GENDER AND SUSTAINABLE AGRICULTURE IN BORNO STATE: EXPLORING EVIDENCE FOR INCLUSIVE PROGRAMMES AND POLICIES FOR FOOD SECURITY
Gender Analysis

GENDER AND SUSTAINABLE AGRICULTURE IN BORNO STATE:
EXPLORING EVIDENCE FOR INCLUSIVE PROGRAMMES AND POLICIES FOR FOOD SECURITY

NIGERIA COUNTRY OFFICE
UN WOMEN
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# ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

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<th>Description</th>
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<tr>
<td>CASP</td>
<td>Climate Change Adaptation and Agribusiness Support Programme</td>
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<tr>
<td>CSO</td>
<td>civil society organization</td>
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<tr>
<td>FAO</td>
<td>Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations</td>
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<tr>
<td>FGD</td>
<td>focus group discussion</td>
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<tr>
<td>GBV</td>
<td>gender-based violence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IDP</td>
<td>internally displaced person</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IFAD</td>
<td>International Fund for Agricultural Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMC</td>
<td>International Medical Corps</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INGO</td>
<td>international non-governmental organization</td>
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<tr>
<td>KII</td>
<td>key informant interview</td>
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<tr>
<td>LGA</td>
<td>Local Government Area</td>
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<tr>
<td>MPAYE</td>
<td>Ministry for Poverty Alleviation and Youth Empowerment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSF</td>
<td>Médecins Sans Frontières (Doctors Without Borders)</td>
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<tr>
<td>MWASD</td>
<td>Ministry of Women Affairs and Social Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>SCI</td>
<td>Save the Children International</td>
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<tr>
<td>UN</td>
<td>United Nations</td>
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<td>UNFPA</td>
<td>United Nations Population Fund</td>
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<td>UNICEF</td>
<td>United Nations Children’s Fund</td>
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<td>UN Women</td>
<td>United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women</td>
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<td>WFP</td>
<td>World Food Programme</td>
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<td>WHO</td>
<td>World Health Organization</td>
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Patience Ekeoba
National Programme Officer
UN Women Nigeria
The latest extremist and inter-communal conflict in north-east Nigeria, which has existed since 2009, has had a serious impact on agriculture, livelihoods, and food security. Access to fishing grounds has been reduced; irrigation and farming facilities have been destroyed; and extension services and key agriculture-based value chains have collapsed. The situation has also impacted negatively on market and trade facilities (including fish markets) and the transportation of farm produce. Production has gone down due to mass displacement and the limited access to markets.

The interplay between patriarchal and cultural factors and socio-political and economic weaknesses have exacerbated the plight of women and girls, whose struggle for survival has seen them being sexually exploited and abused; many have had to resort to survival sex. Communication from reliable quarters indicates that between January and April 2018, about 300 cases of rape were reported among internally displaced persons (IDPs). ¹

Some IDPs are beginning to return to their communities of origin, where they often encounter chaos and have few prospects if unassisted. Against this background, the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO), UN Women, and the World Food Programme (WFP) are embarking on a three-year joint project: Restoring and Promoting Sustainable Agriculture-based Livelihoods for Food Security, Employment, and Nutrition Improvement in Borno State, which will seek to build the resilience of conflict-affected people and public-sector institutions in Borno State.

The gender analysis undertaken by the team for this Sustainable Agriculture and Livelihood Improvement Project in Borno State will provide evidence on the gender issues in the area, with a view to ensuring that the needs of women, men, boys, and girls are met and that an inclusive approach is adopted for the planning and implementation of the project.

1 Personal communication between a security agent and the Gender Equality, Peace and Development Centre Executive Director and State Coordinator, May 2018.

Objectives of the study

1. Examine the differential needs of women and men in the target communities in relation to gender, age, and how dominant social norms and power dynamics play out.
2. Understand who has access to and/or control over land and productive resources, as well as food security and other social protection issues among women, men, and households in the face of the conflict and scarce resources.
3. Understand differential vulnerability, barriers, and constraints faced by women and men of different ages in informal and formal institutions (involving people living with disability, elderly people, and youth), in relation to agriculture, livelihoods (including access to market business), and security.
4. Explore strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats to improve women’s and girls’ participation in decision making and policy formulation/review regarding agricultural practices, food security and nutrition, livelihoods, and security in the state.
5. Explore how to mitigate the risk of backlashes and violence that women and girls may face because of their empowerment and involvement in programme implementation and governance.
6. Identify programming opportunities, strengths, gaps, lessons learned, and recommended strategies for designing a gender-responsive
livelihood programme that caters for the needs and interests of women, men, boys, and girls to enhance programme effectiveness that maximizes impact for food security.

