeting activities is necessary to address specific constraints or issues of women, the poor and the excluded, e.g., special initiatives to build capacity of women farmers to become traders/entrepreneurs in agribusiness, or specific financial services to increase access to credit of the poor, or advocacy with men regarding empowerment of women. But these need to contribute to a universal program, addressing structural constraints blocking groups from accessing resources and benefits of the sector equally with other social groups.

Promote and support partnership with civil society to invest in community education for behavior change on both sector-specific and social transformation issues, investigate governance aspects

at each step of the project cycle, and monitor investments in the sector.

Mechanisms to encourage greater downward accountability need to be strengthened. Across sectors, state and non-state actors are more accountable upwards than downwards towards the community, and these include NGOs and community-based organizations (i.e., support organizations) that are partnering with government and donors to implement tasks such as social mobilization, needs identification, etc. Their agreements demand reporting to project supervisors and donors with hardly any mechanism to ensure accountability towards the people they are supposed to serve. GESI performance incentives need to be developed and included in the evaluations of support organizations.

Longer-term investment in the capacity building of women, the poor and excluded members to enable them to participate more effectively in executive committees and groups is necessary. This requires building the leadership abilities of members of these groups.

Harmonize working approaches across programs at the local level to minimize beneficiary transaction costs. The formation of multiple groups by different projects/programs and varied requirements and working approaches adopted by different actors increase the time burden of women, the poor and the excluded, who have to attend multiple group meetings. This could be addressed if VDCs play their coordinating role better and ensure that the neediest receive services, but this would demand a disaggregated database and information about the current situation of women, the poor and the excluded, and their access to services in VDCs.

Develop localized behavior change communication materials and translate project information into local languages. To be effective, these materials must be available in local languages and use a range of media to address specific discrimi-

natory beliefs and norms. Likewise, program/project information and documents need to be translated into local languages to ensure that all groups understand the processes, rules and regulations to access services, assets, resources and other benefits.

Steps 4 and 5: Monitor and Adjust Implementation

Monitoring and reporting

Many sectors are disaggregating data by sex and caste/ethnicity. But the focus is on activities (e.g., number of women trained) and outputs, and the capacity to track GESI outcomes is still lacking. Some potential improvements are listed below.

Disaggregated monitoring and reporting to show what each project/program is contributing to assist women, the poor and the excluded, need to be established across the sectors. This is very challenging at the national level as NPC monitoring and reporting formats, which all ministries have to follow, do not demand disaggregated information. Additionally the “three domains of change” framework is very useful for tracking changes at outcome levels, and could usefully be established as a routine practice by NPC.

Objectives and indicators need to be disaggregated by sex and caste/ethnicity. Planning and programming must be based on disaggregated information and evidence. With NGO partners, PRA (Participatory Rural Appraisal) tools (e.g., well-being ranking, labor/access/control profile, resource mapping, etc) must be used as required at the community level to identify the poor and map existing social and power relations. In turn, this information must be used for identifying priorities for programming and guiding implementation practice.

Uniform MIS and disaggregated data for all sectors around some basic indicators would help reduce duplication and identify gaps and areas of

acute exclusion. PMAS needs to be revised and its implementation strengthened. Monitoring and reporting formats must be standardized with disaggregation. Sectors and programs will need to monitor their investments, and hence have more detailed indicators and monitoring systems. But they must all contribute to the indicators incorporated in PMAS.

Community monitoring and social accountability mechanisms should be institutionalized within the M&E system. Social and public audits have become accepted tools and processes, and need to be improved in implementation. To ensure this, social mobilization may be necessary until the process of giving this kind of feedback becomes a familiar activity for the excluded. This requires a carefully facilitated process to ensure that all social groups participate, that proper service evaluation occurs, and that useful understanding is developed and acted upon.

Good practices and lessons learned need to be documented and shared by sector actors through donor coordination groups, and perhaps through the Social Inclusion Action Group, a group of practitioner agencies. Enhanced capacity to prepare case studies that document and analyze positive pro-inclusion processes will accelerate the pace of change.

Monitoring and evaluation teams must be inclusive and must have people with technical competence about gender and social inclusion in the sector. The terms of reference of the M&E teams must specifically demand deliverables that have addressed GESI issues.

Adjust implementation

Project/program management needs to view the M&E system as their dashboard for steering

the project to achieve its objectives. If the inclusion indicators show that some of the intended outcomes are not emerging as expected or some groups are not getting their share of benefits, project management needs to diagnose why this is so and work with staff and project participants to develop mechanisms to change the situation as soon as possible.

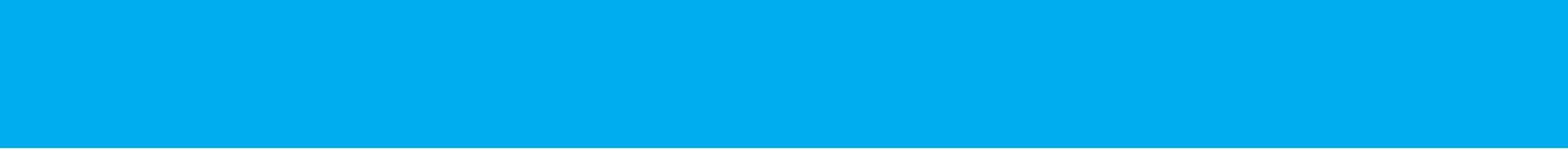
The seven sectors covered in this series have made significant progress in increasing the participation of women, the poor and excluded groups in development efforts, but rather uneven progress in addressing structural causes of gender/caste/ethnicity-based discrimination and issues of social exclusion. However, the current discourse on inclusive development provides an opportune time to learn from sectoral experience and move towards more inclusive practices, as these lessons can be adopted and mainstreamed across the sectors and institutionalized within government and non-government structures alike.

As has been noted, to institutionalize GESI, each sector will need to address the main issues uniquely facing women, the poor and the excluded: the underlying structural causes of their limited participation, voice and very low influence over decision-making processes; the reasons behind ongoing inequitable access to resources and assets; and the need to build responsive processes that address the different needs of specific social groups. At an institutional level, a variety of common issues need to be addressed, including lack of staff diversity; ineffective gender focal points; and limited integration of GESI principles in core sectoral planning, budgeting and monitoring processes, which leads to major gaps between enabling policies and actual implementation.

Notes

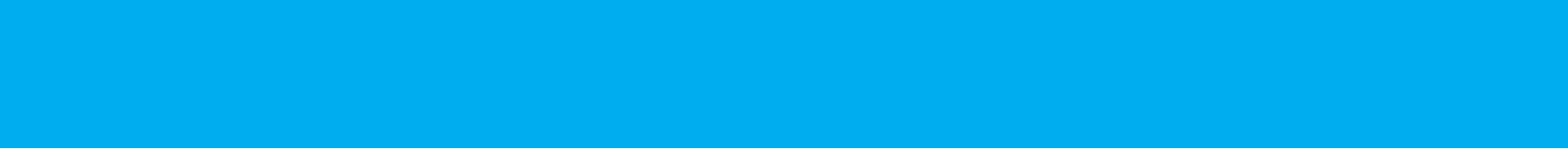
- 1 According to the Interim Constitution and Three-Year Interim Plan, excluded groups refer to those who have experienced exclusion historically and have not been mainstreamed in the nation's development: women, Dalits, Adivasi Janajatis, Madhesis, Muslims, people living with disabilities, and people from geographically remote areas.
- 2 This framework has been adapted from Naila Kabeer's social relations analysis framework (Kabeer 1994). It has been informed and refined by the GSEA framework. Field-level experience of professionals has contributed to it. It has been used in Nepal for program design, evaluation studies, and gender equality and social inclusion mainstreaming in the forest sector, LGCDP/MLD, and in various other program/NGO strategies.
- 3 In a national program, mapping the local political economy of the sector in a sample of the different types of sites where the program would be implemented would provide us with enough to go on.
- 4 This section draws from the LGCDP/MLD gender equality and social inclusion operational strategy (2009). Refer to Annex 2 of that document for a more detailed analysis of policy and institutional frameworks.
- 5 This has recently been approved as the GESI policy of MLD.
- 6 Such as categorization of Janajati groups into endangered, highly marginalized and marginalized, and prioritization of projects accordingly; disaggregated information about users; information to users regarding resources before approval of next instalment; 33% women and representation of Dalit, Janajati and deprived groups in user committees; allocation of up to 3% of total project cost estimates for capacity building and overhead costs of user committees; participatory monitoring by users; and registration of complaints at VDCs about the implementation of the project.
- 7 As has been directed by MLD for the VDC-level integrated planning committees.
- 8 This publication reviews the workforce diversity profile of 30 international agencies working in Nepal.
- 9 Records of civil servants maintained by the Department of Civil Personnel Records (Nijamati Kitabkhana) of the Ministry of General Administration were reviewed and disaggregated according to surname and place of permanent residence. Rules applied were those developed by the WB Social Inclusion Index development team, and caste/ethnicity groupings were drawn from the Census. This process can be erroneous to a certain extent, as some surnames are common to different social groups. We appreciate that a participatory process facilitated by the Nijamati Kitabkhana for the self-identification of employees has been initiated.
- 10 The national population as of Census 2001 was Brahmin and Chhetri 32.5%; Janajati (excluding Newar) 32%; Newar 5.4%; Dalit 13%; Muslim 4.3%, OBCs 14%; and others 1.4%.
- 11 Gazetted is the highest category of officers, appointed through national open competition. Non-gazetted officers are appointed by the head of department to support gazetted officers. Within the gazetted and non-gazetted, there is a hierarchy of special, first-, second-, and third-class officers. The classless officers are support staff.
- 12 Of the total 72,939 civil personnel in the government as of February 2010, only 12% were women. Of these, 12.9% were gazetted officers, 57.4% were non-gazetted, and 30.4% were without grade (Nijamati Kitabkhana records, February 2010).
- 13 The three prescribed categories are direct contribution, indirect contribution and neutral. Each sub-activity is assigned a code of 1, 2 or 3, considering the percentage of contribution to women. The formula for coding has five indicators, each valued at 20%: capacity building of women, women's participation in planning process and implementation, women's share in benefit-sharing, support for women's employment and income generation, and qualitative progress in the use of women's time and reducing women's workload (eAWPB 1.0 Operating Manual, 2009). In order to measure these categories quantitatively, five qualitative indicators were assigned quantitative values of equal denomination, totaling 100. Direct gender contribution indicates more than 50% of the allocation directly benefiting women, indirect gender contribution indicates 20-50% of the allocation benefiting women, and the neutral category indicates less than 20% of the allocation benefiting women. This is gradually being used by ministries such as the Health Ministry but due to difficulties in the application of the criteria that do not seem relevant to all the sectors, this has not been fully used by all.
- 14 Indicators for the pro-poor budget are investment in rural sector; income-generation program in rural areas; capacity-enhancement program in rural areas; budget allocated for social mobilization; expenditure focusing on poverty reduction; grant for local bodies; social security programs; and investment in social sector (especially for education, health, etc). See Annex 8c, budget speech 2009-2010. But it is not clear how these are scored and what sub-indicators are used.
- 15 Refer to the monograph on Rural Infrastructure in this series for more discussion on GRB.
- 16 Refer to the monograph on Rural Infrastructure in this series for more discussion regarding this.
- 17 This analytical framework is adapted from GRB frameworks being used, and has been applied in Nepal in different program/project assessments and evaluations and for the GESI strategy development (e.g., MFSC GESI strategy for the forest sector 2006, the International Labor Organization's GESI strategy for LED [local economic development] in Nepal 2009, and LFP social and geographic audit, 2004).

- 18 We are adapting from gender budgeting initiatives that have aimed to assess the impact of government expenditures and revenues, using three-way categorization of gender-specific expenditure, equal opportunity expenditure and general expenditure (the rest), considered in terms of its gendered impact (Budlender and Sharp 1998).
- 19 Implemented budgets of districts were reviewed to assess actual expenditure and its effect on addressing the barriers of women, the poor and the excluded. Program budgets of the current year were reviewed to assess allocations.
- 20 Directly supportive (i.e., targeted to provide direct support to women, the poor and the excluded); indirectly supportive (contributing to creating an enabling environment, supporting in any manner the access of women and the excluded to services, or addressing the structural difficulties confronting them); and neutral.
- 21 Jha et al, 2009.



CHAPTER 2

Gender Equality and Social Inclusion Making it Happen in Agriculture



2.1 Introduction

Agriculture remains the most important source of livelihood for the rural poor in Nepal, contributing a third of the gross domestic product (GDP) and engaging two thirds of the labor force (CBS 2005, CBS 2006; MOF 2008 [from USAID, 2008]). With few economic opportunities in rural areas, inclusive agricultural growth could have a wide impact on poverty reduction. Recognizing this, the Government of Nepal has emphasized three basic objectives, with particular focus on the poor and excluded, in its National Agriculture Policy: increasing production and productivity, enhancing competitiveness in internal and external markets, and conserving agro-biodiversities (MOAC 2005).

Poverty in Nepal is highly concentrated in the rural areas, in particular among women and excluded groups.¹ The *Nepal Human Development Report 2009* confirmed that poverty is highest among agricultural wage laborers, followed by small-scale farmers who cultivate their own land. Several improvements have been made in the sector (e.g., increase in agricultural wages and improved rural connectivity), yet the poverty rate among agricultural wage earners remains 54%.² Households headed by wage laborers suffer the most from hunger, followed by households headed by self-employed agricultural producers (NPC 2005). Together with agricultural wage earners, those employed in the agriculture sector account for over three quarters of all poor (Madhab 2008).

This chapter will assess the barriers that women, the poor and the excluded³ face in accessing resources, opportunities and benefits in the implementation of agricultural sector programs, and the actions required to address those limitations.⁴ It will also consider some of the major policy options and investment choices facing the sector and assess which of these are likely to be most pro-poor and most gender- and inclusion-

friendly. Ways to mainstream gender equality and social inclusion (GESI) in the sector will be drawn from good practices and lessons learned by different actors and will address both demand and supply aspects.

2.2 Agriculture in Nepal: Access of Women, the Poor and the Excluded

The outcome of agricultural production, including livestock, depends on several key assets and services: land, labor, water, rural infrastructure and other inputs (e.g., technology, extension services and financial services) that enhance production capacity and income. However, due to existing inequitable power relations, many of those who have traditionally had limited access to crucial services and opportunities continue to have little voice with which to compete for resources and influence decisions. While men from excluded groups experience various barriers, women have never been established as independent and/or autonomous farmers in Nepal, despite the fact that they play a major role in agriculture (World Bank 2007). Any failure to recognize gender-, caste-, ethnic- or location-based roles, differences and inequalities thus poses a serious threat to the effectiveness of the agricultural development agenda.

Markets and the demand for agricultural commodities are changing rapidly, especially for higher-value products (e.g., coffee, Jumla rice, floriculture, cardamom, etc). But poor and small-scale producers, often women, are excluded from these lucrative markets because they are unable to compete with larger producers. While globalization and trade liberalization have opened more market opportunities internationally, inducing innovations and greater efficiencies, these processes have also led to painful transitions for economies such as Nepal's since they favour only those producers who have more resources to cope with increasingly stringent market demands.

Thus, these changes could actually increase the vulnerability of individuals with few resources, especially poor women (IFAD 2009). All the while, factors outside the sector, such as widespread environmental change, are also altering agricultural potential—in Nepal, climate change is particularly affecting water supply and weather conditions and hence agricultural production. Along with these broader contextual issues, there are specific barriers which women, the poor and different categories of excluded groups experience. These are discussed below.

2.2.1 Access to productive resources: Land

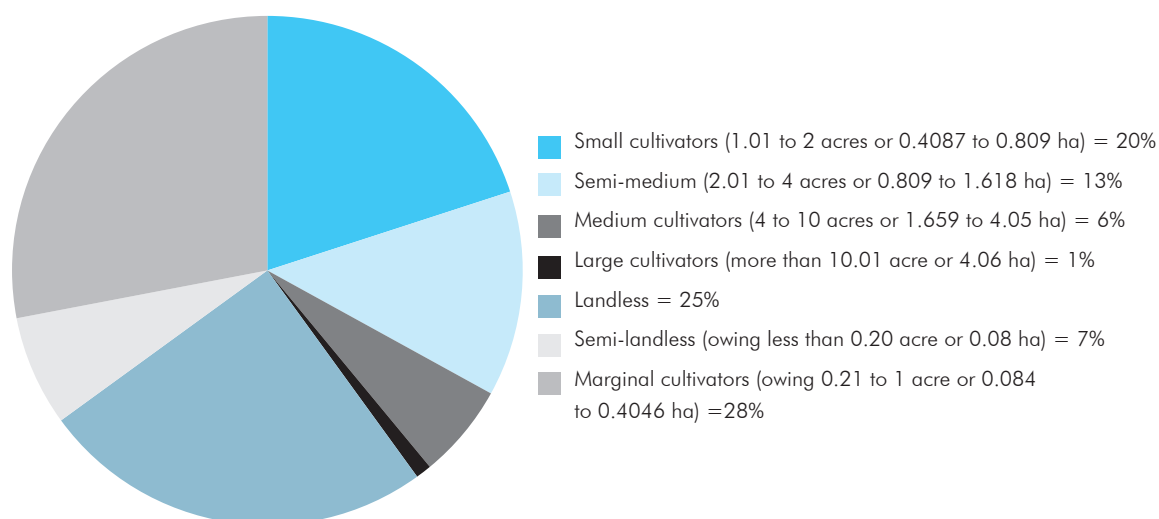
In Nepal, there is limited land available for agriculture,⁵ and land ownership has an overwhelming influence on food security, well-being, political power and economic and social position. Conversely, economic status and social identity have a strong impact on those with access to and control of land. Land distribution remains highly unbalanced, with 7.5% of farmers owning nearly a third of the farmland available. Nearly half of all holdings (47.7%) are less than 0.5 ha—too small to enable households to meet subsistence

requirements (Wiley et al 2009; see Figure 2.1). Increasingly, land is being used for commercial production of food and cash crops, which is further adding to these challenges (Braun and Dick 2009).

Apart from ownership, poor and landless people in Nepal access land for agriculture through sharecropping and contract-type traditional practices, under which an agreement with a landlord gives a farmer the right to engage in agriculture. Leasehold farming, a relatively recent mechanism, is an arrangement in which a group of mostly poor farmers secure user rights to cultivate government land or land owned by individuals. While this can contribute to enhanced income and stability, which is very important, there are no ownership rights and thus does not transform existing power relations in favor of the less advantaged.

Women. In Nepal, only about 11% of households have land under female legal ownership (CBS 2001). In addition, female-headed households average only 0.50 ha of farmland, compared to 0.78 ha for male-headed households. Women's land ownership varies across the country: 21% of households in the eastern

Figure 2.1: Land Distribution in Nepal as Percentage of Total Population



Source: UNDP (2004).

region, 25.5% in the Tarai's mid-west region and over 30% in urban areas (Wiley et al 2009). The recent government strategy of granting a concession in registration fees when land is recorded in the name of a woman has increased the number of such transactions.⁶ Although a law giving equal inheritance rights to sons and daughters to ancestral property has been passed, it is not clear if it is being followed, especially in rural areas where cultural and local prohibitions are still powerful. Yet land remains a particularly critical resource for a woman when she is without male support for whatever reason. Moreover, for elderly widows, control over land may be one of the few ways they can receive economic support from their children (Deere and Leon 2001).

Dalits. The majority of Dalits are dependent on land for their survival, but 15% of Hill Dalits and 44% of Madhesi Dalits own no land. Of Hill Dalits, 45% are marginal farmers, owning 0.18-0.40 ha; only 3% of the Dalit population own more than a hectare (CSRC, HNRSC, Kathmandu University, and NCCR 2008). Altogether, Dalits own just 1% of Nepal's arable land. Low landholdings, compounded by a high poverty incidence, low literacy rates,⁷ social discrimination⁸ and lack of voice, contribute to the exclusion of Dalit communities in accessing opportunities in the sector.

Adivasi Janajatis. In addition to caste, landholding also strongly correlates with ethnicity. Although most are involved in agriculture, only 47.9% of Tarai Janajatis have land of their own, with most renting the land they cultivate. In contrast, 73.9% of Hill Janajatis own land.⁹ Across the Adivasi Janajati groups, the highest percentage of landlessness is among the Santhal, Jhangad, Kisan and Munda (Tarai groups) at 58.5%; the lowest is among the Magar (Hill group), with only 14.4% without land (UNDP 2004). Historically, Adivasi Janajatis have had unique traditional practices of natural resource manage-

ment, but forests, pastures and other resources have been nationalized by the government.¹⁰ As a result, these groups now have restricted access to and control over their traditional land, water and forest resources, the bases of their lives and livelihoods.¹¹ Although the government has committed to International Labour Organisation (ILO) Convention 169, which protects the rights of indigenous people over their traditional lands,¹² the Action Plan that is supposed to lay out the legal and other steps needed to implement ILO 169 has still not been agreed on five years after Nepal ratified the convention.

2.2.2 Access to production inputs

In Nepal, the use of inputs (fertilizer and pesticides) and equipment in agriculture is very low. This is reflected in crop yields, which are lower (for major foods) than in all other South Asian countries except Bhutan. Key production inputs are discussed below.

Irrigation. Irrigation plays a key role in increasing crop productivity. However, only two thirds of Nepal's agricultural land is irrigated (CBS 2005). The majority of large, state-financed irrigation projects have benefited larger-scale farmers.¹³ Community-managed irrigation¹⁴ systems cater to the needs of smallholders but nonconventional irrigation¹⁵ systems, being increasingly used, can help rural women, the poor and the excluded meet their practical needs and provide extra income.¹⁶ But while access to information has been a key issue regarding nonconventional irrigation technology, it is actually design and implementation that limits access, due to multiple constraints,¹⁷ particularly lack of land. Other constraints include the fact that formalization of user associations means paperwork that gives access only to educated members; the need to participate in water users' meetings constrains the poor and women, as does night irrigation; ethnicity-based social restrictions impact

maintenance work; payment of irrigation fees and politicization of the process in general; and on inequitable labor contributions. For the very poor, access to credit for the installation of such systems can be very difficult unless collateral-free loans are available.

*Extension services*¹⁸ allow farmers to improve their capacity to adopt new seed varieties and technologies and raise more productive livestock. Yet, as “farmers” are often perceived to be male, extension agents are more likely to contact men than women. Further, norms of female behavior, especially in the Tarai, make it difficult for women farmers to seek out male extension agents and there are very few female extension agents.¹⁹ Meanwhile, there are not enough junior technical assistants (JTAs) to provide effective extension services as there is just one JTA for more than 3,000 farmers. Language can also be a barrier in accessing even these services, especially for some Adivasi Janajati and Madhesi groups. Additionally, there is insufficient incentive for JTAs to reach excluded groups (as there is no extra benefit for working in remote districts nor a system of performance evaluation) and neither is there investment in their capacity building. However, some innovative approaches are being implemented in the sector to address these gaps (e.g., capacity of local agro-vets and private seed agents is being strengthened to provide services directly to remote communities).²⁰ But local resource deployment remains ineffective, with weak coordination between government bodies and non government organizations (NGOs).

The lack of legal ownership of land for most women and the official listing of men as heads of households put women at a further disadvantage. As a result, agricultural extension is not even directed at women in areas for which they are traditionally responsible (e.g., vegetable growing is almost universally women’s work).²¹ But there is some recognition now and this is being addressed

through women’s increased involvement in and access to agricultural extension through the “farmer group”²² approach (producers’ groups), offering training in, for instance, manure management, compost-making, vegetable production and organic pest control.²³ However, women’s limited decision-making power, limited mobility and burden of domestic and farm work all limit their time availability to go to agricultural centers, markets, etc.

Geographic location is a strong exclusionary factor in Nepal, particularly for excluded groups. Only 32% of households can reach the nearest agriculture center within 30 minutes, only 28% can reach the nearest bank, and only 34% can reach a cooperative offering farming inputs. The government lacks the human resources to deliver services or offer effective outreach to the remotest communities, while lack of adequate service providers in remote areas is a major barrier. By broadcasting information about prices, supply and demand, local radio has been an effective means for agriculture extension, and it is increasingly used for dissemination of cultivation technology. At present, almost all of the more than 200 local radio stations, with an outreach to above 85% of the population, have one or more programs related to agriculture.²⁴

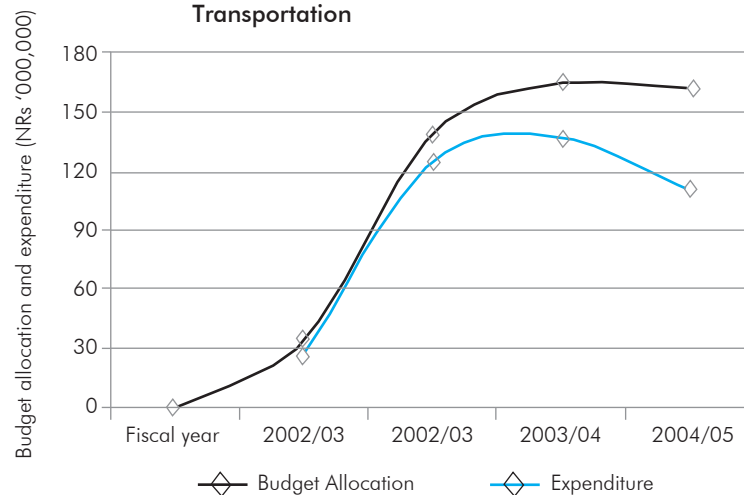
Still, poor farmers lack access to information about risks and legal rights as well as skills to develop access to markets, improve income and manage risks. Women’s access to agricultural technologies, skills and marketing know-how also remains very low, and most technologies introduced in the agriculture sector are not women-friendly (National Network for Beijing Review Nepal 2009), e.g., provision of appropriate technology to reduce their workload—mechanization of weeding, milling, winnowing, grinding, etc.

Seeds and fertilizer. Access to other production inputs is important to increase productivity

of different crops but shortages of the required amount, quality, variety and timely supply of seeds are commonly reported. Of course, seeds constitute a critical input in production and use of good seed alone can yield 20% higher production.²⁵ Saved seed is frequently the only input available and the lack of supply of source (breeder and foundation) seed in adequate quantities is a significant obstacle for the commercialization of both new and regularly grown improved crop varieties. Because the performance of the public sector agencies responsible for the distribution of seeds is weak, supply is dominated by the private sector, informal seed networks, retained seeds and illegal imports. But because the supply of certified seeds through the private sector is limited (particularly outside the Tarai) and smallholder (compared to medium-scale) farmers do not have the capacity to retain seeds, such farmers are dependent for their seed supply on external and informal markets which do not guarantee quality or supply.²⁶

Although fertilizer is a priority for agricultural production,²⁷ the deregulation of the Nepali fertilizer market has resulted in an increase in price and concerns about quality control.²⁸ Timely and adequate availability has become a significant issue, especially for the poor and the excluded who lack not only the financial resources, but also the social influence and political connections needed to be high on the distribution list.²⁹ With the recent policy to provide subsidy on chemical fertilizers,³⁰ an increase in demand can be expected that might prove difficult to fulfil. The government does allocate significant funds as subsidy on fertilizer transport to inaccessible districts but a wide gap exists between allocation and expenditure (see Figure 2.2), indicating low implementation due to shortages. This raises a

Figure 2.2: State Provision of Subsidies on Fertilizer Transportation



Source: Pokhrel and Pant (2009).

serious question as to whether the fertilizer subsidy has benefited farmers in remote districts since the root cause of low availability has not been addressed.

Another barrier to accessing agricultural inputs is distribution. Chemical fertilizers are sold through dealers and retailers, who are closer to markets, thus often depriving remote farmers at critical times. Further, seeds and other inputs from government extension services can only be accessed on a group basis but it is often difficult for the extreme poor to participate in groups.³¹ Disaggregated data, however, are not available about who has better access to seeds.

Policies exist to promote organic fertilizer and organic farming.³² Yet, potential benefits from organic produce, which fetch higher prices, are yet to be realized,³³ as there are very few programs promoting commercial organic farming³⁴ and smallholder organic farmers are not linked with larger marketing systems. Organic farming also provides the opportunity to generate additional income through sale of compost—particularly for women, as preparation and management of farmyard manure are considered women's

tasks in most communities. An average annual income of Rs 2,500-3,000 can be made (personal communication from HASERA Agriculture Research and Training Center to study team, 2010). But, as the need for fertilizers to ensure sufficient production cannot be met by organic fertilizers alone, several challenges exist, including government support for chemical fertilizers, inadequate training of extension personnel, weak institutional capacity, risks involved in shifting to new farming methods, uncertainty of crop yields, difficult market access and high costs of certification services. All of these demotivate groups with little resources unless specific efforts are made to engage with organic farming on a large scale (Pokhrel and Pant 2009).

Livestock, goats and forage seeds. Livestock population per household and density of animals are higher in Nepal than in any other South Asian country but productivity is the lowest. The major reasons for such low productivity are fodder unavailability in required amounts, poor breeding practice, lack of appropriate technologies for production, conservation of quality feeds and fodder, and seasonality of green fodder, all of which have a higher impact on access of women, the poor and the excluded to subsector resources. Constraints on other production inputs such as finance, etc, affect livestock management as well.

2.2.3 Access to credit and financial services

Access to agricultural credit is often necessary to secure access to sector inputs. Currently, there are several rural banks and many development programs³⁵ with credit components for women, the poor and excluded groups, offering micro-finance services to more than 1.6 million rural individuals,³⁶ and organized access to loans for these groups is increasing. However, women's access to institutional credit from banks and financial institutions in 2004 was only 1.7% (National Network for Beijing Review Nepal

2009), and women's access remains marginal compared to men.³⁷ Further, the lack of property titles for women and the rural poor often prevents them from meeting collateral requirements and accessing larger loans.³⁸ As such, about 72% of smallholders remain dependent on informal sources such as private moneylenders and relatives for loans. This is compounded by the fact that poor women and excluded groups generally have limited mobility and less access to information about the availability of financial services. Women often have less self-confidence and can be intimidated by officials when starting a business. The Nepali microfinance system is estimated to reach 37% of its potential market but is highly focused around accessible areas.

2.2.4 Access to participation and representation

As noted, government agricultural services are provided only through groups and there has been progress in promoting women's representation in various groups.³⁹ In a sample survey of farmer groups carried out in three districts to map disaggregated membership from 28 sample groups,⁴⁰ the different castes and ethnic groups and women were generally well represented.⁴¹ Women were substantially represented in key positions,⁴² with Hill Bahun/Chhetri and Hill Adivasi Janajatis in the majority. This could be the result of increased awareness and policy directives about women's representation. However, it is not clear how meaningful women's participation is since 23 of these groups had women in the relatively non-influential position of vice-chair. Nevertheless, this limited field survey did find that both men and women across all social groups were receiving extensions services and inputs.⁴³

More than 70% of livestock farmers are women and the participation of women in farmer groups is increasing. While their participation in the third Livestock Development Program was only

about 30-35%, despite the program's emphasis on 50% participation, it reached 72.8% under the Community Livestock Development Program. Similarly, participation of Dalits and Janajatis (34.2% and 26.6%, respectively) is encouraging. For capacity-building training in both agriculture and livestock, 33% participation of women is mandatory though this is generally around 50% as women arrange their time to participate in such events.⁴⁴

Notable is the increasing number of cooperatives, which have helped women, the poor, Dalits and other excluded groups to access markets, financial services and information, and to encourage resource sharing and collective bargaining. The cooperative movement has received encouraging support from the government as well as mention in the Interim Constitution. However, most cooperatives, especially in rural areas, are spread out, lacking a common platform. There is still an absence of any integrated strategy that includes programs both on information, communication and education, and entrepreneurship development, training services and facilities. Also, the expansion of cooperatives is yet to reach the most remote areas. Most cooperatives are formed from project user groups towards the end of the project cycle, with the projects phasing out before cooperatives are strengthened.⁴⁵

2.2.5 Access to market and income

The focus in Nepal's agriculture sector has been mostly on technology and production while minimal emphasis has been given to linking production and technology transfer with access to markets.⁴⁶ In many areas, participation in lucrative markets is dependent on capital, mobility and socio-cultural factors, where gender and inclusion asymmetries persist. Women, the poor and excluded farmers, particularly Dalits, often experience too many barriers to participate effectively in market activities, and because they lack strong

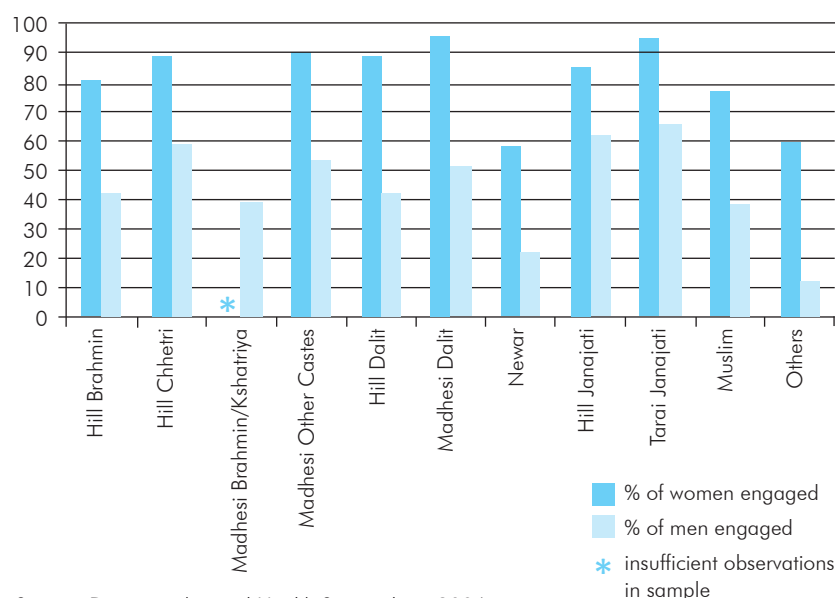
commercial networks and knowledge of demand and supply, they are less likely to invest in new technology. The underdevelopment of public infrastructure in rural areas is a major constraint for market development,⁴⁷ though some initiatives are now in place to address this, including innovative transport mechanisms (such as ropeways) to transport agricultural produce to markets, and using public radio and mobile phones to transmit information on current market prices.⁴⁸

The livestock sector contributes 15% of total GDP and 31% of agriculture GDP (Karki 2005). While dairy farming has been helping smallholder livestock-keepers earn cash income, it has not been able to address livelihood, income and food security as expected (Singh and Maharjan 2005). The many barriers include those involving market entry, commercialization, lack of extension services on farm management, and lack of infrastructure for collecting, processing and marketing (Joshi 2002). A few organizations, like Practical Action, are currently working with over 100,000 smallholder dairy farmers to address these issues, with a specific focus on market mapping, using participatory market system development tools.⁴⁹ But for women, Dalit and the excluded, specific interventions to address gender- and untouchability-based barriers are yet to take place on a scale large enough to make a difference.

Access to employment. In Nepal, 81.7% of the people are employed,⁵⁰ of whom 73.9% are engaged in agriculture (NLFS 2008). A much larger proportion of women (86%) than men (52%) in the 15-49 age group continue to work in agriculture, with a high presence (above 90%) of Madhesi Dalit, Tarai Janajati and Madhesi Other Backward Classes (OBCs) women (Bennett, Dahal and Govindasamy 2008) (see Figure 2.3).

Women mainly work as unpaid family labor in agriculture or for a combination of cash and

Figure 2.3: Women and Men Engaged in Agriculture by Caste/Ethnicity and Regional Identity



in-kind payment—particularly Tarai Janajatis (64% of men and 50% of women), who also have the highest proportion of women (43%) working without pay (Bennett, Dahal and Govindasamy 2008). Wage differentials also exist within the sector, reflecting the national realities⁵¹ of Rs 5.04 per hour for adult family males compared to Rs 3.06 per hour for females (Thapa 2008). It should be noted that expansion of irrigated agriculture enhances demand for paid agricultural labor, often providing needed income to wage laborers. NLFS (2008) data indicate that women and men are both moving out of agriculture but (as expected) men are doing so more rapidly. The group that has moved out of agricultural employment at the fastest pace has been Dalit males—though the reasons for this are not clear.

2.2.6 Migration and availability of agricultural labor

Migration has dramatically changed production patterns in rural and semi-urban areas, adversely

impacting not only production and food supply but also work divisions and labor availability. In other countries, remittances from migrant workers has led to investment in land, development of small infrastructure and adoption of new technology, but in Nepal remittances are generally invested in food, education, health or real estate.⁵² More and more land is now left fallow or less intensively cultivated due to lack of local labor (Gurung 2008). Agriculture is thus becoming “feminized”, despite the fact that women experience far more constraints than men in the sector. Additionally, of gainfully employed children,

more than four fifths are involved in the sector. There has been a rise in the number of girls in farm activities—Newars by 12%, OBCs (7%), Muslims (38%), and Janajatis (12%)—whereas all boys’ involvement either remained approximately the same or decreased (New Era/ILO 2010). Madhesi Brahmin/Kshatriya children who were working were all involved in the agricultural sector. In rural areas, children in agriculture increased from 88% to 90% of the total working children, while in urban areas there was a sharp decrease.

2.2.7 Access to opportunities along the production chain

For all poor farmers, it is extremely difficult to move up the production chain. Access to opportunities is also gendered as women have a very large role in harvesting and post-harvesting, while men are generally engaged in marketing.⁵³ Further, women and the excluded are limited to their role as producers due to

general lack of understanding of the business world.⁵⁴ Only where special project efforts are made do we find examples of their participation.⁵⁵ Many agricultural activities implemented by INGOs adhere to the “value chain” approach. Interventions and project benefits, however, can easily bypass the target group if interventions are designed without a good understanding of how to deal with the barriers they face. For example, a program that was initially designed for Dalits had to be redesigned because there were also poor non-Dalits in the settlement. Once the project widened its target, the advantaged groups (i.e., Bahuns/Chhetris) demanded the program benefits and resources for themselves. However, the project staff were inclusion sensitive, and made efforts to ensure that Dalits were able to access the project benefits as well.⁵⁶

In addition, a large majority of Nepali farmers still use locally made tools with little mechanisation—about 57% of farmers, for instance, own only the most basic equipment (Nepal Living Standard Survey [NLSS] II). Research documents innumerable cases in which the introduction of new technology in small-scale farming systems has resulted in a shift in the control over production from women to men, from excluded to non-excluded groups, especially when increased cash income is involved. (For instance, the Kami community traditionally supplied most agricultural technology—plough tips, etc—which over time have been replaced with factory-produced implements. There has been no thinking on the part of the government as to potential alternative livelihoods for Kamis.) The link between technology generation and income has to be understood, along with its gender and inclusion impacts, and only then can possible shifts in control over resources from the excluded to the advantaged and from women to men be avoided.

2.3 Policy and Legal Framework and Programmatic Response

Over the years, a progressive policy mandate has emerged in the agriculture sector for addressing gender and inclusion issues. This section discusses the national policy framework and how it responds to the barriers faced by women, the poor and the excluded. While there has been progress in addressing gender issues at the development planning level, a policy gap remains in tackling broader inclusion issues related to caste, ethnicity, religion and regional identity.

2.3.1 Sector policies and strategies⁵⁷

In the last few years, government policies for the agricultural sector have been pro-poor and inclusive. This is reflected in the provisions of the Interim Constitution (which incorporates food sovereignty as a matter of state concern); the Three-Year Interim Plan, which devotes a separate section to food security; and in government policies, programs and budget speeches for fiscal years (FY) 2008-2009 and 2009-2010. The policies and programs emphasized establishing cultivator rights and protecting farmers’ trade union rights, sought to change rural production relations to increase productivity, and committed to implementing scientific land reform and formulating a comprehensive land-use policy.⁵⁸ The 2009-2010 policy provided concessions in necessary fertilizers, seeds, agricultural tools, cold storage and irrigation-related electricity tariffs, and subsidies in the price and transportation of chemical fertilizers and commercial production of organic fertilizers. It also promoted cooperative farming and the expansion of a wholesale market. While these policy mandates are essential for sector improvement, unless specific policy direction is provided to ensure their access it will remain difficult for women, the poor and the excluded to benefit from such policies.

The focus of the government’s development

approach to gender has gradually shifted from women-targeted activities⁵⁹ to an emphasis on gender mainstreaming and empowerment.⁶⁰ The Three-Year Interim Plan (2007-2010) moves beyond prioritizing women farmers' needs and interests and emphasizes inclusion and economic transformation of women and socially excluded groups.⁶¹ It also considers land reform and land management important to address poverty and resource-based exclusion of women, the landless and the excluded. However, the annual budget of 2009-2010 failed to identify any program for structural reforms on resource tenure in favor of these groups except for some targeted income-generating activities—even leasehold farming is not covered.

The Agriculture Perspective Plan (APP 1995-2015) is one of the fundamental policy frameworks for sector development. It clearly recognizes the role of women's participation to enhance agricultural productivity and their comparative advantage in the livestock subsector. It also highlights the need to develop women's leadership in the agriculture sector and to increase their empowerment and engagement in the public arena—though without detailing the budget allocation for this. APP has established local funding mechanisms by prioritizing programs that benefit women, Dalits, excluded groups and remote areas but lacks a strategy for involving these groups in program design and monitoring. The implementation of APP is mainly guided by the framework of priority inputs and outputs but many of the production inputs required for sector development fall under different ministries, and coordination has not been effective. Likewise, APP is meant to guide agricultural development but ignores key land-specific issues—it mainly deals with how to increase immediate production outputs rather than with strategic and structural issues related to resource management, governance and structural reforms (Ghale 2009).

Past government policies have been inconsistent, thus hampering agricultural development. For example, immediately after implementation of APP, the government withdrew subsidies on fertilizers and shallow tube-wells, basic premises on which APP objectives were planned. Moreover, the government's actual financial allocation to the sector consistently fell, contrary to the plan's original vision. From 1996 to 2007, two major changes in government policy affected the sector. First, market-oriented principles were embraced and state interventions and controls reduced significantly. Second, there was a move towards decentralization, with the Local Self-Governance Act of 1999 providing greater power to local bodies. The market orientation of the sector helped to define the role of the public sector as a facilitator of private production and service provision, which was promoted by the Tenth Plan.

The government's policies have recognized fertilizer as an essential commodity, removed price and transport subsidy (except for remote districts), and let fertilizer prices be determined by demand and supply. Despite all these measures, the issues of high price and availability remain unresolved. With prices higher in Nepal, imports across the open border with India occur as unrecorded trade and fertilizers are sold at very high prices. Informal imports of fertilizers are estimated to be about three times more than formal imports (Thapa 2006). These factors contribute to low availability of fertilizers—a scarcity that is particularly challenging for women, the poor and the excluded. The ministry has no concrete plan to carry out in-depth policy study or dialogue in this regard.

Another key agriculture input is seeds, for which laws and regulations have been in place since the late 1980s,⁶² regulating export of seeds, legal distribution of different varieties, import, production, marketing, and use of pesticides. In this area the issues of access for women, the

poor and the excluded are hardly recognized. As a result, resource-poor farmers have limited access to quality seeds of new improved varieties and generally end up growing their own varieties. These are not in the list of released varieties and hence are not accepted by the formal seed production and distribution system. The National Seed Company supplies only to district headquarters in the hills and mountains, and private companies supply only where profit margins are high. Farmers receive supplies only through DADO (district agriculture development office) seed production, demonstration and mini-kit program (Shrestha and Wulff 2007).

In the absence of a policy, pricing is left to the market, which is dominated by middlemen and big traders. With no floor-price guarantee (except in milk), farmers are forced to sell their produce during the harvesting season at a low price. Neither is there a price ceiling on food and agricultural products to protect the interests of the poor. As a result, they often suffer due to high prices in lean agricultural times and during festivals.

As noted above, various types of informal microfinance institutions, self-help groups and others have increased access to credit for women, the poor and the excluded. But rural finance policies have not been able to make income-generating activities of these groups attractive for formal credit schemes as they usually require relatively small amounts of working capital. Despite the existence of programs and institutions to extend microloans to small borrowers, institutional credit has only reached 35% of the population, with primarily women and the poor being left out.

In research, the historical bias towards export crops and major grains has resulted in the neglect of subsistence crops cultivated by women, the poor and the excluded. Furthermore, research policies that promote new crops and cropping systems requiring increased labor do not consider

the gender division of labor and the constraints on women's labor time, affecting the implementation of the research findings.

Other key sector policies are the National Agriculture Policy (2004), Livestock Master Plan (1996-2015), Agricultural Extension Strategy (2005) and Agrobusiness Promotion Policy (2006). Each of these emphasizes improving access to agricultural resources and benefits for women, the poor and the excluded⁶³ through, for instance, participation of women (50%) in all agricultural projects; targeted cooperative-based production and livestock production programs; provision of special facilities to women, Dalits, laborers and marginal farmers; and specific packages to suit diverse geographic conditions. The Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives (MOAC) Gender Mainstreaming Strategy (2006) and Agriculture Development Program guideline (2008-2009) emphasize capacity enhancement of women farmers and institutional strengthening of the ministry.⁶⁴

While these policies create a positive environment for inclusion, they view the target groups as beneficiaries and focus on addressing their practical needs. There has been little attention to process-oriented interventions that promote and focus on Dalits, Janajatis and other excluded groups as well as women and integrate them into decision making at all levels. The Agriculture Development Program guideline has considered, though inadequately, the integration of women empowerment and gender equity issues in program design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation (M&E), but lacks explicit strategies for broader social inclusion.

National food and nutrition security plan and Nepal agricultural sector development strategy. The government is preparing a concept paper⁶⁵ for a long-term and comprehensive sector development strategy. However, there remains very limited analysis of structural and social issues

related to production, commercialization and conservation of agro-biodiversities. Feminization of the agriculture sector and the effects of migration are still not being addressed in mainstream discourse.

2.3.2 Land reform and other sector-related policies

The government has made several efforts in the past to address land reform issues though not very effectively.⁶⁶ Positive developments include the establishment of the Land Reform Commission (2008) and the notion of a Land Bank (envisioned since 2005) to purchase surplus land from landlords and sell on provisional loans to poor farmers, specifically ex-bonded laborers.⁶⁷ However, the Land Bank has been unable to address other land-related problems such as tenancy rights for unregistered tenants, preventing individuals from acquiring land above the size allowed and, conversely, preventing land fragmentation. The draft land policy (2004) attempts to address land-based gender inequality and issues related to ex-bonded laborers and *haliyas*, and has provisions for secure land tenure and access for these groups. The Eleventh Amendment of the Civil Code (2002) and the Gender Equality Act (2006) have accorded women equal inheritance and property rights, providing the basis for women to access loans and credit for agricultural production if the land is registered in their name. The government's introduction of a 20% rebate on land registration fees for purchasing land in the name of women provides an incentive though this is often used to circumvent landholding ceilings (Wiley et al 2009).