Research methods and approaches

Two gender analytical tools were used for the gender analysis: the Harvard Analytical Framework and the Moser Framework. The tools were used to guide all the focus group discussions (FGDs) and key informant interviews (KIIs) at the community level.

The consultant and UN Women developed tools that would capture the required information for the gender analysis around the issues stipulated in the objectives above: Tool 001, designed for the focus group discussions; Tool 002, designed for the key informant interviews at the community level; and Tool 003, designed for the key informant interviews at the state level.

The research team was assisted by 14 research assistants who were selected based on their knowledge of the culture of the people, the terrain, and the local language (Kanuri). They were trained in various aspects of data collection, facilitation skills, ethics, note taking, and transcription, as well as mobilization techniques to enhance their capacity for effective fieldwork delivery.

Six Local Government Areas (LGAs) were selected for the gender analysis – Kaga and Monguno (Borno North Senatorial District); Jere and Konduga (Borno Central Senatorial District); Biu and Gwoza (Borno South Senatorial District). The UN Women team, relevant partners, and officials of the six LGAs jointly selected the target communities, taking into account security and accessibility. Community mobilization was done three days prior to each visit and followed up one day to the main visit, with a phone call as a reminder.

The data collection and data analysis were carried out between 4 June and 5 July 2018 using the developed tools. Two approaches were used – focus group discussions and key informant interviews. A total of 24 FGDs were held across the six LGAs, or four per LGA. Participants included younger women and men (18–30 years) as well as older women and men (over 30 years).

Key informant interviews (KIIs) were conducted at the community level and state level. There were 46 KIs at the community level. At the state level, there were 11 KIs: the Ministry of Women Affairs and Social Development (MWASD), the Ministry for Poverty Alleviation and Youth Empowerment (MPAYE), Borno State Agricultural Development Programme, International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD), international non-governmental organizations (Save the Children International, Oxfam, Street Child), and national non-governmental organizations (Neem Foundation, Samaritan Care, Gender Equality, Peace and Development Centre, and GOAL Prime Organization Nigeria).

In addition to the field data collection, a desk review of literature was carried out, with a special focus on gender, gender relations, the situation of women, and barriers to women’s empowerment.

The field study was purposively designed. The consultants used the Harvard Analytical Framework, the Moser Framework, and an assessment of decisions related to benefits to organize, classify, consolidate, and summarize the data. In analysing the data, the perspectives of all the different stakeholders were highlighted. All qualitative data collected through the study was disaggregated by sex and age. The analysis drew on and made comparisons to existing data sources and secondary data to compare findings.

Key findings

1. Differential needs of women and men in the target communities in relation to gender, age, and how dominant social norms and power dynamics play out

Women are overwhelmingly involved in household tasks, and at the same time are involved in
productive activities. Women in the target communities work about 16 hours per day—cooking, bathing children, washing plates, doing general cleaning of the house, doing farm work, preparing meals, cleaning the kitchen, washing clothes, and preparing children for bed—while the men work fewer than six hours per day, with plenty of hours to rest and meet with other men at the majalissa. As can be seen, the women unfortunately do not have any time to rest.

The results of the study showed that women’s burdens were exacerbated by the conflict in the area, as there are now additional responsibilities related to the survival of the family—women are often breadwinners and heads of households. This is especially true of women who have lost their husbands (9.4 per cent of the female respondents in this study were widows), while there are many women whose husbands are missing or incapacitated.

Prior to the conflict, tradition played a major role in defining the tasks women and men within the study communities can and cannot do. For example, in Konduga tradition forbids a man from cleaning, cooking, or engaging in threshing. Women cannot head households, except when the women have lost their husbands. Only women took care of children. However, the conflict has changed things, and those norms seem not to hold water any more, as women are now going out to work and feed the family. Some are of the view that there are no norms that forbid either sex from carrying out any activity.

The implication of this situation is that women are facing a double burden of domestic and productive responsibilities. In addition to the inherent inequality, there are significant time constraints for women. The study identified some needs based on the roles of women. These include practical gender needs such as firewood, water, food, credit, security, and agricultural inputs; the strategic gender needs identified for the woman farmer include land, decision making power, education, economic empowerment, access to markets, participation, etc. Women need to participate in the sustainable agricultural project in Borno State, but the challenge is how to free up women’s time for effective participation.