2.3.3 International commitments

Through various international agreements, Nepal is committed to ensuring women's rights regarding means of production though implementation has been restricted to representation and

training. The Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women noted that pressing issues include inequitable access for women to productive resources (particularly land), the feminization of agriculture and the marginalization of rural women (United Nations 2004). Achieving several of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) depends on committing resources to the agriculture sector, given its impact on other goals. The MDG report (NPC 2005) clearly found that women and agriculture-based laborers are the most vulnerable to food security issues, a fact that was reconfirmed by the *Nepal Human Development Report 2009*. Due to nearly stagnant agricultural growth, the draft Nepal progress report on the MDGs (2010) recommends the introduction of new and appropriate technology and knowledge to make the sector attractive to youths and migrant workers who have returned home. But the report does not address the issue of the increasing feminization of agriculture or other aspects of inclusion in agriculture.

ILO 169. For Adivasi Janajatis, the ratification of ILO Convention 169 in 2007 marks a significant development in land reform, land ownership and natural resource management.⁶⁸ Yet application of the Convention has been slow due to several contentious issues.⁶⁹ Neither MOAC, MLD (responsible for inclusion and Indigenous Peoples) or MOFSC have carried out the necessary analysis of the Convention's implications on agriculture. Nor have they developed formal guidance for all stakeholders on the practical steps for its application. There are important GESI implications for at least four specific provisions of ILO 169, starting with Article 14(a) on the right of ownership and possession over traditionally occupied lands. From a GESI perspective, when new, large-scale agriculture projects for livelihood diversification are implemented, measures need to be taken to ensure that Adivasi Janajatis can continue in their traditional occupations and that

customary practices regarding resource use and control are recognized. Second, regarding Article 16 on displacement, there is an obligation to seek free and informed consent from Janajatis if they are to be removed from their lands—and, if so, to ensure that they are fully compensated. Third, in Article 17(b), Janajatis need to be consulted whenever consideration is being given to their capacity to alienate their own lands or otherwise transmit their rights outside their community. And fourth, Article 20(c) stipulates that indigenous peoples cannot be subjected to coercive recruitment systems, including bonded labor. In the Nepal context, this requires the abolishment of bonded laborers and the voiding of their loans—as happened, for instance, in 2000, 2002 and 2008, when new legislation freed large numbers of *kamaiya* and *haliya* bonded agricultural laborers.

WTO. According to Article 6.2 of the Agreement on Agriculture under the World Trade Organization (WTO), Nepal can allow domestic subsidies to specific commodities up to 10% of the value of the commodity's output. In addition, Nepal can grant subsidies that are not specific to any commodity (e.g., fertilizer subsidy) up to 10% of the value of agricultural output. The government is also entitled to provide "Green Box" subsidies, which include direct payments in relation to product-specific support such as research, agriculture roads, agriculture extension, irrigation, improved seeds, chemical fertilizers, etc. But since investment in agriculture is very low in Nepal, increasing investment in order to be competitive as well as benefit from WTO membership is necessary (FAO 2004). Due to its dependence on foreign aid, in most cases, the government has very limited options to negotiate with donors on subsidy issues. But with exposure to international markets there are opportunities for agribusiness expansion as well as threats to production systems that have worked historically in isolation.

2.3.3 Gender equality and social inclusion in key programs

In this section, four selected programs⁷⁰ are reviewed to assess how gender and inclusion issues are addressed in program interventions. We have purposely selected programs on agriculture supported by key donors (Table 2.1). (Livelihood-related programs are not included due to the large number in operation in Nepal.) In addition, we draw upon the experience of other organizations working in the sector which are implementing agricultural activities and promoting innovative ways to increase access for the rural poor and, especially, women and excluded groups.

The discussion below assesses these programs and their efforts to address GESI issues, through an issue-to-issue comparison.

Gender equality and social inclusion objectives and strategies

Consistent with APP directives, most programs aim for pro-poor and gender-balanced farmer groups and provision of extension services. Gender mainstreaming is not uniform in all programs, however, and attention to social inclusion is not well defined. The Commercial Agriculture Development Program (CADP) and Community Livestock Development Program (CLDP) mandate 50% participation of women in farmer groups. CLDP in particular has developed a gender strategy for the Department of Livestock Services (DLS),⁷¹ an operational guideline and training manual on gender mainstreaming, and terms of reference for gender focal points. It has initiated a "pocket package" program to identify specific areas of poverty-stricken communities;⁷² trained community livestock assistants for social mobilization and to provide basic technical support to farmers (CLDP 2009); developed a gender action plan and performance indicators for empowerment of women, Dalits and Janajatis; and implement gendered evaluation of program

Table 2.1: Overview of Projects/Programs

Projects, donors, project coverage	Project goals and objectives	Project interventions	Key measures towards GESI
Commercial Agriculture Development Program (CADP), Asian Development Bank (ADB), 11 districts of Far-Eastern Region	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reduce poverty among rural population through gender and socially inclusive development by equitable and sustainable agriculture commercialization • Generate employment opportunities for poor farmers and landless people by promoting high-value crop production and marketing 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Commercial agriculture investment and management • Inclusive development of stakeholders • Market information dissemination • Capacity building of project partners • Project implementation support 	Develop marketable skills of the poor and landless, social equity in group formation, and increased opportunities for income growth and employment generation
Community Livestock Development Program, ADB, 22 districts	Increase livestock productivity to reduce rural poverty, with a specific focus on gender and social inclusion development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Community development and capacity building • Livestock productivity improvement • Livestock processing and marketing • Livelihoods pilot program for higher altitudes • Project management services 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Develop Department of Livestock Services (DLS) gender strategy, gender action plan, gender mainstreaming operational guidelines for districts, training manual on gender mainstreaming for DLS officers, field staff and a curriculum and terms of reference for gender focal persons, gender planning training manual for d-LAT (district livestock action team), gender-sensitization training manual for women and men farmers, and training manual on leadership development for women farmers • Capacity-enhancement training on gender mainstreaming for policy-level officials, officers, gender focal points, field staff and partner NGOs and community-based organizations • Gender-sensitization training for women and men farmers, leadership training for women staff and women farmers • “Pocket package and group approach” to identify specific areas of poverty-stricken communities • Support 69,000 households (50% of the poor households in targeted production pocket areas) to improve livestock production, concentrating activities on landless households, including those headed by women • Integrated livelihood package for women and excluded groups
Project for Agriculture Commercialization and Trade (PACT), WB, 25 districts	Improve the competitiveness of smallholder farmers and the agribusiness sector in selected commodity value chains	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Improve access to markets through technology and information services, public infrastructure and linkages to agribusiness • Create and strengthen partnerships and linkages between producers, traders, processors and other stakeholders • Respond to sanitary, phytosanitary and food quality standards 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Farmers grouped as producer groups, cooperatives, commodity associations, women groups, processing groups and marketing groups • Farmer organizations developed and strengthened as rural institutions • Integrated environmental and social assessment, and develop strategies for indigenous peoples and gender development
Sustainable Soil Management Program (SSMP), Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation	Improved food security and increased income for women and men farmers in <i>bari</i> -dominated farming systems	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • SSMP-linked improved production technologies • Extension services • Capacity building 	Women-friendly labor-saving technologies through applied research; a low-cost farmer-to-farmer (FTF) extension system

impact. However, women's participation in decision making is limited, and their leadership capabilities remain inadequately developed.⁷³

Likewise, a common problem appears to be a lack of clarity and direction in programmes. DLS, for instance, has nominated gender focal points at all levels with clear strategies for addressing the inclusion of other excluded groups through a gender strategy. Likewise, CADP aims to develop marketable skills of the poor and the landless in 11 districts and social equity in group formation, but has yet to develop specific strategies to fulfil this objective. The World Bank (WB) Project for Agriculture Commercialization and Trade (PACT), meanwhile, supports enhancing the involvement of women, the poor and the excluded through capacity building, more representation and greater participation in commercial agriculture, yet fails to elaborate how exactly this will be done or to explain what the specific targeted activities are.

The DFID-supported Agriculture Perspective Plan Support Program (APPSP, now phased out) was directed to poor farmers and supported services to rural communities, with emphasis on poor and excluded populations in remote areas, through two district-level funds, the District Extension Fund and Local Initiative Fund. Together, these formed the District Agricultural Development Fund. APPSP was the only program that identified four major dimensions of exclusion (gender, social, poverty and geography). Its livelihoods and social inclusion strategy⁷⁴ was aimed at promoting greater access to resources and increasing the voice of excluded groups (its categories were used by DADOs in the collection of gender- and caste/ethnicity-disaggregated information in their programs). Though data are not available as to who has benefited from these funds, since the criteria for awarding projects reflect GESI priorities, they are considered pro-poor and pro-excluded. Fund

criteria give preference to project proposals that directly benefit women and the excluded, are implemented at remote locations, and for which the proponents are inclusive.

Group-based approaches

Farmer and livestock groups generally consist of one representative per household. The majority of agriculture projects, including CADP and CLDP, have achieved 50% participation by women in their farmer groups even though the project guidelines stipulate only 35%.⁷⁵ CADP has no disaggregated information by caste/ethnicity for farmer groups though data on women's membership are available.⁷⁶ In CLDP livestock groups, however, participation of Dalits and Janajatis was 27.2% and 26.8%, respectively, while Bahuns/Chhetris were 44.3%. Advantaged groups dominated (74%) the large-animal and forage-production groups (CLDP 2009) though this is not surprising as a large animal is a significant and risky investment for a poor family.

We will look at four group approaches and results in a bit more detail. First, CADP encourages small-scale farmer groups to federate into larger groups in order to gain access to markets, information, credit and improved technology. This Commercial Agriculture Alliance (CAA) facilitates group formation and provides technical assistance to implement investment for a higher level of commercialization. However, groups need to fulfil CAA criteria⁷⁷ for membership, which is very difficult for some. A dearth of effective farmer groups and weak social mobilization to establish effective links have been a barrier to commercialization. Second, in CLDP, 64% of women, out of a total 96,915 farm families, have been mobilized into farmer groups, which are further organized into farmer communities and then federated into cooperatives. Dalit and Janajati women in CLDP working areas have been found to be more confident and

able to make decisions regarding setting of prices, investments, income and selling of livestock.⁷⁸ Yet inadequate social mobilization capacity of local partners (NGOs and community-based organizations [CBOs]) continues to limit the full involvement of the excluded in CLDP farmer groups. Since program sustainability relies heavily on local organizations and institutions, a lot depends on the social mobilization capacity of local partners. Realizing this, CLDP has made efforts to focus more on capacity-building training to strengthen the capacity and awareness of partner NGOs on social mobilization and gender and social issues.

In the third example, the PACT approach is community driven and social mobilization is supposed to be a key factor in involving local communities in agricultural commercialization efforts. Viable farmer organizations are to be formed or strengthened and members trained in commercialization. The fourth example is CEAPRED (the Center for Environmental and Agricultural Policy Research, Extension and Development) which has adopted a social mobilization approach that involves a social mobilizer (“agricultural technician”) working with a motivator from the local community to ensure that both technical and social issues are sufficiently addressed. At the end of the project, the community motivators are encouraged to take on the role of agricultural technicians. Similarly, Practical Action provides training to local farmers to become leader farmers but has found that while other farmers will pay for extension inputs such as seeds or micro-irrigation sets, they do not want to pay for technical advice from leader farmers.

Credit and financial services

Several projects include a credit or financial service component.⁷⁹ CADP has a CAA-managed fund to identify and access demand-driven, market-based investments—though this is pro-

vided only to CAA members. CADP also has a credit scheme that facilitates the flow of credit to small-scale farmers, farmer groups and cooperatives, targeting the building of staff capacity at financial institutions in commercial agriculture lending. However, it fails to specify the need for GESI sensitization of staff members who are expected to interact with farmer groups. CLDP operational guidelines, meanwhile, mandate the creation of a livestock development fund while microcredit services are also offered to farmer and livestock groups. Although both CADP and CLDP extend credit and financial facilities to disadvantaged groups, cumbersome processes limit the access of women, the poor and the excluded. In CLDP, by April 2010, a full 100% of women beneficiaries, nearly 90,000 women, had received a loan through microfinance institutions. However, CLDP also found that while the Grameen Bank microfinancing model has been an effective tool in small towns and elsewhere, it is not suitable for the remote hills (CLDP 2009).

For its part, PACT provides a value chain development grant for technical assistance to farmer groups, processors, input suppliers and other value chain participants meant to review their commercialization options and prepare viable business plans and investment proposals for funding. The grants are competitive and supported at 70% of cost, with 30% contribution in cash or kind from beneficiaries. Whether vulnerable groups can actually access these funds⁸⁰ is, however, unclear since field implementation is yet to take place. But either way, the design demands a higher level of capacity than women and poor and excluded farmer groups would have unless a process is facilitated for them to build their capacity to access these resources. In addition, the PACT Indigenous Peoples Development Plan adopts strategies geared towards inclusion, greater participation and involvement in commercial agriculture, capacity building and specific

measures either through direct project funds or from other sources. Finally, APPSP had two district-level funds (the District Extension Fund and Local Initiative Fund), which strengthened access to agricultural and livestock extensions service and enhanced market opportunities. However, the process of getting the funds has been deemed too technical and lengthy (APPSP 2005).

Access to land, extension, and other services

To address the issue of lack of land for many of the rural poor, leasehold farming has been an effective approach.⁸¹ Practical Action provides land through leaseholds to farmer groups, supported by training (e.g., vegetable cultivation) and supply of seeds, fertilizers and micro-irrigation systems. Similarly, Practical Action has been piloting riverbed farming targeted at landless communities, which has been found suitable for off-season cultivation. However, a national policy to endorse leasehold farming, which would provide a mandate to commit resources, is urgently needed.

Several organizations, such as the NGOs SAPPROS (Support Activities for Poor Producers of Nepal) and CEAPRED, are adopting a hybrid (multiple-use) system of integrating water supply and irrigation systems to meet drinking-water demands and agricultural needs. Micro-irrigation (i.e., drip, sprinkler, treadle pump) systems have benefited households with small landholdings by improving food security and economic status as these require minimal labor and cost to maintain.⁸² However, while micro-irrigation can increase food subsistence, it is only when the landholding size is above 0.1 ha per family member that households can actually increase their income (ADB 2006). These organizations are also promoting entry-point activities that are affordable, suitable and result-oriented for poor farmers, which is important in building the trust of groups that are less willing to adopt

new practices. For example, both have introduced greenhouses (made from plastic sheets), which can allow households to earn around Rs 80,000 in six months from vegetable production.⁸³

Access to market information remains both of central importance and problematic. Practical Action is promoting innovative ways to address lack of access to market price information, such as providing collection centers with mobile phones. Likewise, SAPPROS is researching the potential for local IT centers offering direct contact with agricultural experts through videoconferencing. The two organizations have also introduced ropeways for transporting goods, reducing the time spent, usually by women and children, in transporting agricultural products.⁸⁴ CADP has initiated an agriculture market information system, which disseminates market information through local radio stations. Although an excellent approach to reaching a wider population, this does not address language diversity since information is broadcast only in Nepali.⁸⁵ CADP has also identified five districts⁸⁶ in its area of coverage as too isolated to target for agricultural commercialization but alternative agriculture programs for these geographically excluded districts have not been identified.

In line with the continued emphasis on livestock programs, the CLDP⁸⁷ provides veterinary, improved livestock and infrastructure services for rearing goats/pigs, specifically targeted to Dalits, women and Janajatis. It also reports that, as of 2009, household per capita income from milk sales nearly doubled to Rs 7,436, and in areas where the project supported milk-chilling centers, animal-keeping has increased significantly,⁸⁸ with an increase in fresh milk collection by up to 72%. However, inadequate technical support in feeding and health management is cited as a major concern (CLDP 2010). Further, with CLDP's Intensive Livestock Production Program (ILP),⁸⁹ per capita milk consumption of 20% of the benefi-

ciaries (with improved cattle and buffalo) ranged from 400 to 600 milliliters, three times more than the World Health Organization requirement. However, the extent to which women and Dalits have benefited from these measures is not clear due to lack of disaggregated data.

Finally, the farmer-to-farmer (FTF)⁹⁰ approach, initiated by the Sustainable Soil Management Program (SSMP) of the Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation and recognized in the national Agricultural Extension Policy, has shown that an extension system building on local actors and based on demands from beneficiaries can also be effective for gender and social inclusion (Manandhar 2006). Ten district-level FTF committees have been established, and small grant funds mobilized to serve more than 17,000 farmers, including 57% women, through more than 300 experienced leader farmers (ELFs). Through this approach, there has been improvement in the skills and capacity of women; about 35% of those who have passed level-I examinations through the Council for Technical and Vocational Training (CTEVT), proving their sound technical capacity, are women (Paudel 2008). The drawback of this approach is that it excludes landless and smallholding farmers, who have little land for demonstrations and insufficient time to visit other farms.

Program implementation mechanisms and involvement of the excluded

Both CADP and CLDP follow a similar program implementation structure. Under CADP, MOAC is the executing agency, with the Commercial Agricultural Alliance (CAA) and the Department of Agriculture (DOA) as the implementing agencies.⁹¹ CAA stipulates that at least 25% of its headquarters staff must be women and at the district level the District Review Committee includes a women's development officer.⁹² CADP also has a social equity

officer with a cross-cutting role to ensure that social conflicts related to the project are identified and resolved while CLDP includes a gender and development specialist. In PACT, a project steering committee (PSC) is established for overall implementation, chaired by the secretary of MOAC (in general, the PSCs only include the relevant joint secretaries and other related ministerial representatives). The Ministry of Women, Children and Social Welfare is a member of the PSCs but there is no representation from non-ministerial institutions representing women or excluded groups (like the National Dalit Commission, National Women's Commission, or the National Foundation for Development of Indigenous Nationalities (NFDIN)).

At the project implementation level for both CADP and CLDP,⁹³ mechanisms ensure representation and participation of women, the poor and excluded groups. In CLDP, the implementation coordination committees are chaired by the Director General of DLS, and include representation of the Department of Women's Development and civil society stakeholder organizations. Both programs also adopt the "farmer group" approach and have specific provisions to ensure that women and excluded groups are reached. However, as discussed previously, special attention needs to be given to building the capacity of farmer organizations' internal management, and creating and strengthening linkages with agro-enterprises. Involvement of grassroots-level bodies (e.g., village development and ward committees) in planning, implementing and monitoring project activities is considered essential by CLDP, but limited field staff and lack of incentives for technical government staff have been cited as major barriers to reaching the most vulnerable.⁹⁴ This difficulty is reflected in CADP as well, where implementation is heavily dependent on limited DADO expertise. Finally, APPSP's

implementation process was considered too technical by most stakeholders (APPSP 2005).

2.4 Institutional Capacity

Institutional arrangements, the location of responsibility for GESI and related capacity of staff, institutional culture and attitude of service providers have a strong influence on service delivery and access to those services for women, the poor and the excluded. This section assesses the diversity in staffing in civil personnel working in the agriculture sector and student profiles from selected agricultural institutes. The job descriptions of key decision makers and implementers are assessed to identify where responsibility for GESI is located in MOAC.

2.4.1 Location of responsibility for gender equality and social inclusion

MOAC has five divisions and four departments,⁹⁵ and was one of the first ministries to establish (in 1992) a separate division to address the concerns of women in the sector.⁹⁶ The Gender Equity and Environment Division (GEED) has been mandated to work on GESI, but the other divisions have no such mandated responsibility. Yet, while GEED recognizes that women farmers have specific needs and interests and require targeted support, it does not address caste/ethnic/location differences between women nor does it have a specific mandate to address other dimensions of social exclusion that affect men as well.

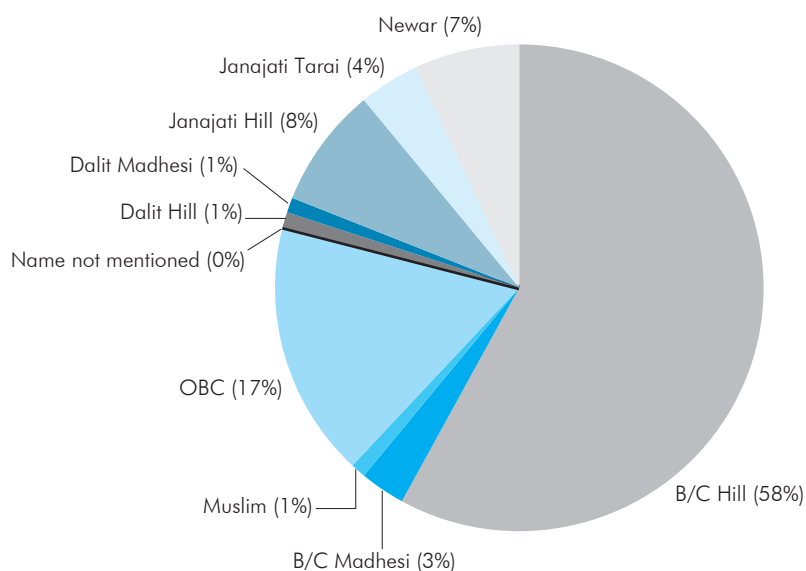
Apart from a narrow focus on gender and its low staff diversity, GEED has experienced a number of challenges. For instance, the appointed gender focal person, even though a joint secretary, has

not been able to influence programs and policies, despite the fact that strong leadership was considered key to the division's effectiveness.⁹⁷ Related constraints include inadequate recognition of the importance of GESI issues within the ministry; lack of authority and resources; inadequate linkages to integrate GESI in the ministry's overall work; ad hoc capacity development of skills for mainstreaming GESI among GEED staff; and lack of a GESI-responsive planning, monitoring and evaluation system (Acharya 2010). Global learning has found that both focused, dedicated technical support and integration of GESI responsibility into the job responsibilities of mainstream staff is necessary to ensure that GESI is not relegated to just one person or unit. But such awareness is yet to reach Nepal's agriculture sector and a key resulting problem is that GEED has not been able to work effectively.