**Recommendations**
1. Provision of labour-saving technology for women, including threshing and grinding machines.
2. Sensitization about gender norms and women’s workload.

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2 Majalissa—a cultural and social space where men gather to discuss local events and issues, exchange news, socialize, and be entertained.
3. Training and capacity building for men on gender issues, including gender equality and equity; the importance and recognition of women’s participation in agriculture; gender discrimination in access to agricultural resources; the multiple roles of women and need for support; and gender-based violence and the role of community members in ending it.

4. Improving women’s access to domestic energy, including the provision of fuel-efficient stoves and Emergency SAFE kits (consisting of a lightweight stove and solar lantern for highly mobile IDPs), the planting of fast-growing species of trees to increase household fuelwood supply, and the production of briquettes.

5. Designing participatory strategies that will give women some free time, such as community childcare, customized support, and women-friendly spaces.

2. Access to and control over land and productive resources, food security, and other social protections in the face of conflict and scarce resources

A. Access to land
All of the participants of the FGDs and KIs agreed that both men and women have access to land; women’s access is obtained through renting or through their husbands or male relatives. According to all the respondents at the community level, land for cultivation is becoming scarce; due to fear of attack by insurgents, there are restrictions on agricultural production on land close to the community. In this situation, women are the last to have access to land.

There are no religious norms that prevent women from owning land in the study communities; however, fewer women own land compared to men because ownership is through inheritance or purchase, and women often have fewer resources to purchase than men. Women’s land ownership means security and subsequently access to credit to buy key agricultural inputs and other investments to increase food production, thereby lifting women’s status and her bargaining power in families and communities as well as boosting well-being at the household level. However, some respondents are of the view that a woman’s ownership of land may not give her control over it. Borno State is a highly patriarchal society, and this has serious implications for women’s empowerment and their access to and control of resources, even those they rightfully own. The woman is under the control of the husband, and all that she owns also belongs to him.

When renting land, women cannot cultivate any crop outside of what has been agreed; such restrictions include high-income cash crops such as watermelon. They also cannot plant trees on such lands; trees are a key to sustainable agriculture, especially in a zone where serious deforestation has led to land degradation, which is exacerbated by impacts of climate change.

One of the challenges that must be tackled by the proposed sustainable agricultural project is that of women’s landlessness in the face of diminishing arable land. Women’s participation in the project depends largely on adequate access to land.

Recommendations
1. The Nigeria Land Use Act of 1978 nationalized all land and vested authority in the State Governor, who holds it in trust on behalf of all. In this regard, advocacy workshops must target key stakeholders – government (state and local), traditional and religious leaders,
A gathering of women in an IDP camp in Borno State.
civil society organizations (CSOs), etc. – to put in place strategies that will provide land for female beneficiaries of the project.

2. Working with traditional leaders and LGAs to provide land or facilitate ownership of land. The traditional/community leaders have the authority to give out land and can be approached to give land to women beneficiaries; it may be group possession of land.

3. Provision of money to rent larger plots of land to increase production by women farmers and group possession of land by women should be encouraged.

B. Access to credit

Agricultural credit is seen as one of the strategic resources for crop production, which has led to an increase in the standard of living for the rural poor. There are two main sources of agricultural credit: formal and informal. Farmers in the target communities have not benefitted from the formal sources (bank and government). It is the view of the women that men are more likely to have access because women face barriers such as poor financial literacy and high illiteracy, and hence are unfamiliar with loan procedures, collateral requirements, and negotiating male-dominated banking facilities.

Informal sources of credits were identified – family, friends, adashe (voluntary community savings and credit groups), money lenders, politicians, organizations, and vendors who give goods to farmers on credit. Everyone has access to these informal sources of credits, but access to money lenders is dependent on the size of farms, which of course marginalizes women farmers by virtue of their very small parcels of land. This lack of access of women farmers to money lenders may be a blessing in disguise because of the high interest rate – often double the amount.

Access to credit is critical to the recovery of the agricultural sector and for building the resilience of farmers. The issue of collateral as a huge barrier to accessing credit for low-income farmers resonated at the state-level KIIs.

Recommendations

1. Providing women with greater access to land, finance, and production inputs is critical to closing the productivity gap between men and women. Various sources of formal credit identified in this research should be looked at and strategies developed to facilitate access by rural farmers to such facilities.