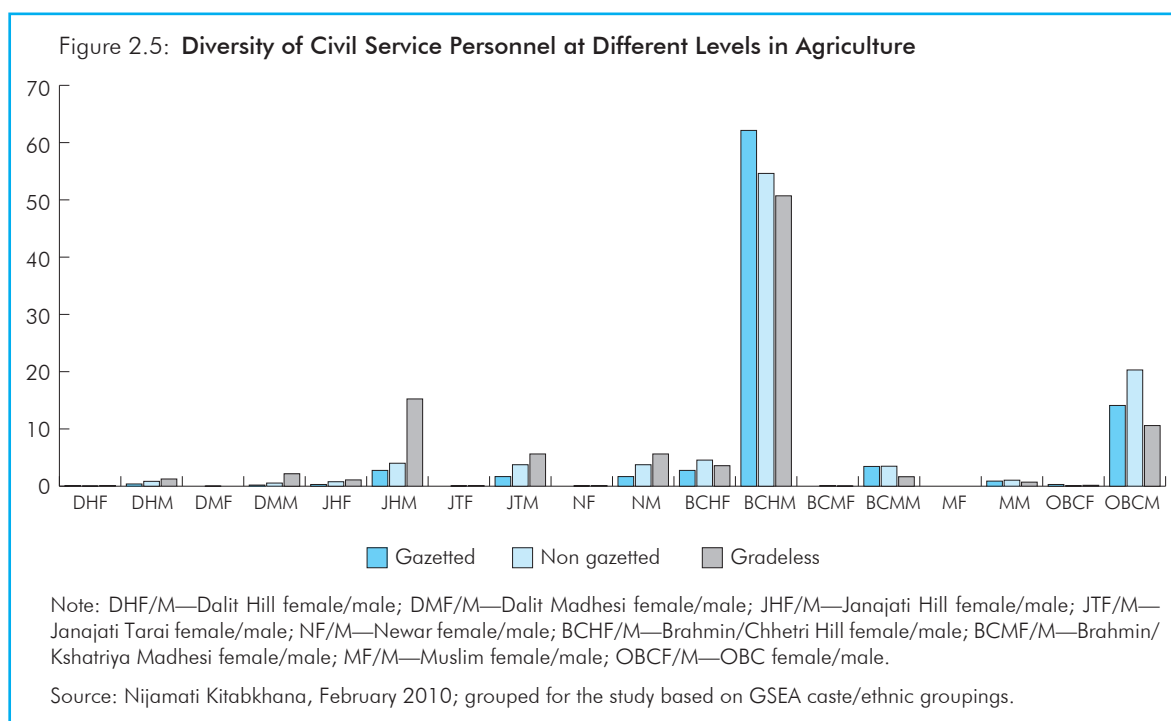
2.4.2 Level of diversity in sector

A sex and caste/ethnicity disaggregation⁹⁸ of 8,150 civil service personnel in the agriculture sec-

Figure 2.4: Diversity of Civil Service Personnel in Agriculture Sector



Source: Nijamati Kitabkhana, February 2010; analysis by study team.



tor reveals that there is overrepresentation of men, Bahuns/Chhetris and Newars. Women comprise only 6% of the total staff (see Figure 2.4).

Of the 1,014 staff at the gazetted level, 6.21% are women (with none in the special class), 68% are Bahuns/Chhetris and 11% are Newars. There are 4,586 staff in non-gazetted positions, of whom 6.50% are women. In addition, 2,540 staff have no grade, of whom 5.79% are women. The highest presence of women is in third-class non-gazetted positions (16.95%) (see Figure 2.5).

Of the seven staff members in GEED, only one is a woman. Although gender training was provided to the staff, the majority have been transferred or have since retired, and there is a gap in required skills and competencies.

2.4.3 Student enrollment and profile—Level of diversity in agriculture-related institutions

To identify whether there was a possibility of improved diversity among those providing tech-

nical and managerial support to agriculture in future, we mapped the student profile of three institutions.

The Institute of Agriculture and Animal Science is one of the leading agricultural institutions for tertiary-level education in agriculture and veterinary services. Sex-disaggregated information about students was available, but not with caste/ethnicity disaggregation.⁹⁹ Over a five-year period, 1,134 students enrolled in agriculture courses, of whom 198 were women. The highest number of women was in BSc Agriculture; for 2008-2009, a high of 44 female students registered for the course. The registration of women for master's degrees was far lower, with fewer than 10 women over five years. Among 23 students, there was only one woman pursuing a PhD in agriculture. Of the female students who graduate, one fifth go on to work for (I)NGOs (Adhikary 1995; Devkota 2003). In general, the rate of women's enrolment and pass-out in the institute is 15%.

The Himalayan College of Agricultural Sciences and Technology provides two courses: BSc Agriculture (Hons) and BSc Veterinary. A mapping of those who passed out in the two most recent batches indicates that of a total 233 students in agriculture, 33% are women; and of 188 students in veterinary, 25% are women. Bahun/Chhetri (at 53%) and Newars (21%) dominate. There are also 24% OBCs (with no women), and only 3% Dalits (with no Madhesi Dalits) and 1% Muslims. Apparently, other than Newars, there are no Janajati graduates.

The Council of Technical Education and Vocational Training offers three agricultural courses at the diploma level (in plant science, animal science, and food/dairy technology). There are a number of short courses on agriculture and livestock management as well as technical courses on agriculture. For the Proficiency Certificate Level (PCL) course in agriculture, there have been 262 students in three years, with 45% women (caste/ethnicity disaggregation is unavailable).

2.5 Program and Budget Analysis

This section analyzes government and program budget allocation to examine the extent to which resources are being spent on agriculture sector activities that are expected in some way to help women, the poor and the excluded. The objective is to “follow the money” to assess what efforts have been made to address the issues that constrain these groups’ access to sector benefits; analyze how much of the budget has been allocated and spent on such issues; and assess the degree to which government funding for these issues is channeled through *targeted programs* or integrated into *mainstream programs*.

The government’s annual budget speech presents three different types of analysis from a gender and inclusion perspective: expenditures in support of “inclusive development and

targeted programs” are identified; the gender-responsive budget (GRB) exercise is presented; and pro-poor expenditures identified (Annex 8a, 8b, and 8c of the annual budget speech 2009-2010, respectively). The budget speech allocated Rs 7,876,587,000 for agriculture and categorized 4% (Rs 333,900,000) as inclusive development and targeted programs; 85% of the total (Rs 6,720,121,000) as pro-poor; and Rs 7,603,321,000 of the total as gender responsive (25% directly and 71% indirectly).

We tried to identify how classifications were made and the process that was followed. Neither indicators nor criteria are specified for inclusive development/targeted programs, but there are indicators for GRB¹⁰⁰ and pro-poor budgeting.¹⁰¹ Our discussions with ministry and line agency staff indicate, however, that guidelines are not clear and in the end it is left to the budget officer to categorize and score the various budget lines to the best of his (it is primarily men) understanding. Since the scoring and indicators were not clear for the other two kinds of budgeting, we have focused on reviewing the government’s GRB indicators, identifying what sub-indicators are relevant and whether this approach is effective for tracking GRB expenditures in the agriculture sector.

As noted above, the annual budget speech for Fiscal Year (FY) 2009-2010 identified 25% of the agriculture budget as directly supportive to women and another 71% as indirectly supportive; the remainder was neutral. Ministry staff categorize all expenditure items in the agriculture budget into these three categories (directly supportive, indirectly supportive and neutral) based on five indicators of gender responsiveness: participation, capacity building, benefit sharing, increased access to employment and income-earning opportunities, and reduction in women’s workload. There are no sub-indicators to guide the scoring of budget lines or assess how

the budgeted activities contribute to the indicators. Also, the GRB indicators tend to be better at capturing expenditures for targeted women's programs than at picking up expenditures for efforts made in universal programs to mainstream GESI. Finally, of course, the GRB exercise focuses only on gender, and does not capture expenditures aimed at increasing outreach to excluded groups.

2.5.1 Gender equality and social inclusion budget analysis

While we have assessed the existing GRB practice and indicators used, and identified possible sub-indicators for GRB analysis in agriculture, we have also developed and applied our own tentative "GESI budgeting methodology".¹⁰² This is intended to capture expenditures that reach and support excluded groups and those that support women. Although there is no single rule about how to determine whether public expenditure is discriminatory or enhances equality, there are some general principles that are discussed in gender-budgeting literature, which we have adapted.¹⁰³ Our efforts here are intended as a first step to identify the approximate resource flows to these different purposes; but much more work and wider consultation are needed. We hope that this initial attempt can become the basis for further collective work with the Ministry of Finance, the Gender-responsive Budget Committee, sectoral ministries, donor agencies such as UNIFEM, and NGOs interested in tracking budget expenditures.

The GESI budget analysis assesses what activities have been planned/implemented that provide *direct* support to women, the poor and excluded social groups to address the barriers they experience in accessing resources and benefits from agriculture (e.g., subsidies, credit, etc); what are the efforts made to provide *indirect* support (e.g., providing disaggregated evidence

of disparities, sensitivity training for extension workers, etc); and what amount is *neutral*, as it assumes that everyone will benefit equally. We have followed GRB practice of three categories, but have not followed the GRB indicators as they have not been very effective in application across the sectors.

The GESI budget analysis was carried out at two levels. First we assessed *national-level program expenditures* in the agriculture sector using the above criteria. Two donor-supported programs (CLDP and PACT) and the government's regular extension services in two districts, Dolakha and Makwanpur, for FY 2009-2010 came to a total of Rs 1,622,500,000.¹⁰⁴ Our analysis resulted in the breakdown shown in Table 2.2. There were no directly supportive or targeted programs; the indirectly supportive budget amounted to 1.64% for women and 45% for the poor. There were no expenditures which could be identified as directly or indirectly supportive of Dalits, Janajatis, OBCs, the disabled and other excluded groups.

The next step was to move to the *district level* to ground truth both the national-level GRB budget exercise and our own GESI analysis in two districts,¹⁰⁵ Kavre and Morang.¹⁰⁶ We first worked with DADO and district livestock office (DLSO) staff to assess the current approach to gender-responsive budgeting they were using. In consultations at the district level, officers stated that of the five GRB indicators, only participation, capacity building and employment/income-generation opportunities were relevant to assess the gender responsiveness of agriculture budget items. They were aware of a number of positive policy provisions¹⁰⁷ mandating that benefits reach girls/women, the poor and excluded, and they felt these automatically ensured that the entire budget would be responsive to women or specific excluded groups. In reality, this has proven to be a problematic assumption.

Table 2.2: Gender Equality and Social Inclusion Budget Analysis of Sectoral Budgets of the Community Livestock Development Program, Project for Agriculture Commercialization and Trade, and Two Regular Ministry of Agriculture Programs

Targeted groups	Directly supportive		Indirectly supportive	
	% of budget	Examples of activities	% of budget	Examples of activities
Total budget of four programs (PACT, CLDP and extension programs of Dolakha and Makwanpur): Rs 1,622,500,000				
Women	–		1.64 (PACT 1.86)	Workshop on gender mainstreaming, processing/marketing districts focal point, gender/development training for field staff, and DLS gender strategy preparation and publications for women, etc
Poor	–		45.00*	Entrepreneurship and business planning training for farmers/entrepreneurs, and feed ingredients and standard feed formulation training for feed entrepreneurs, etc

Note: *CLDP 20%; PACT 48%; regular extension program Dolakha 87%, Makwanpur: 57%.

Source: Budget of FY 2008-2009 of DADO and DLSO, Kavre and Morang, and budget of FY 2009-2010 of PACT, CLDP, and extension programs of Dolakha and Makwanpur, MOAC.

Next, we worked with DADO and DLSO staff to do a GESI analysis of the district-level agriculture and livestock budgets for FY 2008-2009,¹⁰⁸ totaling Rs 34,680,705 for agriculture and Rs 28,674,635 for livestock,¹⁰⁹ using directly supportive, indirectly supportive, and neutral categories.¹¹⁰ The results are shown in Table 2.3.

DADO and DLSO budget of FY 2008-2009, Morang and Kavre. From a budget of Rs 27,908,966.61 for Morang, only a minimal amount was identified as directly or indirectly supportive for women and the poor (3.0% direct, 1.6% indirect for women; 0.57% indirect for the poor), and nothing for the excluded. In Kavre, it was much higher for women (15% direct) and the poor (3%). Activities included seed distribution and subsidy, training and workshops, user-group mobilization/formation and strengthening, and grants for fisheries. As policy directives exist for participation of women and excluded groups, activities like “service center level training” and “group formation” were marked as directly contributing. None of the agricultural programs is directed towards the excluded, save for a nominal amount, as there is no practice of targeting activities in the budget. We recognize that neutral expenditures could indirectly benefit all groups,

but experience has indicated that unless barriers are specifically addressed, women, the poor and the excluded are unable to benefit fully from such general improvements. This also highlights the need for a more rigorous analysis so that the budget speech’s classification can be more realistic (as discussed above, it has categorized 97% of agriculture programs as either directly or indirectly supportive of women).

The picture that emerges from the district and project budgets is that attention has been paid by all to creating a supportive environment for poor groups. DADO Kavre has specifically recognized the needs of poor Dalits, Janajatis and women, and provided subsidies to them. Efforts at mobilizing, group formation and investing in capacity building are some of the interventions by the programs to help address structural barriers. Yet, this does not address the fact that it is mostly the extreme poor and members of socially excluded groups, such as Dalits, who are either excluded or exclude themselves from joining groups due to time and poverty constraints. While groups are indeed a powerful mechanism to improve access to services and inputs, relying solely on this model without assessing its suitability means that those most in need might not have access.

2.6 Monitoring and Reporting

Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives. Within the ministry, there does not seem to be a clear feedback mechanism through which monitoring and evaluation (M&E) reports can be translated into efforts to redesign program strategies/activities. The M&E Division has developed guidelines, including monitoring and reporting forms to record data on farmer groups disaggregated by gender as well as caste/ethnicity (Dalit, Janajati and others). However, the ministry has been lax

in demanding, compiling and analyzing such data from the districts—in effect, the implementation of disaggregated data collection depends on the personal initiative of DADOs. Furthermore, organizational and technical support from DOA to the districts and programs in this regard has been inadequate as they have not been trained or given guidance on how to disaggregate.¹¹¹

The Priority and Foreign Aid Section of the M&E Division is broadly responsible for coordinating M&E and reporting on all projects. CADP,

Table 2.3: Gender Equality and Social Inclusion Budget Analysis of Sectoral Budgets of District Agriculture Development Offices and Four Ministry of Agriculture Programs

Targeted groups	Directly supportive		Indirectly supportive	
	% of budget	Examples of activities	% of budget	Examples of activities
Kavre (total budget: DADO Rs 6,771,739; DLSO Rs 18,249,635)				
Women	14.95	DADO <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Distribution of fruit seedlings for kitchen gardening program • Establishment of business-oriented orange garden, 50% subsidy granted for establishment of garden near highway areas • Subsidy on beehives, bees 	0.16	DADO <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Distribution of sprayer for marginalized people with 50% subsidy
	18.99	DLSO <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Distribution of goats, insurance, training 	8.61	DLSO <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Training on leasehold farming, goat insurance, etc
Poor	3.28	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Distribution of sprayer for marginalized people with 50% subsidy • Seeds distribution with 50% subsidy • Transportation and distribution of beehives with 25% subsidy • Distribution of bees with 50% subsidy, etc 	0.75	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Distribution of <i>lapsi</i> seeds with 50% subsidy • Livestock sector activities
Dalit	2.72	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Distribution of beehives with 75% subsidy 		
Janajati	1.39	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Distribution of beehives with 75% subsidy • Training for organic vegetable farming at district level (under ultra-poor women, Dalit and Janajati empowerment program) 		
Morang (total budget: DADO Rs 27,908,967; DLSO Rs 10,425,000)				
Women	3.00	DADO <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Group mobilization training, vegetable-package exhibition, vegetable-kit distribution, seed distribution and subsidy on seeds, formation, strengthening and grants for fisheries, mushroom-production exhibition 	1.60	DADO <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Formulation/mobilization of farmers, agriculture fair exhibition, nursery exhibition, crop protection, emergency service
			5.28	DLSO <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Group formation, livestock insurance, subsidy
Poor	4.04	DLSO <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Seeds, livestock care, insurance fund, group formation, insurance, subsidy 	0.57	DADO <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Exhibition of vegetable package, micronutrient exhibition, crop protection emergency service, exhibition on how to produce more fish, nursery exhibition, grant to establish private fishery

Source: DADO and DLSO annual budgets, Morang and Kavre, 2008-2009.

CLDP and PACT come under this, but each project has its own M&E framework (Annex 2.1). CADP baseline surveys and indicators are clearly defined, and these do have a GESI perspective to a certain extent.¹¹² CLDP has undertaken poverty and social mapping to identify disadvantaged communities and intensive livestock development areas according to established criteria. In CADP, disaggregated data on social and ethnic characteristics are missing; while in CLDP the data are available in terms of farmer groups and staff are trained according to gender-disaggregated data software installed in 22 ILP districts. CLDP indicators also focus on participation of women and disadvantaged groups and their leadership capability, including decision making. A lack of relevant data on marketing, trade and value chains has impacted negatively on agricultural commercialization (CADP 2003) and, until 2007, baseline surveys, poverty analysis for community profiling, and joint poverty monitoring and impact evaluation were not conducted (CADP 2007). PACT's M&E has set indicators for economic and social assessment, and a separate framework for development of Adivasi Janajatis; but it has treated farmers as a homogeneous group, and has not disaggregated the indicators. APPSP monitoring framework was based on livelihood and social inclusion monitoring, but the social and geographical audit (APPSP 2005) contained almost no monitoring of field activities, mainly due to unwillingness of the concerned members—because of the conflict situation and their lack of concern about documenting the inclusion outreach of the project.

MOAC monitoring and reporting. The annual report of MOAC provides almost no facts/analysis of changes that have been brought about due to interventions in the sector, or what did and did not work. These limitations restrict use by MOAC of monitoring and reporting as mechanisms for further improvement.

Good practices and lessons learned. There have

been efforts by different actors in the sector to recognize and respond to issues of exclusion. The following section discusses some of the practices that have been effective to address the structural barriers limiting access to agricultural services for women, the poor and the excluded, and the lessons that can be drawn from these efforts.

2.6.1 Good practices

Good practices are divided into practices aimed at improving the delivery of agriculture services (supply side) and those that seek to increase the ability of farmers (of all social groups) to influence the type of services they receive and gain effective access to them (demand side). (See Section 2.3 for examples on which these practices and lessons are based.)

Supply side

Policy directives for representation/participation. Setting quotas for women's representation in farmer groups and training opportunities has ensured their participation in agricultural activities and access to agricultural inputs (e.g., seeds). This should be continued. Still, further efforts are needed to reach socially excluded groups and promote their representation in key decision-making positions in farmer groups.

Supportive infrastructure. Bridges, feeder roads, midtrails, ropeways and dedicated cellphones for information are innovative and affordable ways to provide farmers in remote areas with better access to markets. This kind of infrastructure appears to benefit all residents in remote areas,¹¹³ regardless of their economic status or social identity (e.g., the work of SAPPROS, CEAPRED and Practical Action).

Farmer-to-farmer extension approach. Training and building the capacity of local farmers to become experienced leader farmers has provided farmers with access to technical advice and been recognized as a cost-effective extension approach

to reach female, poor and excluded farmers in remote areas (e.g., by SSMP).

The *pocket package approach* of APP, which is the guiding approach for many programs (CLDP, agriculture extension), identifies specific areas as poverty-affected through district-based poverty and social mapping. Based on the demand of women and farmer groups, farmers in these “pockets” are provided with livestock investment (goats and pigs, grass seed, technology and other input support). Evidence from a sample of 28 farmer groups suggests that the groups in general are inclusive, that they decide who should get what support from the government agency, and that recipients include the poor.

Microcredit/finance services. The inclusion of a finance service component in many rural development programs has allowed women, the poor and the excluded to access credit, thereby increasing livelihood options. Group funds, cooperatives and local savings and credit mechanisms linked with financial institutions have created feasible service mechanisms in rural areas. Groups (which have increasingly become more inclusive, as shown previously) are thus in increased control of their savings and credit activities and banks have increased access to rural areas through various means (e.g., via mobile banking).¹¹⁴ Most programs now have components for such services.

Low-cost and appropriate technology. Adoption of micro-irrigation has helped farmers, especially small-scale farmers, to increase their productivity—for instance, a multiple-use system of integrating water supply and irrigation to meet various water-use demands, and provision of drip and sprinkler irrigation to households. Appropriate technology for women increases food productivity and access to economic opportunities and saves time (e.g., CEAPRED, SAPPROS).

Contract and cooperative farming. Formal and

legal agreements for contract or cooperative farming have demonstrated that they can increase productivity of farmers who are landless or have insufficient land of their own for agriculture. The agreement works both ways, with funders supplying inputs and technical advice, while producers supply a specific commodity. For women, the poor and the excluded, this arrangement can work very well given the investment in capacity building and a guaranteed market.

Leasehold farming. To address the lack of land for many of the rural poor, leasehold (and riverbed) farming has been an effective approach to improve access for the poor and the landless. Land is provided through leaseholds to farmer groups, along with training and supply of seeds, fertilizers, and micro-irrigation kits. This has allowed them to improve their livelihood security.

Gender-friendly training provision. Provision of childcare facilities to women participants by CLDP and Practical Action has increased the participation of women in training programs. This kind of innovative provision gives gender-specific support to women.

Demand side

Empowerment. The formation of groups for women and the excluded has provided them with access to agricultural inputs and micro-finance services. In addition, their increased income, training opportunities and improved awareness have contributed to wider impact at the local level for women and the excluded. As a result of their engagement in groups, cooperatives and income-generating initiatives, they have increased skills, more decision-making power and increased social status.

2.6.2 Lessons learned

Increased representation does not automatically lead to increased voice. Although there has been significant representation of women in farmer

groups, they still do not have sufficient voice within them. Most training and workshops do attract significant number of women, Dalits and Janajatis, fulfilling the diversity criteria, but they are usually “backbenchers”, rarely active in decision-making.¹¹⁵ Capacity building and advocacy for shifts in discriminatory practices are necessary for real change. Particularly effective are REFLECT-type processes that invest in building capacity among both advantaged and disadvantaged groups to recognize and analyze the issue of exclusion in its multiple forms and take collective action for improvement.

Need for local service providers. Lack of service providers affects access to services, especially for those who cannot afford to get services from other sources. Thus, efforts to prepare local resource persons, facilitators and other technical service providers have proven very effective in addressing the limited capacity and numbers of DADO personnel. Local service providers are more accountable to local communities than are government-appointed JTAs and local experts can provide a number of services. For example, Practical Action hires local private seed agents to reach communities with seeds and fertilizers and trains locals to create local resource persons and service providers.

Incomplete decentralization. The agricultural system is decentralized, but funds, functions and functionaries have not been devolved. The local bodies (district development committees [DDCs], municipalities and village development committees [VDCs]) have the resources and mandates for agricultural development, but the agriculture and livestock offices depend on the central level to receive funds. Technical capacity exists, but there are insufficient financial and human resources at the district level to address exclusion and barriers. In addition, demands coming from the VDC planning process do not get adequate attention during DADOs’ annual planning.

Addressing diverse and specific needs and interests. Project design and implementation need to recognize that abilities, interests and needs may vary, based on gender/caste/ethnicity/location realities, and thus require flexibility in responses. Where programs have adapted such strategies (e.g., subsidies, employment opportunities and land-lease arrangements for the poor), specific groups have benefited.¹¹⁶ Thus, social interventions are necessary, e.g., information in literacy classes, campaigns for “water for Dalits”, and improved technology for “women’s” tasks, including technology services and training. These interventions need to be mainstreamed within a universal program to address barriers constraining women, the poor and the excluded, contributing to wider objectives rather than being isolated events.

Access to financial resources needs to be combined with planning, business skills, capacity building and access to markets. Just providing credit is insufficient to make any substantive change as the ability of the excluded to use resources well is often limited. Additionally, since women, Dalits and members of other excluded groups tend to have lower education levels and less experience in dealing with bureaucracies of various types, special assistance might be needed to help them deal with the complicated processes involved in gaining access to financial services.