2. Awareness is the first step towards access. The partners should work with MWASD, MPAYE, and relevant CSOs to create awareness about these sources of agricultural credit for farmers, the criteria for accessing them, and the linkages with other institutions that may be needed to facilitate access to such facilities.

3. There is a need to incorporate an unconditional cash transfer into the project, especially in the first rainy season when farmers are still trying to rebuild their agricultural assets. The modalities and the delivery mechanisms of such cash-based transfer interventions, however, have to be determined after baseline assessments.

4. Women and girls should also be supported in their non-farm livelihoods to build resilience and hence reduce their vulnerability. This component would also involve mandatory weekly savings contributions for 40 weeks, after which their contributions would be made available to them.

5. Working closely with MWASD, MPAYE, the Ministry of Agriculture, and the Borno State
Agricultural Development Programme to leverage whatever facilities or opportunities are available in these institutions.

6. Facilitation of the emergence of women’s cooperatives/associations for easy access to loans/credit.

C. Access to and control of farmers’ groups/associations

Many farmers’ groups/associations were identified in all the study communities; these include mixed-sex groups and all-female groups organized around the crops that they grow or the farming systems they use. The mixed-sex groups are controlled by men, while women have absolute control of the all-female groups. The latter face challenges such as lack of capital and knowledge, skills/capacity gaps, limited access to and ownership of land, limited leadership skills to run a group, limited financial management skills, and inadequate agricultural inputs.

Recommendations

1. Facilitating women’s participation in farmers’ associations, ensuring that the leadership of mixed-sex farmers’ groups comprise at least 35 per cent women (as per the affirmative action principle of the National Gender Policy), and ensuring that women have equal rights to acquire services and assistance from the association and share the common benefits.

2. There is a need for capacity building and training for women farmers’ associations in the areas of resource mobilization, leadership, financial management, entrepreneurship, and conflict management.

3. UN Women and partners should work through the women farmers’ groups as entry points to their work with women and girls in the target communities.

D. Access to extension services and inputs

Productive agriculture requires the dissemination of information related to production and marketing to farmers. Lack of access to agricultural information is a key contributor to the inability of smallholder farmers, including women farmers, to transit from subsistence to commercialized agriculture. Extension officers play a great role in the dissemination of agricultural information (on improved seeds, fertilizer, pesticides, tools, etc.). As a result of the conflict, Borno State’s 1,750 extension officers have fled from the conflict-affected zones along with the farmers. The findings from the FGDs and KII in the LGAs showed that extension services are almost non-existent in the study communities, with extension workers coming once in a year or once in a while. Women have less access than men to the extension services than men because there is an inadequate number of female extension workers, women are often not aware of the visits, and male extension workers are not allowed to interact with female farmers for cultural reasons.

E. Access to fertilizers

Both male and female farmers have physical access to fertilizers, but economic access is where the challenge is, especially for women farmers. According to respondents, fertilizers from government sources do not reach the farmers, as only those whose names are submitted by politicians can access them. Thus, farmers have to purchase in the open market at exorbitant prices; the ban on the sale of nitrogen-based fertilizers (because of their potential for making improvised explosive devices) has caused scarcity and further price hikes.
F. Access to pesticides
There are pest problems in all the study communities. These include fall armyworm, African armyworm, quelea birds, aphids, stem borers, and fruitworms. In addition, there are fungal and viral diseases and noxious weeds such as Striga. All the farmers spray unspecified pesticides bought from the open market, which may lead to pesticide abuse; access for both men and women depends on the resources they have. Some farmers use traditional methods of control for these pests such as the use of ashes and potash.

G. Access to agricultural equipment
Before the conflict, tractors used to be provided, subsidized by the government, but these are currently individually owned. Both men and women have physical access to such agricultural equipment, but not equal economic access, as men are more likely to have more financial resources. Women have small landholdings and low capital, and hence have limited access to agricultural equipment. Groups of women do come together to contribute money to hire a tractor or animal traction for land preparation. Some farmers also access tractors through registered farmers’ cooperatives connected to agricultural banks; this may need to be explored.

H. Access to training
Training is very important to the success of agricultural production. In all the study locations, respondents reported one form of training or another by UN agencies (FAO and WFP) or international non-governmental organizations (SCI, Plan International, Oxfam). Trainings were on modern farming methods, fertilizer application, storage, pest control, livelihoods, health, gender-based violence, vegetable gardening, etc. Information from KIs at the state level indicates that the Ministry of Agriculture provided information on crop and rice farming, community-based seed enterprises, and agronomic practices for some major crops. The government also conducted training on the use of improved varieties, pests and pesticide application, and post-harvest handling and proper storage of farm produce against infestation.