Social mobilization is key to targeting and reaching women, the poor and the excluded effectively and to building their capacity. The facilitation process has to be transformational so that the groups are empowered to recognize and address the structural issues constraining their progress. Focusing primarily on economic aspects and service delivery will not contribute to empowering citizens nor will it make service providers more accountable. All SAPPROS projects, for instance, include six-month literacy

classes for those who fall below the poverty line, which include discussions on rights.¹¹⁷

Working with NGOs/CBOs. NGOs and CBOs are well placed in many cases to mainstream GESI issues in the sector. Project implementation and service delivery need to be shared with NGOs/CBOs as the government has neither the capacity nor the local reach to mainstream GESI effectively.

Women, the poor and the excluded can miss benefits from commercialization of agriculture unless specific measures are in place. The many constraints facing these groups make it difficult to participate in business enterprises at a scale necessary for commercialization. Multipronged interventions are necessary: e.g., women and the excluded need to be mobilized so that they can participate in groups/cooperatives, their risk-taking ability and bargaining power have to be increased, and the cooperatives themselves need to be made more sensitive to gender and inclusion. Such interventions need to be integrated in the technical services delivered.

Subsidies need to be redesigned. Efforts to subsidize private goods for the poor and the excluded are usually ineffective as it is the better-off who primarily benefit from them. According to practitioners, it is better to provide subsidies for public infrastructure that can support a business development approach/value chain than the present practice of providing subsidies that can be captured by the informed and not reach the most excluded.

Integrated approach for the empowerment of women and disadvantaged groups. Integrated development activities have demonstrated a quick positive impact on women and disadvantaged groups in terms of poverty alleviation in some CLDP sites. For this, it is crucial to empower all groups to negotiate with concerned agencies/organizations and tap their services and resources based on their needs.

Capacity enhancement on gender and development for DOA, including DLS staff. DOA and DLS staff, particularly gender focal points and field staff, need to be highly trained and sensitized to effectively undertake gender-responsive participatory needs assessment, planning, implementation and monitoring.

2.7 Mainstreaming Gender Equality and Social Inclusion in the Agriculture Sector: The Way Forward

The measures for mainstreaming GESI in the sector are discussed along our three-stage framework of identification, design and implementation, and monitoring. This section will discuss ways in which GESI is to be mainstreamed and operationalized.

2.7.1 Step 1: Identifying barriers

Analyze existing power relations and the formal and informal institutions that enforce and perpetuate social and economic inequalities. Gender inequality and social exclusion in the agriculture sector are linked to the wider socio-cultural and politico-economic context. First, identify the key socio-economic constraints and harmful social and cultural practices that limit access to agriculture for women, the poor and the socially excluded. Often, the “barriers” we need to remove or work around are part of interconnected formal and informal institutions that structure Nepali society, which allocate privileges and obligations in accordance with different roles or ascribed characteristics. Our projects/programs work with these systems and try to improve them so that they can deliver agriculture services more effectively. We are all aware that changing any of these “rules” upsets some stakeholders, and that is why we always need to be aware of the “political economy” of our projects. It is here that we also have to think about the more “informal” institutions which are

deeply embedded in values, beliefs and norms, and can likewise block needed change. Some of these—like the gender system or caste hierarchy—are so deeply ingrained that people often follow them without even being aware that they are doing so.

The GESI framework is really just another such system to increase the chances that the changes we want to bring in order to increase access can actually happen on the ground. But GESI work is different in that it requires us to look at both formal and informal systems. So, when we try to “identify barriers”, we are actually uncovering whole systems that keep some individuals and groups from getting equal access to the universal services and benefits the project/program we are supporting is intended to deliver. To identify barriers, we need to look at two areas: first, how the formal project systems are likely to work for different groups of people. This will bring us to the second layer: to see how the informal systems may be distorting the way the formal systems work for some individuals and groups.

Assess GESI in existing policy, programs, budgeting and M&E. It is important to assess the existing policy mandates that provide the space to work on GESI issues and identify the gaps. The broad review of existing programs of MOAC and other actors presented in this chapter is a beginning. But much more in-depth work is necessary during project design to identify the specific barriers that different groups might face in accessing project benefits. Budget review is required to identify, from a GESI perspective, the resources allocated for positive policy and programmatic provisions, and identify needs for improvement. It is important to assess whether the M&E system is collecting disaggregated data that will capture changes—or lack of change—on issues that are crucial to increasing access for women, the poor and the excluded.

2.7.2 Design and implementation

GESI mainstreaming requires that any plan must consciously recognize and address the issues experienced by women, the poor and the excluded, and build on existing strengths. This has to be done at each stage of the project cycle (see Chapter 3 for some generic steps for GESI mainstreaming). Some of the areas identified for the agriculture and livestock sector where GESI issues were being addressed or need to be addressed are discussed below. These are not recommendations for general improvement in the sector, but focus more on how GESI issues can be better addressed.

2.7.3 Policy and program level

Production resources and inputs. Land is such an essential factor for agriculture that an overall land reform and management package is one of the key elements for the transformation of the agrarian system. Land reform, being very political, is complex and challenging. Alternative models, like cooperative and contract farming, could be used more widely with systems to ensure that women, the poor and the excluded benefit. In Rupandehi, Practical Action leased land to landless Dalits and provided extension services. Within a year, potato production increased while prices came down. Dalits had a continuous source of income as well as increased access to and influence on the potato market. For gender equality, it is important to support the property rights of women in the long term; but some projects have also successfully focused on getting women immediate access, by making arrangements with local governments for wasteland to be used by women's groups—some such arrangements have resulted in groups earning up to Rs 100,000 per year.¹¹⁸

Seed, fertilizer and subsidy policies. For women, the poor and the excluded, it is necessary that policies recognize their existing realities, their level of access to different resources, and their

Table 2.4: Gender Equality and Social Inclusion Aspects of Agriculture-related Policies

Policy area	GESI assessment areas (some examples)
Input policies: (e.g., seeds, fertilizer)	What are the barriers for women, the poor and the excluded in accessing the inputs? What are their purchasing-power constraints? Who (which women, which men of which social groups, age, location) needs to be trained in the use of the input under consideration? What is the existing role division, and who has the decision-making power regarding the inputs? How are import/export policies affecting supply, and how can women, the poor and the excluded access scarce inputs?
Marketing policies	What are the implications of the existing marketing policies of different inputs: seeds, fertilizer, pesticide, etc? Who has access to information about them? Who has access to the products?
Credit policies	Who is getting what kind of credit for what amounts? What rules are constraining women, the poor and the excluded from accessing credit? What is required to move women, the poor and the excluded from a narrow range of activities with insufficient resources for investment, which makes them susceptible to climatic/environmental risks, price/market fluctuations and epidemics of pests/disease? How can they be moved from the bottom of the hierarchy in local and global value chains, and be protected from fluctuations in employment/income caused by economic/environmental factors?
Technology-related policies	Who benefits from different types of technology/mechanization policies? Whose workload is getting reduced, whose is increasing, who is in control, and whose control is being lost?
Research policy	What is the impact of export crops and major grains on the subsistence crops cultivated by women, the poor and the excluded? What is the implication of the new systems/varieties developed for existing labor? What are the problems farmers, both men and women of different social groups, find most troublesome, and what are the gender and inclusion effects of new technologies? Research the impacts of financial instruments on women, the poor and the excluded; and promote/strengthen research of gender/inclusion-disaggregated data on access to services across the sector, with causes and potential solutions, for any gender and inclusion difference identified.
Policy formulation/development	How is policy being formulated? Who is participating? How are women, the poor and the excluded informing policies of the sector? Are representatives of women and the excluded participating in and influencing policy development? Are policies being informed by disaggregated data?

Source: Prepared by study team using information from IFAD (2009).

ability to bargain or negotiate to benefit from any policy measure. Using the five policy focus areas discussed in Section 2.3, we suggest parameters to assess GESI issues of policies (Table 2.4).

Extension services and technology. Extension services need to be decentralized, farmer centered and market driven¹¹⁹ to be useful for all. Initiatives such as farmer-to-farmer schools, ELFs and NGOs providing extension services have worked well in reaching such groups. Well-trained local service providers from backgrounds reflecting the diversity of the local population are essential, while JTAs and JTs need to be trained in the social aspects of their responsibilities, and given career-related incentives to practice what they have learned. Sufficient human resources are also needed, with practitioners suggesting “one VDC, one technician” in the hills and “two VDCs, one technician” for the Tarai (where transportation is easier). Educational behavior change,

designed to empower clients, needs to be inbuilt in such services. Extension support needs to be given directly to rural women in their multiple roles as farmers, environmental custodians and household managers. Technological innovations, too, need to be developed with inputs from all potential users—no matter what their sex or social identity. An assessment is required of how existing technologies are being used (or not) by different farmers; technology development by agencies/divisions mandated for such work (e.g., Nepal Agricultural Research Council) must be oriented on GESI issues, and their skills enhanced to apply such perspectives in their work.

Commercialization of agriculture. Bringing women, the poor and the excluded into markets requires targeted analysis and interventions, for which a GESI analysis helps to uncover asymmetric relationships. Farms managed by the poor and the excluded are generally poorly mechanized and thus of low productivity, making it more dif-

difficult to meet the requirements for commercial agriculture. Unless value chains are developed, keeping these excluded groups in mind, advantages of chain development will remain limited to larger farmers; small-scale farmers could even lose their current enterprises. CADP and PACT have highlighted the possibilities of higher-value commodities, which can bring in substantial income and have great potential for export. But they need to ensure that processes are established that will allow these groups to access resources and gain benefits from commercial agriculture: for instance, working through women- and excluded-led cooperatives.

Infrastructure. Ropeways, mid-trails, post-harvest storage, transportation tracks/roads, market sheds, improvement of wholesale markets, etc., are necessary to ease access of women and the excluded. In India, for instance, improvements in basic facilities such as toilets and drinking water enabled market participation by women traders to increase by 18%.¹²⁰

Livestock. Collateral-free loans and insurance for animals are key for women, the poor and the excluded to upscale from livestock-related businesses. It is important that excluded groups have decision-making authority over the purchase of the animals they are to rear and manage. The possible negative implications of livestock management, with the workload falling more heavily on women and girls, also need to be considered and addressed in the design of such programs.

*Harmonization between programs in working approaches to minimize social transaction cost.*¹²¹ Formation of multiple groups by different projects/programs and varied requirements and working approaches adopted by different actors increase the workload of women, the poor and the excluded, who have limited time and resources to spend in attending group meetings. The need to belong to multiple groups also constrains their capacity to participate in develop-

ment processes or influence decisions in these groups. Giving VDCs some sort of coordinating role to control duplication and ensuring that the neediest receive agricultural services could help address this issue. This demands a disaggregated database and information about the current situation of women, the poor and the excluded and their access to services in VDCs.

Increase the participation of women in livestock processing and marketing. Special attention has to be paid to integrating women into the livestock processing and marketing sector, considering the extremely limited participation of women under CLDP and DLS.

2.7.4 Institutional aspects

Strengthening GEED. Lack of authority and resources has marginalized GEED, which needs to have specific links with the planning and monitoring functions of the ministry. Based on discussions with the ministry, steps to address the causes of GEED's ineffectiveness, by strengthening the division and allocating sufficient resources, are essential if it is to play a meaningful role. A first step must be to rename the division to reflect social inclusion responsibilities and establish a mechanism to insure that the unit has the resources and authority to work effectively.

Increasing diversity of technical personnel. To increase diversity, alternative human resource models are required. Emphasis is needed on new channels for recruitment and investment to build the capacity and technical competence of women and people from excluded groups (particularly in preparing for exams). While more women are taking up agriculture studies, there are still very few students from the excluded communities. Even for women, there are stereotypical fields of specialization while higher levels of education remain dominated by males from the traditionally advantaged groups. Specific

affirmative action policies, with scholarships and incentives, are needed to promote a more inclusive student profile, as only after technical education is completed can a more diverse civil service personnel profile emerge. Internships need to be promoted for women and people from excluded groups and local-level technical resource persons (like ELFs) from diverse backgrounds need to be prioritized.

Building skills and competence. A capacity-building plan for strengthening the capacity of existing staff in the sector to mainstream GESI in their routine work needs to be developed. This needs to be based on a process-oriented approach not an event-based one. Conceptual clarity, skills for GESI mainstreaming in regular work, reflection on the need for GESI sensitivity not only to promote social justice but also to increase overall production efficiency of Nepal's agricultural economy, and an understanding of tools and mechanisms for mainstreaming GESI need to be incorporated into such efforts. CLDP has developed gender training manuals, which need to be reviewed and updated to incorporate social inclusion issues (if required) and implemented. Additionally, people dealing with technical issues such as seeds, fertilizers, food security, pesticides, credit and finance, etc, need to be taught how to mainstream gender and inclusion in their responsibilities.

Specific responsibilities in job descriptions. It is essential that job descriptions and terms of reference of staff and structures/division/departments be written with clear steps for routinely addressing inclusion. The social implications (where relevant) of technical tasks have to be identified and integrated into the job responsibilities. This has to be done by the Ministry of General Administration for government officials but projects/programs and other bodies can easily apply it to their work too.

GESI in staff performance evaluation. This is

more valid for projects/programs than for the government as its performance evaluation system is hardly functional. But projects/programs and agencies can incorporate indicators to reward the efforts made by staff to address GESI issues.

2.7.5 Gender-responsive budget and gender equality and social inclusion budgeting

GESI budgeting can identify the kinds of activities for which funds are budgeted and spent. It can reveal the commonplace gap between program rhetoric on gender equality and inclusion and the actual resources needed to deliver on the rhetoric. The government budgeting criteria and process require revision to be more effective. As noted previously, GESI budgeting must be done simultaneously with program development rather than as a post-allocation exercise as is currently the practice. For gender-responsive budgeting, the sub-indicators for agriculture and livestock are presented in Annex 2.2. For GESI budgeting, it is important to develop a set of guidelines clarifying how to categorize activities and budget amounts, building on inclusive development and targeted programs as well as pro-poor budgeting practices. All these need to be brought together and organized to provide information about what is directly supportive, indirectly supportive and neutral in the programs. Terminology, too, needs to be clear and common across the sectoral ministries.

2.7.6 Monitoring and reporting

The planning and design system guides proper monitoring, evaluation and reporting systems, and hence caste/ethnicity and sex disaggregation has to be consistently applied across all indicators, and information monitored accordingly. Indicators need to capture disaggregated information that can reveal whether or not the intended changes are taking place in access to benefits by women, the poor and the excluded. Monitoring

formats, information collection and analysis processes, and management of sector information systems need to be revised so that disaggregated information can be routinely collected, maintained and used to inform decision makers. Work with the National Planning Commission to change the planning and M&E formats and system is necessary. Good governance, accountability and transparency is maintained through social audit, citizen charter and community-appointed watch groups—but only if these mechanisms are truly independent of government or the implementing agency. M&E indicators need to be both social and technical and a mechanism to collect quantitative and qualitative information needs to be built in at all levels to allow assessments from a GESI perspective. Future research and assessment studies must integrate GESI aspects in their terms of reference and have expertise in the team. Indicators selected for reporting must demand evidence regarding changes in agricultural outcomes disaggregated.

2.8 Conclusion

Agriculture remains the most important source of livelihood for the rural poor in Nepal. The government recognizes that inclusive agricultural growth and livestock productivity has the potential to have a wide impact on poverty reduction and has made several improvements in the sector (i.e., developed liberal policies and improved rural connectivity) to achieve this. National and international policy mandates and sector programs have created a positive environment for gender but a substantive policy and program mandate for addressing key structural issues of

inequitable access to productive assets and services, and ensuring that formal practices and rules are changed to address these, is still lacking. For other excluded groups much less has been done, but the government has now acknowledged the historical exclusion of Dalits, Janajatis, Muslims and Madhesis—and their responsibility to correct it. They have also recognized that simply changing policies on paper is not enough. The government now also needs to put in place a system of incentives and disincentives to influence informal practices to become more gender and inclusion sensitive.

Organizational issues of limited human resources, staff diversity, GESI capacity and sensitivity, inadequate budgets, and lack of an effective monitoring mechanism are also barriers to GESI mainstreaming in the sector. There is an assumption that policy mandates will ensure that services will reach the excluded though this clearly requires a good understanding of the barriers they face and practical, adequately budgeted plans to address them. There are several initiatives being implemented in the sector that have successfully demonstrated the ability to reach these excluded groups. These need to be supported and scaled up. GESI mainstreaming in the agricultural sector requires that both demand- and supply-side barriers be identified and addressed through activities that are adequately funded. It also requires that inputs, outputs and outcomes be routinely monitored with data that are disaggregated by gender and social group. Policy directives for this, along with mechanisms/tools and organizational and human capacity, are all essential for effective GESI mainstreaming.

Notes

- 1 Across income quintiles, 35% of rural households are in the lowest, compared to only 10% of urban households. Across social groups, Dalits have a poverty incidence of 46%, Hill Janajatis 44%, Tarai Janajatis 35%, and Muslims 41%, compared to Newars at 14%, Brahmin/Chhetri 18%, and the national average of 31% (CBS 2005).
- 2 See CBS (2005) for 1995-2004.
- 3 “Excluded groups” in the agriculture sector refer to women and poor farmers (inclusive of small farmers and tenant farmers, subsistence farmers, and lease-land/group farmers) and socially excluded caste/ethnic groups (including those living in remote areas). Source: Government of Nepal documents and consultations with key stakeholders.
- 4 This chapter understands the “agricultural sector” to cover the main subsectors of horticulture, crop production and livestock.
- 5 The total land area is 14.3 million hectares, of which 28.7% is suitable for agricultural production. Source: FAOSATS, extracted from Shrestha and Wulff (2007).
- 6 Wiley et al (2009) cautiously argue that the positive response to the waiver may have less to do with gender equity than families taking advantage of a new route to conceal landholding sizes. Despite that reality, it is still a step forward and provides women with some power to negotiate.
- 7 The figures in the Three-Year Interim Plan are 25% for Tarai Dalits and 46% for Hill Dalits.
- 8 Traditional practices of untouchability and caste discrimination prevent Dalits from engaging in and benefiting from certain agricultural activities (e.g., milk production, as non-Dalits may not buy milk from Dalits). Additionally they face constraints in traditional labor-exchange practices (like *parma*) in certain areas because members of these groups must feed each other snacks on the day the group works on their fields, and non-Dalits will often not take food from a Dalit. Thus, they cannot participate in this form of non-market exchange.
- 9 DFID and World Bank NLSS II 2005, based on Census 2001. Taken from Wiley et al (2009).
- 10 Some major laws are the Land Ownership and Registration Act, Nationalization of Private Forest Act, Local Self-Governance Act, Land Related Act, Nationalization of Pastures Act, Land Taxation Act, Forestry Act, Protection of Water Animals Act, National Park and Wildlife Protection Act, HM King Mahendra Nature Preservation Act, Plant Protection Act, Land and Water Resource Protection Act, Water Resources Act, Mine and Mineral Products Act, and Guthi Corporation Act.
- 11 Indigenous peoples who are most negatively affected are fisherfolk, gatherers and swidden cultivators.
- 12 The main spirit of ILO 169 is that natural resource-dependent people lived in forests before the formation of the modern state. Thus, they must have prior rights over natural resources. ILO 169 states that any issue affecting indigenous peoples can only be addressed with their full consultation and participation in decision making at policy and implementation levels. This should be done through a process of genuine dialogue, enabling indigenous people to voice their concerns and be fully involved in any policy measures affecting them. Consultation and participation are the main foundation on which the entire Convention rests.
- 13 Gurung (2000), quoted in Upadhyay and Bhattarai (2004).
- 14 Referring to surface irrigation (i.e., canal irrigation in the hills) and groundwater irrigation (i.e., deep or shallow tubewells in the Tarai).
- 15 Commonly called micro-irrigation, this refers to drip irrigation and treadle pumps (generally used at household level).
- 16 Consultation meeting, Sectoral Chapter Development, World Bank, February 2010.
- 17 Refer to No 5 in this series for more details.
- 18 Refers to the organizing of farmers, dissemination of technical advice, transfer of new technology, and provision of agricultural input (i.e., seeds, fertilizer, micro-irrigation kits, etc) to individual farmers and farmer groups.
- 19 Although disaggregated data on all JTAs is not available, some examples from the Sustainable Soil Management Program districts are illustrative: in Okhaldunga all 14 JTAs are men, as are the other eight officers; in Dadeldhura, of 14 JTAs, one is a woman. The need to address the low representation of female extension agents is reflected in recent policy initiatives. For example, the recent Department of Livestock Services gender strategy (2009) recognizes the need for affirmative action in its personnel policies.
- 20 Consultation with Practical Action, 2010.
- 21 Consultation notes, February 2010.
- 22 Under the farmer group approach, farmers are organized into groups of men, women and mixed types separately for agriculture and livestock purposes. The respective offices of agriculture or livestock extension services carry out activities and provide subsidies and other support only through these farmer groups. Farmers’ field schools are one approach to disseminate know-how and train farmers in the groups on new technology, processes or methods of farming.
- 23 Farmer groups are supported by the Multidisciplinary Institute for Livelihood Enhancement and Natural Resource Management.

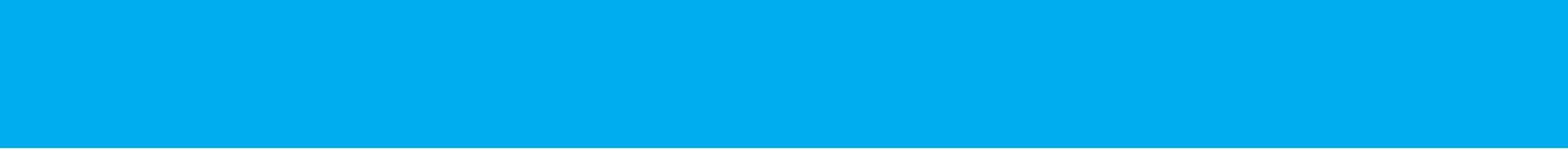
- 24 Association of Community Radio Broadcasters (ACORAB) reports, 2010.
- 25 Improving seed security through the expansion of seed multiplication farms in the public, private and cooperative sectors in Nepal is included in the terms of reference of the Economic Policy Network II, Government of Nepal, 2009.
- 26 Only rich farmers are involved in seed transactions. Within this class, the decision about the amount of seed to be sown is made by men (and to some extent, women), whereas decisions about where to sell the seed and the price are more influenced by men. Men across all wealth categories and ethnic groups are more involved than women in seed selection activities. Source: IDRC, SAGE and CRI (2006).
- 27 The Agriculture Perspective Plan (APP) states that fertilizer use could contribute to about 70% of incremental growth in crop output.
- 28 Following the implementation of APP, the government has progressively reduced subsidies on fertilizers and deregulated the sector since 1997-1998; subsidy was completely eliminated in 1999-2000.
- 29 See NARMA (2006) for a discussion on this issue.
- 30 'Lagat sahabhagita ko aadharma rasayanik malma sahayog upalabdha garaune sambandhi prastab'. A policy paper on providing chemical fertilizer at subsidized rate on a cost-sharing basis that was endorsed by the Government of Nepal on 25 March, 2009.
- 31 See Jha et al (2009), which found that the extreme poor are rarely members of any community-based group.
- 32 There are several policy statements that promote organic farming. These include the Agriculture Policy (2004); the Agribusiness Policy (2006), which promotes organic/pesticide-free production areas; and the Three-Year Interim Plan, which emphasizes developing and disseminating eco-friendly technologies, indigenous knowledge and skills, and protecting farmers' rights on such knowledge systems. However, a clear strategy on policy implementation is yet to be established.
- 33 The International Federation of Organic Farming Movements reported in 2006 that the number of organic farms in Nepal was 1,247, and the area under organic management was 1,000 ha. If the area under traditional farming, where farmers never use fertilizers and pesticides, is considered, the area under organic farming would be much higher (Pokhrel and Pant 2009).
- 34 Some initiatives have been taken by government bodies (such as the Department of Agriculture, NAST, Nepal Agricultural Research Council, Institute of Agriculture and Animal Science, Tea and Coffee Development Board, and Kathmandu Metropolitan City), nongovernment organizations (such as CEAPRED, SAPPROS, Sustainable Soil Management Program, Winrock International, and Nepal Permaculture Group), and community-based organizations to promote organic farming in the country.
- 35 In 1975, the Agriculture Development Bank of Nepal launched the Small Farmers Development Project, with the idea of group guarantee as collateral for microlending. In addition, four major types of microfinance institutions (MFIs), namely, savings and credit cooperatives, financial intermediary NGOs, microfinance development banks, and large numbers of savings and credit groups are active in the Nepali microfinance sector (Center for Microfinance 2007).
- 36 This figure represents approximately 8% of the population and approximately 26% of the people living below the poverty line (Microfinance Summit Nepal 2010, microfinancesummitnepal.org).
- 37 A total of 2,048,742 of the rural population have access to microfinance services in Nepal, of whom 1,233,058 are women, representing 9.73% of all Nepali women; women-led MFIs are approximately 500 savings and credit cooperatives, but women of Dalit and excluded groups generally have no access to governance of the MFIs. In 2004, only 1.7% of total outstanding credit from banks and financial institutions was against women borrowers. See Acharya (2000), quoted in UNFPA (2007).
- 38 Although women have been granted legal right to land ownership, effective implementation remains challenging.
- 39 Participation of women in farmer groups had reached 30% by 2006 (UNFPA 2007) and 30-40% in training programs; live-stock training was even higher, at 57%.
- 40 This review by the study team was an effort to gather information regarding diversity in groups, as no disaggregated information was available. Of the 28 groups covered, 10 each were from Rautahat and Gulmi districts, and 8 from Kailali district. There were 15 female groups, 3 male groups and 10 mixed groups. In terms of caste and ethnicity, there were five Madhesi groups, four Janajati groups, one Dalit group and four Brahmin and Chhetri groups. Fieldwork, February 2010.
- 41 There was a lack of representation from three groups (Madhesi Dalit, Madhesi Brahmin/Kshatriya men, and Muslims). This could be because of the sample selected, though a more thorough membership mapping is required to draw any strong conclusions.
- 42 Key positions refer to chairperson, vice-chair, secretary and treasurer; 23 groups out of 28 (82%) had a female vice-chair.
- 43 These include, for example, training support in group management, seed production, vegetable cultivation and mini-kits; group provision of sprayers, weighing machines and chaffers; and exposure visits for beehives, treadle pumps, nurseries and

- vegetable-selling carts, which were provided to both women and men of different social groups.
- 44 Discussion with district livestock offices, Morang and Kavre, March-April 2010.
- 45 Consultation with the National Cooperative Federation of Nepal, 2010.
- 46 Consultation meeting with SAPPROS, 2010.
- 47 The Project for Agriculture Commercialization and Trade (PACT), recently funded by the World Bank, will aim to address these barriers.
- 48 For more information on ropeways, see www.practicalaction.org/nepal.
- 49 See www.practicalaction.org/nepal.
- 50 As per NLFS (2008), on the domestic front 11,777,900 people are employed in Nepal, indicating an employment population ratio of 81.7%, lower than the 84.3% in 1998-1999. They include 5,519,000 males and 6,259,000 females.
- 51 On average, fully employed people are paid Rs 5,117 per month. Women are paid Rs 3,402, while men are paid Rs 5,721 per month (CBS 2009).
- 52 A study in 2002 by the Nepal Rastra Bank on the impact of remittances was undertaken in 10 districts across the country, with a total of 160 households. The study found that the remittance income was invested mainly for household purposes: purchase of land, purchase and maintenance of new houses, paying off loans, depositing cash in bank, and finally investments for business purposes. Some returnee migrants have also invested their savings in business ventures. For example, some hotels and industries in operation in the Pokhara Valley have been made possible as a result of remittance income. Sharma and Gurung (2009:12).
- 53 CEAPRED consultation, 2010.
- 54 Consultation notes, February 2010.
- 55 An example is Aaya Aarjan Mahila Samuha in Latikoili VDC, Ward No 7 (SSMP 2006), wherein a group of 10 Dalit women are selling vegetables door-to-door in Birendranagar and nearby villages, earning some Rs 150-200 per day.
- 56 Consultation with CEAPRED, 2010, about its sustainable livelihood improvement project.
- 57 A limitation in this section has been the lack of assessment and evaluation studies in the sector. We have experienced a lack of in-depth analysis of actual implementation, and very limited information with disaggregation.
- 58 Progress review and action plan of the Economic Policy Network; Ministry of Finance/ADB TA 39604—NEP; interim report, September 2009.
- 59 The Sixth Plan (1980-1985) to the Ninth Plan included participation of women in training, access to technology extension services, loans and farmer group formation. It was only in the Tenth Plan that social inclusion was recognized as a pillar.
- 60 With the Tenth Plan (2002-2007), the focus was on gender mainstreaming through capacity building and entrepreneurship in agriculture by ensuring 60% participation of women in agriculture and livestock enterprises, institutionalizing gender sensitization, and increasing women's leadership.
- 61 Inclusive provisions include agricultural low-interest credit, rural agriculture employment program, proportional representation in farmers' consultative committees, on-site training to encourage women's participation, institutionalizing gender focal points in government bodies, and a disaggregated information management system.
- 62 The National Seed Policy (1999) is very liberal and carries many statements to strengthen the private seed sector in Nepal. It has opened all sectors to develop crop varieties, multiply seeds of different classes, and be involved in the seed control process, in collaboration with the government sector. It has envisaged increasing the capacity of the private seed sector by training and providing special facilities regarding storage, tax exemptions and other matters. The Policy has focused particularly on seed production and distribution in the remote areas of Nepal. It emphasizes three main activities: strengthening the private sector in activities related to producing and selling seeds in remote areas; establishing farmer groups to conduct seed activities in these areas; and making available seed production technology and transport subsidy for source seeds from seed source centers to farmers' fields.
- 63 The Agriculture Policy includes provisions to increase access to land for target groups through contract farming, land banks, leasing public land, and transfer of marginalized land.
- 64 Provisions include setting quotas for women, increasing women entrepreneurs and commercial farmers, setting up grievance-hearing centers for women farmers, and coordinating with local bodies to mobilize funds for women farmer development. At the institutional level, the strategy focuses on developing gender focal points into a transparent and effective functioning organization, and developing the gender equality and environment section.
- 65 This phase of concept paper development provides an opportune time to address inequitable power relations that keep excluded groups from accessing resources and benefits.
- 66 Wiley et al (2009) argue that past experiences of reform policies (e.g., Abolition of Birta Land Act of 1957, Agriculture Act

- of 1960, and Fourth Amendment of Land Act, 1964) have been ineffective in providing access to land for the landless, poor farmers and smallholders, due to insufficient planning, shortfall in investment, and, most importantly, weak implementation and enforcement.
- 67 The Land Bank involves the government buying land from private landowners and selling it to the poor, to be paid for on an installment basis. It also provides financial institutional and grant agricultural loans to farmers for land improvement.
 - 68 Article 15 defines the right of Adivasi Janajatis on the use, management and conservation of their lands, and guarantees that they substantially benefit from development activities undertaken on those lands. Similarly, Article 14 directs the government to protect Adivasi Janajati rights to access lands they have traditionally been using for their subsistence. A pending national plan of action has been developed, demanding 17 ministries to allocate budgets for the development of Adivasi Janajatis.
 - 69 There is significant confusion about the ILO 169 provisions and what they mean for indigenous and non-indigenous peoples. Some Adivasi Janajati groups are against further discussion.
 - 70 Programs discussed in this chapter are under the Department of Agriculture (DOA) and Department of Livestock Services (DLS): specifically, the Community Livestock Development Program (CLDP/ADB), covering 43 districts; the Commercial Agriculture Development Program (CADP/ADB), covering 11 eastern districts; the Project for Agriculture Commercialization and Trade (PACT/WB), working in 25 districts, though implementation at field level is yet to start; and the Agriculture Perspective Plan Support Program (APPSP/DFID), now phased out, covering 20 districts. CADP and PACT are implemented by DOA, while CLDP is implemented by DLS. Examples from the Sustainable Soil Management Program, supported by the Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation, are used as illustrations.
 - 71 There are materials developed for the strategy implementation: training of trainers (TOT) manual on gender and development (GAD) for senior staff and DLS officers; gender planning training manual for stakeholders; and training manual on GAD for field staff and NGOs.
 - 72 The “pocket package” approach identifies pocket areas on the basis of poverty-affected communities in wards through district-based poverty and social mapping. Packages of livestock investment known to be in demand from women and disadvantaged groups are offered to communities in pockets, and they can choose according to their needs and circumstances.
 - 73 Interview with CLDP national gender consultant, 2010.
 - 74 The strategy included targeted programs, inclusiveness in commercialization programs, and building social capital of the poor and the excluded; designing flexible, realistic and location-specific rules of the game favorable to the poor and the excluded; and empowering cooperatives, farmer groups and local institutions to build voice, influence and agency of the poor and excluded (CLDP/APPSP 2007).
 - 75 CLDP has approximately 3,450 farmer and livestock groups (CLDP 2008).
 - 76 This happens because implementers perceive that it takes a longer time to make Dalits and other excluded groups understand the program; social inclusion is not a priority for implementers; and they lack the skills to motivate Dalits and other excluded groups to be involved in and benefit from the program.
 - 77 CAA members will “have engaged—with documentation and/or physical evidence to demonstrate such engagement—in for-profit operations within one or more qualifying value chains within the project area for at least two years”; “be already constituted as a legal entity, or otherwise officially licensed or registered as a productive or trading party”; “in the case of farmer cooperatives or groups, have at least 100 current and active members”; “in the case of farmer marketing cooperatives or groups, be able to demonstrate sales of agricultural products within qualifying value chains of not less than Rs 1,000,000 in at least one of the two years immediately preceding their joining the CAA”; “in the case of traders or processors and their associations, have, and provide for inspection, audited annual accounts for the two years immediately preceding their joining CAA as a member”; and “in the case of a trader or processor, be able to demonstrate sales of not less than Rs 1,000,000 within qualifying value chains from a main base located within the project area in the year immediately preceding their joining the CAA as a member”.
 - 78 Sulochana Shreshta, CLDP gender adviser, and CLDP (2009).
 - 79 The Poverty Alleviation Fund provides funds to its community organizations, and agriculture and livestock are common sectors for these organizations to invest in. So, 41,363 households and 291,444 households, respectively, have worked on agriculture and livestock-related income-generating activities as of 20 April 2010 (Poverty Alleviation Fund 2010).
 - 80 Subproject proposals that qualify for competitive value chain development grants will have one or both of two general characteristics: provide clear linkage through formal contracts between farmer organizations and agribusiness; and have some public good character that benefits many participants in a value chain. A matching contribution of 50% will be required of the agribusiness seeking financing under this facility.
 - 81 Leasehold farming is a concept where a group of landless farmers rent land from a landowner for a given period of time on a

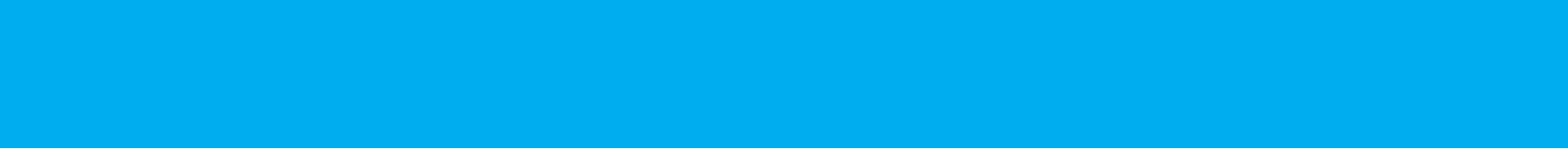
- mutually-agreed-upon annual rent. This can also be a household-to-household lease.
- 82 In one of CEAPRED's projects (SIMI), these were able to generate an incremental income of more than USD 180 per household per year, by adopting off-season vegetable production supported by micro-irrigation technology.
- 83 Consultation with CEAPRED, 2010.
- 84 See www.practicalaction.org/nepal for more detailed information on gravity ropeways.
- 85 The Eastern Development Region, CADP's project area, has more than 100 groups (castes, ethnic, and subethnic groups) and more than 28 languages are spoken in the region.
- 86 Solukhumbu, Sankhuwasabha, Okhaldhunga, Khotang and Bhojpur.
- 87 Namely "Goat to the Poor" and "Improved Pig Farming".
- 88 A 12% increase in buffalo cow numbers and 20% in cattle cow numbers.
- 89 ILP programs are run in 22 of the poorest, most remote districts.
- 90 FTF is an approach to identify, train and mobilize local farmers as resource persons in technology transfer. FTF extension activities have been carried out informally for generations but a more formal program concept based on traditional practices was developed particularly for remote areas where the services of government extension systems are weak.
- 91 CAA is responsible for the component on commercial agriculture investment and management.
- 92 Women's Development Officers are under the Ministry of Women, Children and Social Welfare and are present in all 75 districts where they are charged with looking after women's rights and livelihood issues as well as children's rights and welfare for the disabled and elderly. The District Review Committee reviews and selects proposals submitted by CAA members within the district.
- 93 Implementation of PACT activities at field level is yet to start. Proposals have been received and are still to be evaluated.
- 94 Consultation notes, CLDP, 2008.
- 95 MOAC divisions are planning, administration, monitoring and evaluation, agribusiness promotion and statistics, and gender equity and environment. The departments are agriculture, livestock services, cooperatives, and food technology and quality control.
- 96 GEED was formerly called the Women Farmers Development Division (WFDD), which was established in 1992 for addressing policy-related matters concerning women farmers. WFDD developed a five-year strategy plan (1994-1999) for promoting women's active participation in agricultural development. WFDD also played a major part in the incorporation of women farmers' role in input and output priorities of APP. Realizing the importance of cross-cutting issues such as adverse impacts of environmental degradation and climate change on agricultural production and increasing women's vulnerability, WFDD's strategy was revised and renamed GEED in May 2004.
- 97 Consultation with ministry staff, March 2010.
- 98 Records of civil servants maintained by Nijamati Kitabkhana (Department of Civil Personnel Records, Ministry of General Administration) were reviewed and disaggregated according to the surnames of government staff and their place of permanent residence. Refer to Chapter 1 for further details.
- 99 Admissions Department and director, March 2010.
- 100 The three prescribed categories are direct contribution, indirect contribution and neutral. Each subactivity is assigned a code of 1, 2 or 3, considering the percentage of contribution to women. The formula for coding has five indicators: capacity building of women, women's participation in planning process and implementation, women's share in benefit sharing, support for women's employment and income generation, and qualitative progress in the use of women's time and reducing women's workload, each valued at 20% (eAWPB 1.0 Operating Manual 2009). In order to measure these categories quantitatively, five qualitative indicators were assigned quantitative values of equal denominations totaling 100. Direct gender contribution indicates more than 50% of the allocation directly benefiting women, indirect gender contribution indicates 20-50% of the allocation benefiting women, and the neutral category indicates less than 20% of the allocation benefiting women. This is gradually being used by ministries like that of health but due to difficulties in the application of the criteria which do not seem relevant to all the sectors it has not been fully used by all the ministries. See Chapter 1 of this monograph for more discussion on this.
- 101 Indicators for pro-poor budget are investment in rural sector; income-generation program in rural areas; capacity enhancement in rural areas; budget allocated for social mobilization; expenditure focusing on poverty reduction; grants for local bodies; social security programs; and investment in social sector, especially for education, health, etc. See Annex 8c, budget speech, 2009-2010. But it is not clear how these are scored and what subindicators are used.
- 102 See Chapter 1 of this monograph for an explanation regarding the GESI budget analysis framework.
- 103 We are adapting from gender budget initiatives that have aimed to assess the impact of government expenditures and revenues

- using the three-way categorization of gender-specific expenditure, equal opportunity expenditure and general expenditure (the rest) considered in terms of its gendered impact (Budlender and Sharp 1998).
- 104 CLDP: Rs 180,340,000. Extension program Makwanpur: Rs 1,850,000. Extension program Dolakha: Rs 9,425,000. PACT: Rs 1,430,885,000, 2009-2010. Source: Project documents.
- 105 Implemented budget of districts was reviewed to assess actual expenditure and its effect on addressing the barriers facing women, the poor and the excluded. Program budgets were reviewed to assess allocations.
- 106 Morang and Kavre, selected to represent Hill and Tarai.
- 107 Universal and targeted free services program, maternity incentive scheme, etc.
- 108 The previous year's budget was reviewed to assess GESI sensitiveness of completed activities.
- 109 Morang: Rs 27,908,966.61; Kavre: Rs: 6,771,739; annual budget of DADO and DLSO FY 2065-2066, Morang and Kavrepalanchowk.
- 110 Directly supportive (i.e., targeted to provide direct support to women, the poor and the excluded); indirectly supportive (contributing to creating an enabling environment, supporting in any manner the access of women and the excluded to services, or addressing the structural difficulties confronting them); and neutral.
- 111 Staff of MOAC M&E Division expressed this view (September 2009).
- 112 For example, "5,000 landless undertaking skill-based training, and 1,000 obtaining jobs", "Social inclusive behaviour reflected in investments financed by the Commercial Agriculture Fund" (CADP); "Proportion of women and disadvantaged ethnic/castes in farmer groups increasing to at least 50% by end of project; 312 CLAs of which 271 (58%) women trained and mobilised. 847 DLS staff trained in social mobilisation including gender sensitisation; Gender, ethnicity and caste disaggregated M&E framework installed in all 22 ILP districts and all 3 regional offices; 8,782 farmer groups and 2,009 communities (64% women) formed" (CLDP).
- 113 SAPPROS and CEAPRED field examples, consultation, 2010.
- 114 Consultation with SAPPROS, March 2010.
- 115 Agriculture consultation, 2010.
- 116 For instance, many Janajati groups have access to land but lack access to knowledge on agriculture and water supply and sanitation/irrigation in a language they understand; Dalits face caste-based discrimination (e.g., in handling water) and have little or no land; and women are overburdened with drudgery work.
- 117 Consultation with SAPPROS, March 2010.
- 118 Personal communication with Lily Thapa, president, Women for Human Rights, Nepal, April 2010.
- 119 Swanson, quoted in IFAD (2009).
- 120 World Bank, quoted in IFAD (2009).
- 121 See Jha et al (2009) for a further discussion on this.



CHAPTER 3

Checklist for Mainstreaming Gender Equality and Social Inclusion



3.1 Introduction

The first chapter of this monograph presented the gender equality and social inclusion (GESI) mainstreaming framework, summarizing the key findings from the GESI review of the seven sectors with the steps required to move forward. Chapter 2 focused on how to make projects, programs and policies in the agricultural sector more accessible and useful for the poor and the socially excluded. This final chapter is presented mainly as a handy reference guide. It sets out the generic steps necessary for mainstreaming GESI in any sector with a few blank formats that practitioners may find useful in the course of their work. Of course, these need to be contextualized, made sector specific and refined to address the issues of different social groups. We follow the five steps of mainstreaming: 1) identifying; 2) design; 3) implementation; 4) monitoring and evaluation; and, when necessary, 5) responding to the monitoring and evaluation (M&E) findings by revisions in project design or policy framework. Some tools that can be used for the required analysis are also presented and discussed.

3.2 Organizational Prerequisites for Effective Gender Equality and Social Inclusion (GESI) Mainstreaming

Even though sector policies have often integrated gender and inclusion concerns, persistent gaps in implementation continue to hinder the achievement of equitable outcomes in different sectors. As discussed in Chapter 1, these gaps occur for multiple reasons, ranging from technical capacity to attitudes and beliefs of stakeholders. Mainstreaming GESI effectively requires some essential organizational prerequisites in the sectoral implementing institutions.

For instance, the senior management's personal commitment to and support for GESI is essential, as is clarity and understanding by staff at all levels on concepts of gender, empowerment and social

inclusion. A core group of selected staff must have analytical skills on gender and inclusion issues in order to provide technical support to others; time has to be created at all management levels to identify issues, design processes and implement activities; and resources need to be identified and consistently made available. A gender/empowerment/inclusion perspective needs to be integrated into all policies, activities and routine functions in the sector, with appropriate management structures in place, followed by M&E methods that are responsive to empowerment efforts/programs. Finally, strong outside technical support from local and external providers is also necessary.

3.3 Core Information Requirements for Gender Equality and Social Inclusion (GESI) Mainstreaming

- Key data should be disaggregated by sex, caste, ethnicity, class, location, age and any other relevant variable (e.g., disability or HIV/AIDs status, where required).
- Issues of division of labor, access to resources and decision-making power (who is doing what, who has access to what, who makes the ultimate decisions) have to be assessed for their differential impact on women and men of different social identity groups.
- Key policies, programming and budgeting; institutional arrangements; human resources issues; and M&E systems must be assessed from a GESI perspective by those designing the project/program or policy and then presented and discussed with stakeholders from the government, project staff, partner organizations and community groups.

3.4 Five Steps of Gender Equality and Social Inclusion (GESI) Mainstreaming: A Checklist

As discussed in Chapter 1, a five-step framework for GESI mainstreaming has been followed for

all sectoral assessments in this series. We present here the generic steps and some suggestions on how to implement them.

3.4.1 Step 1: Identification phase—Situation analysis

Objective. To identify the specific barriers of women, the poor and specific excluded groups in accessing services and opportunities, and the causes of their exclusion; and to understand the political economy of the sector or subsector, both nationally and locally, in the particular sites¹ where the project or program will be implemented. Identifying the excluded groups in a particular sector and understanding their situation involve using available qualitative and quantitative data to answer the question: “Who had access in the past to resources and decision-making, and how are different social groups doing at present?”

To understand the barriers these groups face in gaining access, it is necessary to look at and think through several levels. Table 3.1 shows the levels, what to do and some suggestions on how to do it.

We can thus assess barriers constraining each group from enjoying their rights and areas where additional measures are needed to address the barriers comprehensively or where existing sectoral efforts need improvement.

3.4.2 Steps 2 and 3: Design and implement responses that address exclusion

Objective. To address the sociocultural barriers and weaknesses in the policy framework or delivery system by revising/strengthening policies, program activities, resource allocations, institutional arrangements and staff incentives as well as monitoring and reporting systems. Responses must be developed based on the assessment and the design of the interventions must address the specific barriers of the excluded at the different levels discussed above. Key steps are detailed in Table 3.2.

3.4.3 Step 4: Monitoring, evaluation and reporting

Objective. To design/strengthen M&E systems to collect and analyze disaggregated data on outputs, outcomes and development results (Table 3.3), and ensure that the system is linked into management decision-making and the feedback loop to changes in implementation is robust.

Note that none of the existing government M&E systems in the sectors reviewed for this series has been able to monitor GESI outcomes effectively. Although some sectors like education have made a good beginning, comprehensive and consistent systems are not in place to collect, analyze and report with disaggregation. Hence, the steps and process outlined below require advocacy as well as technical support. Programs/projects have initiated some good practices but these need to be institutionalized. Major gains could be achieved if the National Planning Commission (NPC) and the Ministry of Finance could rein-vigorate the collection and consolidation of sectoral output and outcome data as planned in the poverty monitoring and analysis system (PMAS). A common system for collection and analysis of disaggregated data across the sectors would allow NPC to generate a much more accurate picture of progress and problem areas on the path towards gender equality and social inclusion.

The roles of the different actors and the timing of monitoring are summarized in Table 3.4.

3.4.4 Step 5: Changing policy and project design to respond to M&E findings on inclusion.

Where government policy-makers (and politicians) have real incentives to be responsive to all groups in society, and projects are designed to be flexible and respond to what they learn, this step is automatic. But in settings where accountability and willingness to change are less than

perfect, it is important to build in formal policy reviews and project mid-term and periodic evaluations that ask for data-based analysis of which groups are benefiting from the policy or program and require specific follow-on actions to respond to the findings. If this analysis reveals

that certain groups are being left out, then the suggestions for responding outlined in Table 3.2 can be used to guide a critical re-thinking of the various processes, criteria and underlying assumptions upon which the policy or program has been designed.

Table 3.1: Analysis of Barriers

S.N.	Level	Analysis of barriers	How to do
1	Household & community	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> What practices, beliefs, values and traditions at family and community levels constrain women, the poor and the excluded from accessing sectoral resources, opportunities and services? What are the different rules, practices, divisions of labor, social expectations and differences in vulnerability and mobility for women and men and for different caste/ethnic groups? How have these impacted on women, the poor and the excluded? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Stakeholder consultation; participatory rural appraisal (PRA) tools like social mapping, labor, access and control profile, mobility maps, etc Anthropological and sociological literature on Nepal
2	Status of women, the poor and the excluded	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Collect disaggregated data and substantive evidence to find out existing status of women, the poor and the excluded, and assess areas and level of disparities—with particular attention to data on their participation and status in sector for which the program or policy is being designed. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Review Census, Nepal Living Standards Survey, Department of Health Services data, health management information system, Nepal Demographic and Health Survey, education management information system, Nepal Human Development Report, Millennium Development Goals progress reports, etc, project/program-related information
3	Policy ²	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> What policies exist, and how have these affected women and men of different social groups? What new policy initiatives are being taken to address sectoral issues, and what are the likely gender/caste/ethnic/regional identity differentials in access to benefits from such initiatives? What policies have the potential to transform existing relations of inequality, i.e., bring changes in socially prescribed division of labor and access to resources and decision-making power between women and men, and between people of excluded and non-excluded groups? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Review government policies/Acts/ regulations relevant to the sector (see Annex 3.1 for policy analysis matrix); project/program log frame, operational guidelines/other policy statements; other guidelines, partners' log frames, project guidelines, etc
4	Formal institutional structures and processes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> What kind of institutional structures/mechanisms/processes are there in the sector, and how responsive are they to the needs and issues of the excluded (e.g., how representative are committees, project offices, other such bodies formed at local, district and national levels)? Is work on GESI specifically mentioned as a responsibility of any of these different institutions or their constituent units? What kinds of structures/mechanisms exist to enable women and the excluded to be part of planning and monitoring processes in the sector? Human resource policies for recruitment, transfer, promotion, staff performance evaluation: how diverse is the staff profile in terms of gender, region, caste/ethnicity and other variables? What provisions recognize specific issues/constraints of women, e.g., maternity leave, breastfeeding, flexible hours, security? How does the performance evaluation system capture efforts of the staff at addressing gender and inclusion issues? What is the working culture in committees and offices? How supportive is it for women, the poor and the excluded to work comfortably? What is the behavior of the non-excluded towards these groups? Is the language used in the meetings understood well by all? How well does the language proficiency of the project staff reflect the languages spoken in the project area? What time are the meetings held? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Develop disaggregated staff profiles of project office, partner organizations, local government partner, user groups formed by project (see Annex 9.2 for format) Review job descriptions of departments/divisions and staff such as project manager, planning officer, field facilitator, M&E (and any other relevant staff) and terms of reference of consultants and other teams Facilitate interactions/discussions with staff on situation regarding working environment

S.N.	Level	Analysis of barriers	How to do
5	Programming and budgeting	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> What have been the main interventions in the sector? How have these interventions affected women and people from other excluded groups (e.g., how did gender/caste/ethnic differentials support/constrain access to opportunities from interventions)? Did interventions have explicit inclusion goals and outcome indicators? Did they have an M&E system that was sufficiently disaggregated to track differential outcomes for different groups? What is the budget allocation and expenditure on activities to address issues of women, the poor and the excluded? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Review annual budget (see Annex 3.3 for format) of government agency, program/projects/partner organization; identify how adequately activities addressing GESI issues have been budgeted for; what percentage of the entire project cost has gone for GESI related activities; how transformative are these budgeted activities? Review M&E system and a sample of periodic and special reports and studies from the main interventions in the sector
6	Informal institutions (kinship, gender and caste systems and business and party networks)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> What are the income levels, social and human development characteristics of groups identified as excluded in the sector that might present barriers to their access? What are the existing employment options in the sector and what barriers exist for women and other excluded groups in terms of skill levels, mobility, social norms, etc? Who has access to control over what resources in the sector? How are political parties active in this sector at different levels? At the national level what are their linkages with the sectoral ministry and other key organizations in the sector? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Consultation/interaction Political science, economic, sociological and anthropological literature on Nepal

Table 3.2: Responses to Exclusion

S.N.	Level	Responses	Process
1	Policy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ensure policies (e.g., government directives at the national level, project criteria/guidelines at community levels, program goals and objectives) explicitly address constraints of women and the excluded, and mandate action to address them Results planned in project plans/log frames must aim to improve assets, capabilities and voice of women, the poor and the excluded; they must address formal and informal practices that are inequitable and discriminatory, and aim to transform existing structural frameworks that disadvantage women and/or the excluded Policies can support a targeted approach or address GESI issues in a non-targeted manner, integrating whatever special measures may be necessary (and economically feasible and sustainable) into mainstream programs to overcome barriers faced by women and excluded groups in accessing services, opportunities and benefits provided by the sector 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Organize participatory workshops/consultations with stakeholders—women and men of different social groups; time, venue, methodology, language and tools should be suitable for women and the poor in particular Phrase objectives, outputs, activities and indicator statements to reflect both technical and social issues Review who will benefit—which women, men, girls, boys (with caste, class, location, ethnicity, age disaggregation): who is likely to have access to benefits from these policies? Who is likely to control them? Who is likely to benefit less from this intervention? Are targeted groups defined in clear terms or are general terms such as “disadvantaged” or “vulnerable” used without a clear definition of who they are? What assumptions are being made on women’s roles, responsibilities, time and access to and control over resources? On the capacity of people from excluded groups? With the above in mind, what procedures, criteria or ways of working can shift these patterns to be more equitable? What incentives for sector staff and recipient community can be built into the interventions and operation of (government and non-government) institutions in the sector?
2	Formal institutional structures and processes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> There must be desks/units/sections/departments with specific GESI responsibility located within sectoral institutions/organizations from national to community levels, adequately resourced and mandated to provide technical support to address GESI issues Terms of reference/job descriptions of all, including policy-makers and technical staff, must allocate responsibility to work on GESI issues, integrating them into their responsibilities Efforts must be made to achieve an inclusive staff profile, with women and people from excluded groups in positions of responsibility 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identify GESI work responsibilities at different levels; review existing mechanisms to assess how they are addressing identified responsibilities—what has worked, why, what has not, why not; identify through a participatory process what existing structures and organizations can take on GESI responsibilities effectively; assess what new skills and approaches are needed and design accordingly Review terms of reference/job descriptions of departments/divisions/key staff to assess the level of GESI responsibilities; revise and add; integrate into technical responsibilities for technical staff

S.N.	Level	Responses	Process
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Human resource policies for recruitment, promotion and capacity building must be gender- and inclusion-sensitive, and personnel policies must support gender-specific responsibilities Performance evaluation systems must capture responsibilities for GESI dimensions and efforts made by staff to address gender and inclusion issues 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Integrate recognition and incentives for staff that are successful in improving GESI outcomes Review human resources policies: for recruitment,³ identify issues constraining applications from women and excluded groups; adopt alternative strategies to publicize vacancies through networks, in local languages; define “merit” to include language skills, understanding of local community cultures, etc
3	Informal institutions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Activities (e.g., sustained dialogue and advocacy) must be developed and implemented to address informal institutions that violate human rights of women, the poor and the excluded; strategies to work with rich, powerful, advantaged men and boys to change values and attitudes, getting buy-in from even the privileged members of the community to change the status quo. are necessary and have often been very successful 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Through consultations and review of previous efforts, identify what has blocked implementation; what behavioral issues, values, social norms have been a challenge Identify measures necessary to work with women, the poor and the excluded and with family decision makers, community leaders, local political leaders and elites, e.g., poverty analysis with leaders, decision makers, sustained dialogue with men on masculinity, advocacy campaigns against social ills like <i>chaupadi</i>, <i>dowry</i>, <i>boksi</i>
4	Programming and budgeting	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> There must be programmatic activities and budget allocations that specifically address issues experienced by women and people from excluded groups; budget must also be allocated for activities that can create a supportive environment to address gender/caste/ethnicity and other dimensions of exclusion Activities must ensure that livelihoods and voice of women, the poor and the excluded are enhanced, along with changing inequitable social norms and formal policies; sufficient budget allocations must be made for these activities Estimate required resources and include human and financial resources for activities on gender and inclusion awareness for women and men and capacity building of women at program and organization level Include resources required to support childcare responsibilities, field escort for security reasons and other specific constraints/responsibilities faced by women and people of excluded groups Allocate sufficient resources for gender-balanced staff, training and institutional capacity building; include sufficient budget and time to build linkages and networking to strengthen different interest groups and to make sure that communication materials can be produced in several languages if need be Those responsible for implementation must be held accountable for ensuring that planned activities are executed and the budget allocated is spent 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Review program activities and budget in detail; assess likely impact of each activity on women, the poor and the excluded Ask whether activities are addressing barriers identified: will poor and excluded women and men be able to access resources and benefits coming from this activity? What will be their benefits? Will they get these directly? Will these activities help to address structural issues constraining progress of women, the poor and the excluded, e.g., violence against women or untouchability? Or, will they provide immediate benefits by improving livelihoods or welfare? Identify percentage of budget allocated to different activities addressing barriers and assess whether these will enable groups to benefit equally

Table 3.3: **Monitoring and Evaluation**

S.N.	Level	Responses	Process
1	NPC	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Revise planning, budgeting, M&E and reporting formats and processes to capture GESI dimensions according to three domains of change: changes in assets/services; changes in voice and ability to influence; changes in informal and formal policies and behavior Issue directives to all ministries to report disaggregation at output and outcome levels; provide common format for gender and social disaggregation to be used by all sectoral ministries Review and strengthen PMAS and the District Poverty Monitoring and Analysis System (DPMAS)—or whatever province-level system may be established after the new federal structure is determined 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Review existing formats; identify strengths and areas of improvement; advocate for revision; create pressure for change
2	Ministry	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> In every program/project at least some objectives, outputs, and indicators must be phrased in a way that captures gender and inclusion issues; these indicators demand collection of disaggregated data M&E section to be strengthened to monitor according to three domains of change ((services, voice, rules) with disaggregation, and guide departments and other key stakeholders to monitor and report with disaggregation and analytical evidence As revision of NPC formats may take time, the M&E section of the sectoral ministry involved in the project/program must develop operational guidelines that identify what disaggregated information is possible at national and district levels, and document case examples of success and lessons learned on how to ensure services and opportunities to excluded groups 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Log frame/results framework to be developed in a participatory manner with representatives of excluded organizations; log frame development team to have an expert on GESI Develop M&E and reporting formats requiring disaggregated information to be developed Information management system to be reviewed and strengthened M&E officers to be trained on GESI-sensitive M&E
3	Department	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Revise necessary formats, indicators and monitoring guide to collect disaggregated information and evidence Monitor programs implemented by government and nongovernment actors in the sector Assess information provided by districts and report accordingly 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> In joint consultation with ministry and other stakeholders, identify steps required to make existing M&E system more GESI responsive and revise accordingly Remember qualitative data and participatory M&E involving the beneficiaries can be an important source of insight about the GESI impact of interventions
4	District	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> District line agencies to monitor whether programs are implemented as planned and expected outputs/outcomes achieved, and report with disaggregation District Information and Documentation Centers (DIDCs) to be strengthened to maintain disaggregated database showing status of women and people of other excluded groups in district GESI implementation committee to be formed in district development committees (DDCs) according to approved MLD GESI strategy; collaboration and linkages between these must be established, with clarity in roles Budget expenditure and planned progress (monthly and quarterly) must be disaggregated, as must reporting In annual reports, analysis must not be activity based but should be based on data that capture outcomes for women and people of other excluded groups 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To achieve all this, the Ministry of Local Development (MLD) has to give a directive to the local bodies Local bodies will need technical support to understand GESI-sensitive M&E and to establish database systems that can be maintained to provide disaggregated information about progress and achievements
5	VDC/ community	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Establish disaggregated database providing information regarding existing situation of village development committee (VDC) population; this can include “social mapping” that identifies the caste/ethnic identity and other significant features (such as female headship, etc) of each household in the project VDC Design/implement participatory M&E system 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Initiate participatory self-assessment process which is sensitive to social constraints like mobility, domestic work burden and family support Use mechanisms that ensure participation of women and men of different social groups

S.N.	Level	Responses	Process
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Work jointly with the Integrated Planning Committee (IPC) in VDCs and Ward Citizens' Forums (which are to be established in each ward according to MLD VDC Block Grant Operational Manual 2009 of MLD) for monitoring • Develop mechanisms and work according to an M&E plan. • Establish/strengthen systems for use of social accountability tools like public audit, citizens' scorecard, public hearing, etc, and ensure that these are implemented by disinterested third parties who can be objective about the results 	
6	Project/ program	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • All of the above • Incorporate GESI dimension in all processes, mechanisms and progress of project/program activities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Work with government bodies as required, and strengthen government systems • Efforts must be made not to establish a parallel system but rather to identify joint monitoring mechanisms that produce disaggregated data and analysis on outcomes for different social groups by gender • Reflect in log frame/results framework objectives, outputs and indicators in a consultative process

Table 3.4: Roles and Timing in Monitoring

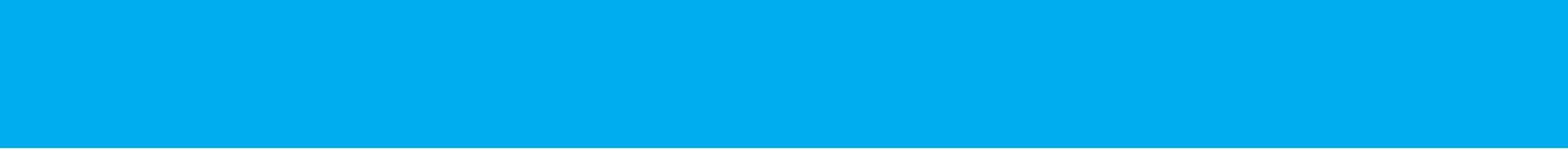
Time	Ward Citizens' Forum/ward level	Village Citizens' Forum, Integrated Planning Committee/VDC	GESI implementation committee/social committee, DDC	GESI section/division/unit of ministry/department	Projects/programs	NPC
					Facilitate setting up of GESI-sensitive monitoring and reporting systems	PMAS, DPMAS: GESI aspects in formats, process
Monthly	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Monitor progress in group participation, access to services, cases of discrimination Maintain disaggregated data about program implementation as per plan Self-monitoring 	Regular meetings, monitoring of social mobilization and program implementation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Regular supervision Assessment of progress as per plans Basis of monitoring to be three domains of change (services, voice, rules) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Regular supervision Assessment of progress as per plans Basis of monitoring to be three domains of change 		
Quarterly review	Review progress with focus on the three domains of change		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Monitoring visits Review with disaggregation as per the three domains of change 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Analyze reports of VDCs 		
Six-monthly	Public hearing, covering program implementation and social mobilizers' work	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Public hearing Public audit 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Participation in public hearing and audit Quarterly report to cover GESI 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Integrate progress and learning to inform decision makers for strategic change Report as per three domains of change 	Supervision and review	
Annual	Gender and social audit	Gender and social audit	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Participation in public hearing and audit Annual report to cover GESI 		Report	

Source: Adapted from GESI strategy of LGCDP, MLD, 2009.

Notes

- 1 In a national program, a mapping of the local political economy of the sector in a sample of the different types of sites where the program would be implemented would provide enough to go on.
- 2 Policy is understood here as a statement of intent, so it can be at the macro, meso or micro level, and it can be formal (government Act or program-level guidelines/criteria) or informal, such as social practices/norms.
- 3 See SIAG (2009) for suggestions to increase GESI sensitivity in recruitment policies.

Annexes



Annex 1.1: Definitions of Socially Excluded Groups

Brief definitions¹ of the *socially excluded groups* (women, Dalits, Adivasi Janajatis, Madhesis, Muslims, people with disabilities and people of geographically remote areas) are provided below.

Women. Due to existing gender relations in Nepal and a patriarchal society, women experience unequal power relations, resulting in their social exclusion. Although the depth of gender discrimination varies between social groups in Nepal, all women are excluded. However, women from excluded communities face caste, ethnicity and location-based constraints in addition to the constraints imposed by their gender. Women constitute 51% of Nepal's population.²

*Dalits.*³ People who have been suffering from caste and untouchability-based practices and religious, social, political and cultural discrimination form 13% of Nepal's population. Within the Dalit community, there are five sub-caste groups from the hills (Hill Dalits) and 22 sub-caste groups from the Tarai (Madhesi Dalits).

*Adivasi Janajatis.*⁴ Peoples or communities with their own mother tongue and traditional social structures and practices, separate cultural identity, and written or unwritten history form 37% of Nepal's population, with 5.5% Newars and 31.8% Hill and Tarai Janajatis. There are 18, 24, 7, and 10 sub-groups respectively among the Mountain, Hill, Inner Tarai and Tarai Janajati groups.

Madhesis. People of plains origin who live mainly in the Tarai and have languages such as Maithili, Bhojपुरi, Awadhi, Urdu and Hindi as their mother tongue are considered Madhesis. They include Madhesi Brahmin/Kshatriyas (2% of the population), Madhesi "other" caste groups (13%) and Madhesi Dalits.

Muslims. Muslims are a religious group found predominantly in the Tarai and form 4.3% of Nepal's population.

*People with disabilities.*⁵ "Persons with disabilities include those who have long-term physical, mental, intellectual or sensory impairments which in interaction with various barriers may hinder their full and effective participation in society on an equal basis with others".⁶ Persons with full disabilities cannot manage daily life without assistance. They include people with total mental, intellectual or sensory impairment such as complete blindness. People with partial disability are persons who have long-term physical and/or mobility impairments, and require regular assistance to manage daily life.

People of remote geographic regions. This covers people living in geographic regions which have distinct, difficult terrain for movement, transportation and communication, and difficulties in accessing services (e.g., Karnali has been defined as geographically excluded by the government in the Three-Year Interim Plan). Similarly, in a DDC some locations (VDCs) can experience geographical exclusion due to difficult terrain and remoteness. Within these kinds of geographically excluded regions, people experiencing gender-, caste-, and ethnicity-based discrimination experience further exclusions.

The specific issues of exclusion differ between these groups. For Dalits it is caste-based exclusion; for Adivasi Janajatis it is cultural rights/language-based exclusion; for Madhesis it is identity-based exclusion; for the poor exclusion is economic-based; while for remote regions it is distance-related. For women, it is gender-based, a characteristic that cross-cuts each of the other dimensions of exclusion.

Notes

- 1 Gender equality and social inclusion strategy, LGCDP/MLD, 2009.
- 2 Population figures are from Census 2001, CBS/NPC, Government of Nepal.
- 3 Based on the National Dalit Commission reports.
- 4 Based on NFDIN descriptions.
- 5 Based on Social Security Guidelines, MLD/Government of Nepal, 2065 (p. 1).
- 6 'Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities', www2.ohchr.org/english/law/disabilities-convention.htm.

Annex 1.2: Step 1 Gender Equality and Social Inclusion Framework: Analysis of Policy, Institutional, Program, and Monitoring and Evaluation Barriers

As part of designing responses that are based on the assessment done in Step 1, the analysis of the barriers and responses must be viewed at several levels.

Policy. Analysis at this level assists us to identify which policies are addressing or reinforcing social inequalities, and reducing, maintaining or increasing disparities. This analysis will, in turn, guide us in the design of appropriate strategies for reprioritization or redefining policies. Policies exist at all levels. Some are more formal and official, others more informal and traditional.

Organizational structures. The rules and practices within organizations need to be reviewed to identify ways in which social inequity is created and maintained. The extent to which GESI policy commitments are formulated and effectively implemented depends on the understanding, skills and commitment of the staff in policy-making, planning and implementation roles. Additionally, most organizations have official rules and procedures, but unofficial norms and practices operate informally and influence results. Tools for organizational assessment in projects/NGOs/partner organizations include disaggregated staff profiles showing who has access to what opportunities and types of resources and levels of decision-making power; reviewing the job descriptions and terms of reference for including GESI in objectives, tasks/responsibilities, and key skills/competencies; and human resource policies for recruitment, promotion, capacity building and support for gender-specific responsibilities.

Program and budgeting. The program activities should be reviewed to assess the strengths and identify areas of improvement for addressing the needs and interests of women, the poor and the excluded. The program and budget should be assessed on whether they are specific, supportive or neutral towards these groups. A financial commitment to gender- and inclusion-related activities is an essential element of mainstreaming GESI, reflecting the spending choices the concerned organization has made as per its available resources. When auditing budget and program design to assess their effectiveness in reaching different excluded groups and the poor, it is important to keep a separate eye on expenditures for men and women in these various groups. Otherwise gender-based disparities may not be picked up. Similarly, when conducting a gender audit, it is important to look separately at the expenditures and outcomes for women from different social groups since women from certain social groups may not have been reached.

Monitoring and evaluation. Monitoring and reporting should follow the conceptual frame of the three areas/domains of change: 1) changes in assets/services; 2) changes in voice and ability to influence; and 3) changes in informal and formal policies and behavior. All monitoring and reporting formats must have disaggregation by poverty, sex, caste, ethnicity and location. Monitoring teams must be inclusive, with representation of women and people from excluded communities as members. Monitoring teams must consult with community women and men, including those experiencing exclusion, representative organizations and others. Monitoring must also focus on the *process* of implementation: what was done and how it was done, and from a GESI perspective, with whom it was done; and on the *outcome* or results of action.

Annex 1.3: List of Budgets Reviewed, FY 2009-2010, for Gender Equality and Social Inclusion Budgeting Covering 22 Programs and Annual Plans of Two Ministries

Sector	Number of project/ program budgets	List of budgets reviewed of FY 2009-2010 for GESI budgeting
Agriculture	3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Commercial Livestock Development Project, ADB Project for Agriculture Commercialization and Trade, WB Regular program of MOAC: extension services
Education	5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> School Sector Reform Program School Sector Support Program Capacity Development Program Secondary Education Support Program, district level Education for All, district level
Health	Annual plan (covering 41 programs)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Annual budget of FY 2009-2010 of MOHP
Forest	Annual plan (covering 18 programs) + 2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Annual budget of FY 2009-2010 of MOFSC Annual program budget of Kavre and Morang, FY 2008-2009
Water supply and sanitation	6	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Community-based Water Supply and Sanitation Program Rural Water Supply and Sanitation Fund Development Board Small Town Water and Sanitation Project Regular program of district water supply and sanitation
Irrigation	3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Community-managed Irrigation and Agriculture Support Program Integrated Water Resource Management Program Department of Irrigation Annual program budget of Kavre and Morang, FY 2008-2009
Rural infrastructure	4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Rural Access Program Rural Rehabilitation and Reconstruction Project Decentralized Rural Infrastructure and Livelihood Improvement Program District Road Support Program Rural Access Integrated Development Program Annual program budget of Kavre and Morang, FY 2008-2009

Annex 2.1: Analyses of Log Frames of Selected Programs

GESI components and outcomes	Indicators	Strengths	Gaps
Project: CADP			
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Inclusion of poor and semi-commercial stakeholders in commercial agriculture • Development of subsistence stakeholders • Enhancement of semi-commercial stakeholders • Promotion of social inclusiveness among commercial stakeholders 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 14 NGOs enter into partnership with the project and work with subsistence stakeholders • 15,000 subsistence households assisted on high-value crops income-generation activities by project completion • 800 primary farmer groups formed and provided basic marketing training by project completion • 5,000 landless undertaking skill-based training, and 1,000 obtaining jobs • Farmer groups graduate to marketing groups, associations and cooperatives; 120 marketing groups strengthened in accounting, bookkeeping, and group management and immersed in marketing and agribusiness concepts; at least 1,800 stakeholders adopt quality improvement methods by project completion; and strengthened farmer groups/cooperatives assisted to apply for CAA membership • 750 commercial stakeholders receive awareness training in social, gender and environmental issues • Socially inclusive behavior reflected in investments financed by the Commercial Agriculture Fund 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Social inclusion experts are preparing benefit monitoring guidelines and are engaged in capacity building and project orientation for project beneficiaries • Complementary JFPR project benefits marginal farmers, the landless, Dalits and ethnic minority populations not covered under ongoing CADP project which formed 449 self-help groups in project areas covering 12,001 (100% of target households) with 41% Dalits, 50% Janajatis, and 10% other castes; 70.4% of the group members are women 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Of the nine training sessions given to project partners, none is on GESI sensitization and awareness • Selection of service providers for promotion of social inclusiveness among commercial stakeholders and awareness program on social, gender, and environment-related subjects has not yet been undertaken
Project: CLDP			
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Poverty reduction among poor, rural women and men through gender and socially inclusive development • Community development and capacity building • Livestock productivity improvement 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A total of 164,000 households benefiting directly from increased livestock productivity, processing and marketing activities • Per capita income of Rs 2,925 (1995-1996 prices) of poor households increased by 50% by end of project • Proportion of women and disadvantaged castes/ethnicities in farmer groups increasing to at least 50% by end of project • District-based poverty, and social mapping and analysis undertaken in 22 districts by contracted local NGOs/district development committees/VDCs to provide gender/ethnic/caste-disaggregated baseline data by 31 December 2006 • Gender capacity-building training provided to all DLS project staff, farmer groups and other project stakeholders • 3,450 farmer groups, comprising 35% women members, formed or strengthened based on enterprise packages selected by the community by 30 June 2010 • 312 community livestock assistants, of whom 271 are women, trained and mobilized • 847 DLS staff trained in social mobilization, including gender sensitization • Gender-, ethnicity-, and caste-disaggregated M&E framework installed in all 22 ILP districts and all three regional offices • 8,782 farmer groups and 2,009 communities (64% women) formed 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • As of 2009, 173,093 households benefited from increased productivity, out of which 96,915 are in ILP and 1,302 in remote high-altitude areas • Per capita income increased by 57% • Women, Dalit and Janajati participation in all project activities at 64%, 27.2%, and 26.8% respectively • 8,782 farmer groups comprising 64% women members managing their own production 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No clear indication on how many women, Dalits, Janajatis and other excluded groups benefited from increased income, which is reportedly measured against socio-economic baseline disaggregated by gender, caste and ethnicity

GESI components and outcomes	Indicators	Strengths	Gaps
Project: PACT			
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Improve the competitiveness of smallholder farmers and the agribusiness sector in selected commodity value chains in project districts Component agriculture and rural business development Outcome: new partnerships between agribusinesses and farmer groups are created and engage in profitable market-oriented production 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Productivity of selected commodity value chains in districts supported by project increases by 25% Volume of marketable agriculture in value chains increases by 30% Sales of commodities in value chains supported by project increase by 25% By year 3, at least 40 new partnerships involving farmer groups and agribusinesses have received competitive grants At least 30% of supported subprojects have achieved their objectives by end of project Farmer groups and other actors that have completed their subprojects and created linkages with other value chain participants have increased their price terms by 10% by end of project By end of project, at least 10% of production from supported partnerships is exported 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Technical, environmental and social audit and outcome-based assessment are used to monitor whether project implementation is consistent with what has been reported and in addressing social and environmental impacts Indigenous peoples' development plan and gender development policy are designed to ensure more inclusion of women, Dalits and Janajatis 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Indigenous peoples' development plan and gender development policy are too generic and do not have specific indicators to measure their inclusion in access to project resources, productivity, capacity building and participation

Note: JFPR = Japan Fund for Poverty Reduction.

Annex 2.2: Gender-responsive Budget Indicators

S.N.	Indicators	Score	Sub-indicators
Agriculture			
1	Participation in decision-making	30	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Representation of women in community organizations/user groups and their executive committees, including major posts • Participation of women at service center-level planning workshop • Representation of women in district agriculture development committee • Participation of women resource persons and women staff in training curricula development • Participation of women from disadvantaged groups in training and extension programs
2	Capacity building	30	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Participation of women farmers in training and education programs • Targeted gender sensitization programs to both farmers and ministry staff • Participation of women staff in national and international training and seminars
3	Support to income-generation and employment opportunities	30	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Participation of women in skill-employment training for (self-)employment • Women-specific income-generation programs • Distribution of revolving fund to women farmers' groups
4	Time saved and quality use of time	10	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Number of small irrigation schemes in the district
Livestock			
1	Participation in decision-making	20	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Representation of women in user groups/community organizations and executive committees, including major posts • Participation of women at service center-level planning workshop • Representation of women in livestock action team • Representation of women on district agriculture development committee
2	Capacity building	35	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Different capacity development programs initiated for women • Number of women farmers trained • Targeted awareness-raising program for women • Participation of women staff in national and international training and seminars
3	Support to income-generation and employment opportunities	35	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Participation of women in skill development training • Number of women self-employed after skill training • Amount of seed money distributed to women farmers
4	Time saved and quality use of time	10	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Number of households under fodder cultivation schemes

Note: Time saved due to fodder cultivation is more applicable in the hill districts than in the Tarai district.

Annex 3.1: Policy Analysis Format

Policy, provision, article No	GESI analysis of policy statements, provisions, criteria, guidelines, etc		
	Addresses human condition within existing social hierarchy and division of responsibilities, does not make structural changes	Establishes equal rights and promotes structural transformation	Neutral
1.....			
2.....			

Annex 3.2: Format for Disaggregated Diversity Profile

S.N.	Post	Dalit				Janajati						Brahmin/Chhetri				Other Madhesi Castes/ OBC groups		Muslims		Others		Total
						Others				Newars												
		Hill		Madhesi		Hill		Tarai														
F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M			
1																						
2																						
3																						
4																						
5																						
6																						

Annex 3.3: Program and Budget Analysis Format

Description	Directly supportive activity (1)		Indirectly supportive activity (2)		Neutral activity (3)		Total	
	Amount	%	Amount	%	Amount	%	Amount	%
Women								
Dalit								
Janajati (except Newar)								
Newar								
Brahmin/Chhetri								
Muslims								
Other Madhesi Castes/Other Backward Classes (OBC)								
Location (rural, remote, Karnali, Tarai, etc)								
Poor								
Adolescents								
Elderly								
Disabled								
.....								

Bibliography

- Aahuti. 2007. 'The Class Issue in Nepal and Question of Land Reform in Land Rights'. *Quarterly Bulletin* (Nepali). 5:14. Kathmandu: Community Self-Reliance Centre.
- Acharya, M. 2010. Background Paper on Gender for the Gender and Social Exclusion Assessment (GSEA). Kathmandu: World Bank, DFID.
- ADB. 2006. 'Economic and Social Inclusion of the Disadvantaged Poor through Livelihood Enhancement with Micro-irrigation'. Technical Assistance Report. Manila: Asian Development Bank (ADB).
- _____. 2009. 'Nepal: Country Partnership Strategy 2010–2014: A Strategy for a Country in Transition'. Manila: Asian Development Bank (ADB).
- Adhikary, M. 1995. *Women Graduates from Agriculture and Forestry Development in Nepal*. Kathmandu: Winrock International.
- ANZDEC Limited. 2003. 'Nepal: Commercial Agriculture Development Project, Final Report'. Auckland: ANZDEC Limited.
- Agriculture Perspective Plan Support Program. 2005. 'Promoting Gender and Social Inclusion in Agriculture Sector'. Kathmandu: Agriculture Perspective Plan Support Program.
- _____. 2005. 'Social and Geographical Audit'. Kathmandu: Agriculture Perspective Plan Support Program.
- Bajracharya, B. 1994. 'Gender Issues in Nepali Agriculture: A Review'. Kathmandu: Winrock International.
- Basnet, P. and S. Darnal (eds). 2007. 'Bishesh Adhikar ra Aarakshyanko Rajneeti'. Kathmandu: Jagaran Media Centre.
- Bennett, L., D.R. Dahal and P. Govindasamy. 2008. *Caste, Ethnic and Regional Identity in Nepal: Further Analysis of the 2006 Nepal Demographic and Health Survey*. Calverton, MD: Macro International.
- Braun, J. and R.M. Dick. 2009. "'Land Grabbing" by Foreign Investors in Developing Countries: Risks and Opportunities'. IFPRI Policy Brief 13. Washington: IFPRI.
- Budlender, D. and R. Sharp with K. Allen. 1998. *How to do a Gender-Sensitive Budget Analysis: Contemporary Research and Practice*. London, Canberra: Australian Agency for International Development, The Commonwealth Secretariat.
- Byrne, D. 1999. *Social Exclusion*. Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Commercial Agriculture Development Program. 2007. *Annual Report, 2007-2008*. Biratnagar: ADB.
- Central Bureau of Statistics. 2002. *National Population Census, National Report 2001*. Kathmandu: National Planning Commission Secretariat.
- _____. 2004. *Women in Nepal: Some Statistical Facts*. Kathmandu: Central Bureau of Statistics.
- _____. 2005. *Nepal Living Standards Survey Report 2003/04*. Kathmandu: Central Bureau of Statistics, National Planning Commission Secretariat.
- _____. 2005. *Poverty Trends in Nepal (1995-96 and 2003-04)*. Kathmandu: Central Bureau of Statistics.
- _____. 2006. *Monograph Agriculture Census Nepal, 2001/02*. Kathmandu: Central Bureau of Statistics.

- Central Bureau of Statistics and National Planning Commission. 2004. 'Nepal Living Standard Survey 2003/04'. Statistical Report. Volume 1. Kathmandu: Central Bureau of Statistics.
- _____. 2009. *Report on the Nepal Labour Force Survey 2008*. Kathmandu: Central Bureau of Statistics.
- Centre for International Studies and Cooperation. 2007. 'Community Groundwater Irrigation Sector Project: Documentation and Lessons Learnt'. Kathmandu: Canadian Cooperation Office—Nepal.
- Center for Microfinance. 2007. 'Strategic Plan for Sustainable Access to Microfinance Services for the Poor in Nepal'. Kathmandu: Center for Microfinance.
- Community Livestock Development Program. 2008. 'Annual Report of Fiscal Year 2007/08'. Kathmandu: Project Management Unit, Community Livestock Development Program.
- _____. 2009. 'Annual Report of Fiscal Year 2008/09'. Kathmandu: Project Management Unit, Community Livestock Development Program.
- _____. 2010. 'Annual Report of Fiscal Year 2009/10'. Kathmandu: Project Management Unit, Community Livestock Development Program.
- Community Livestock Development Program/Agriculture Perspective Plan Support Program. 2007. 'Livelihoods, Social Inclusion and Gender Policy in Agriculture'. Paper presented at National Workshop on Livelihoods, Social Inclusion, and Gender Policy in Agriculture, 27 February-1 March, Kathmandu.
- Community Self-Reliance Centre, Human and Natural Resources Studies Centre, Kathmandu University and National Centres of Competence in Research. 2008. *Nepalma Bhumi rajniti ra Dunda: Gramin Rupantaranka Yathartha ra Sambhawanaharu* (Land Politics and Conflict in Nepal: Realities and Potentials for Agrarian Transformation). Kathmandu: Community Self-Reliance Centre; Human and Natural Resources Studies Centre, Kathmandu University; and South Asia Regional Coordination Office of NCCR North-South. pp. 161-200.
- Deere, C.D. and M. Leon. 2001. *Empowering Women: Land and Property Rights in Latin America*. Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press.
- Devkota, N.R. 2003. 'Impact of Winrock's Women Scholarship Program: Evaluation and Suggestions for Future Program'. Research Report Series No 49, January. Kathmandu: Winrock International, Nepal.
- DFID. 2000. *Poverty Elimination and the Empowerment of Women: Strategies for Achieving the International Development Targets*. London: Department for International Development.
- _____. 2002. 'Gender Manual: A Practical Guide for Development Policy Makers and Practitioners'. London: Department for International Development.
- _____. 2005. 'How-to Notes on Livelihoods and Social Inclusion (LSI) Monitoring and Evaluation'. Kathmandu: DFID.
- FAO. 2004. 'Implications of WTO Membership on Nepalese Agriculture'. Kathmandu: FAO.
- Gastel T. van and K.R. Regmi. 2008. 'Farmers based seed production and marketing: How to make farmers seed production and marketing sustainable'. Kathmandu: FAO.
- Ghale, Y. 2008. 'Feminisation of Agriculture Sector in Nepal'. *Nepalnews Online*, 17 October.
- Ghale, Y. 2009. 'Women, Globalisation and Land-based Exclusion in Nepal'. In *Land Politics and Conflict: Realities and Potentials for Agrarian Transformation*, edited by B.R. Upreti, S. Sharma and J. Basnet. Kathmandu: Community Self-Reliance Centre; Human and Natural Resources Studies Centre, Kathmandu University; and South Asia Regional Coordination Office of NCCR North-South.

- Government of Nepal. 2007. 'The Interim Constitution of Nepal, 2063 (2007)'. <http://www.lawcommission.gov.np>
- Gurung, G. 2008. 'Migration Input'. Paper for SDC Strategy (2009-2012).
- Gurung, J.B. 2000. *Preliminary Impact Assessment of Low-cost Water Storage Structures in Tanahun and Kaski Districts*. Kathmandu: International Development Enterprises.
- IFAD. 2009. 'Gender and Agriculture Sourcebook'. Washington: World Bank.
- ILO. 2009. 'Indigenous and Tribal Peoples' Rights in Practice: A Guide to ILO Convention No 169'. Geneva: ILO.
- Jensen, R.I. et al. 2006. 'Evaluation of DFID's Policy and Practice in Support of Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment'. Volume 1. Synthesis Report. Evaluation Report EV669. London: Department for International Development (DFID).
- Jha, Chhaya, S. Prasai, M. Hobley and L. Bennett. 2009. 'Citizen Mobilization: Building on Social Mobilization Practices in Nepal'. Kathmandu: MLD/DFID/WB.
- Joshi, D.D. 2002. 'Farmers' Perceptions of Service Delivery and Policy Support from Smallholder Dairy in Nepal: Nepal Case Study'. In *Smallholder Dairy Production and Marketing: Opportunities and Constraints*, edited by D. Rangnekar and W. Thorpe, proceedings of a South-South workshop held at NDDB, Anand, India, 13-16 March 2001. NDDB (National Dairy Development Board), Anand, India, and ILRI (International Livestock Research Institute), Nairobi, Kenya. www.ilri.org/InfoServ/Webpub/fulldocs/South_South/Farmers.htm.
- Kabeer, Naila. 1994. *Reversed Realities: Gender Hierarchies in Development Thought*. London: Verso.
- Karki, N.P.S. 2005. 'Overview of Livestock and Poultry Sector'. In 'Proceedings of National Poultry Expo, Nepal'.
- Madhab, K. 2008. 'Nepal Economic Growth Assessment in Agriculture'. Report Submitted to USAID Nepal. Kathmandu: USAID.
- Manandhar, D.N., 2006. 'Farmer to Farmer (FtF) Diffusion Approach: An Assessment for Future Project Programming and Institutionalizing under Mainstream Extension System under LSGA-1999'. Kathmandu: Sustainable Soil Management Programme.
- Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives. 2005. 'National Agricultural Policy (BS 2061)'. Kathmandu: Government of Nepal.
- _____. 2006a. 'Gender Mainstreaming Strategy of Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives'. Kathmandu: MOAC and ADB.
- _____. 2006b. 'Monitoring and Evaluation System: Working Guideline–Poverty and Excluded Focused Agriculture and Livestock Program'. Kathmandu: M&E Division, Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives, Nepal.
- NARMA. 2006. 'Impact of Fertilizer Deregulation Policy'. Submitted to APPSP, MOAC, Government of Nepal, Singha Durbar, Kathmandu by NARMA Consultancy.
- National Dalit Commission. 2005. 'Citizenship and Land Ownership Status of Dalit Community in Nepal'. Kathmandu: National Dalit Commission.
- National Network for Beijing Review Nepal. 2009. *Report on Beijing+15*. Kathmandu: National Network for Beijing Review Nepal.
- Nayak, P. 1998. 'Economic Development and Social Exclusion in India'. Delhi: Delhi School of Economics, University of Delhi.

- New Era/ILO. 2010. 'Caste and Ethnicity Disaggregation of NLFS, 2008'. Kathmandu: New Era/ILO.
- National Planning Commission. 2005. 'MDG Progress Report'. Kathmandu: National Planning Commission.
- _____. 2008. 'The Three-Year Interim Plan'. Kathmandu: National Planning Commission.
- Paudel, C.L. 2008. 'Assignment End Report on Farmer to Farmer Diffusion'. Kathmandu: Sustainable Soil Management Programme.
- Pokhrel, D.M. and K.P. Pant. 2009. 'Perspectives of Organic Agriculture and Policy Concerns in Nepal'. *Journal of Agriculture and Environment*. 10.
- Poverty Alleviation Fund. 2010. 'Programme Implementation Status'. Kathmandu: Poverty Alleviation Fund.
- Roka, H. 2007. 'Dalit Mukti ra Bhumi Sudhar'. In *Bishesh Adhikar ra Aarakshyanko Rajneeti*, edited by Purna Basnet and Suvash Darnal. pp. 261-276. Kathmandu: Jagaran Media Center.
- Sharma, J. and G. Gurung. 2009. 'Impact of Global Economic Slowdown on Remittance Inflows and Poverty Reduction in Nepal'. Kathmandu: Institute for Integrated Development Studies.
- Shrestha, C.B. and E. Wulff. 2007. 'Overview of Seed Supply Systems and Seed Health Issues'. In *Seed Sector Country Profile: Nepal*, Vol. 1. Copenhagen: Danish Seed Health Centre for Developing Countries.
- Singh, D., A. Subedi and P. Shrestha. 2006. 'Enhancing Farmers' Marketing Capacity and Strengthening the Local Seed System: Action Research for the Conservation and Use of Agrobiodiversity in Bara District, Nepal'. In *Social and Gender Analysis in Natural Resource Management: Learning Studies and Lessons from Asia*, edited by R. Vernooy. Ottawa: Sage. pp. 99-127.
- Singh, M. and K. Maharjan. 2005. 'Dairy Production and Its Implication in Household Income in the Tarai Region of Nepal: A Case Study of Chitwan District'. *Contributions to Nepalese Studies*, 32:2, pp. 213-241.
- Social Inclusion Action Group. 2009. 'Workforce Diversity in Donor Agencies in Nepal'. Kathmandu: Social Inclusion Action Group (SIAG).
- Sustainable Soil Management Programme. 2006. 'Annual Report 2006'. Kathmandu: Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives, Government of Nepal.
- Thapa, S. 2008. 'Gender Differential in Agricultural Productivity: Evidence from Nepalese Household Data'. Trento: CIFREM, University of Trento, December.
- Thapa, Y.B. 2006. 'Constraints and Approach for Improving Fertilizer Supply for Meeting Domestic Demand'. Economic Policy Network Policy Paper 30. Kathmandu: Economic Policy Network/MOF and ADB.
- UNDP. 2004. *Nepal Human Development Report 2004*. Kathmandu: UNDP.
- _____. 2009. *Nepal Human Development Report 2009*. Kathmandu: UNDP.
- UNFPA. 2007. 'Gender Equality and Empowerment of Women in Nepal'. Kathmandu: UNFPA.
- UNIFEM and Government of Nepal. 2008. 'Gender Assessment and Gender Budget Audit in Seven Ministries'. Kathmandu: Ministry of Finance, Ministry of Women and Children and Social Welfare, and UNIFEM.
- United Nations. 2004. 'Report of the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women'. General Assembly, Fifty-ninth Session, Supplement No 38. New York: United Nations.
- United Nations. 2006. 'Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities'. New York: United Nations.

- Upadhyay, B. and K. Bhattarai. 2004. 'Water, Poverty and Gender Issues: Cases from Nepal and India'. Gujarat, Kathmandu: IWMI.
- Wily, L.A. et al. 2009. 'Land Reform in Nepal: Where Is It Coming From and Where Is It Going? The Findings of a Scoping Study on Land Reform for DFID Nepal'. Kathmandu: DFID.
- World Bank. 2006. 'Gender Equality as Smart Economics: A World Bank Group Gender Action Plan (Fiscal Years 2007–10)'. Washington, DC: World Bank.
- _____. 2007. 'Indigenous and Dalit Groups Development Strategy'. Kathmandu: World Bank.
- _____. 2009. 'Interim Strategy Note for Nepal 2009–2012'. Washington, DC: World Bank.
- World Bank/DFID. 2005. 'Gender and Social Exclusion Assessment Report'. Kathmandu: World Bank/DFID.
- _____. 2006. *Unequal Citizens: Gender, Caste and Ethnic Exclusion in Nepal*. Summary. Kathmandu: World Bank/DFID.

Cover photograph by Kiran Panday
Design by Chiran Ghimire
Book design by Norbo Lama