These are the suggested areas of training: modern agricultural techniques, livelihoods, food fortification and nutrition, processing and utilization of farm produce (especially for women), and conflict management. The following areas are particularly for youth: modern farming technology, agribusiness, marketing and linkages, and the establishment of cooperatives. Awareness must be raised on the importance of conflict-affected youth completing their education (while also pursuing livelihoods).

I. Access to labour
The main sources of agricultural labour in the communities are family and hired labour and the practice of goiyo, in which groups of friends support one another rotationally. There are certain tasks that society has prescribed for men and women. For women, these include seed selection, sowing, watering, threshing, and processing; farming vegetables such as okra and spinach; cultivating groundnuts, sesame, and beans; picking groundnuts and beans; and collecting soup ingredients. For men, traditionally prescribed tasks include ploughing, land preparation, regular monitoring of the farm, harvesting of grains, and weeding of larger grass varieties.

According to respondents’ religion and culture, women were not supposed to be exposed to hard labour. They were only to be involved in those tasks that do not physically drain their energy. Women do the cooking, so the crops they grow are mostly for household consumption. Men’s tasks include operation of sophisticated equipment, hard labour, and large-scale farming. However, the conflict has changed all that, as everyone can now perform any task in the field depending on their ability, and both men and women now contribute to the upkeep of the family.
Recommendations

1. Women’s access to training and information should be improved, as knowledge of farming techniques is critical to productivity. This would mean putting in place robust agricultural extension and training services which should be adapted to rural women’s needs and constraints.

2. Recruitment and training of extension workers, especially female extension workers. The project can liaise with the Borno State Agricultural Development Programme to retrain its pre-conflict pool of extension workers. The project should also link up with the Agricultural Extension Unit within the Ministry of Agriculture with a view to improving services.

3. Creation of awareness about discrimination against women farmers regarding the unequal access to inputs. A Farmer Field School should be established in each project community, with the goal of building farmers’ capacity to analyse their production systems, identify problems, and test solutions.

4. UN Women and partners should link up with relevant ministries, departments, and agencies to ensure access to fertilizer for women farmers and advocate to have qualified dealers and shops with agricultural inputs in the communities for easy access by women farmers, whose mobility is restricted by culture and religion.

5. Provision of assistance to farmers in the following areas: training, improved seeds and crop varieties, fertilizers, pesticides, access to farmland, market support, extension services, agricultural equipment, agricultural credit/loans, funding, post-harvest technologies, safety, security, start-up capital, scholarships for young farmers to complete their education, organization of women, and women’s participation in the agricultural value chain.


3. Differential vulnerability, barriers, and constraints faced by women and men of different ages in informal and formal institutions in relation to agriculture, livelihoods (including access to market business), and security

Vulnerability results from poverty, exclusion, marginalization, and inequities in material consumption, which are conditions determined by physical, social, economic, and environmental factors or processes and increase the susceptibility of an individual to a threat or risk. The general consensus from the gender analysis is that women are the most vulnerable group within the community, and the most vulnerable households are those headed by women. People living with disability were also classified among the highly vulnerable persons.

A. Underlying causes of the vulnerability of men and women farmers of different ages in Borno State

The underlying causes identified by the key informants were: poverty, hunger, and deprivation (negative coping mechanisms); low level of...
Girls collecting water in Borno State
education; gender inequality; lack of access to agriculture inputs, information, and knowledge; lack of access to decision making; lack of farmland and capital; inadequate storage facilities; inaccessibility to good markets; lack of government support for producers; the land tenure system and lack of complementary livelihood activities; lack of farmland; stolen harvests; insecurity; women’s double burden and triples roles; additional burdens for widows who perform agricultural activities; patriarchy and religious misinterpretations.

B. Barriers and constraints faced by men and women in formal and informal institutions in relation to agriculture, livelihoods, and food security

Women and men face many barriers and constraints in the area of agriculture, livelihoods, and food security. According to the responses obtained, they cut across the following: lack of formal education, which prevents them from filling the necessary documents for some services; poor attitudes of some institutions in allocating the equipment and materials needed for agricultural production, etc.; lack of capital; inadequate knowledge; lack of institutionalized apprentice models; lack of support or funding from institutions; insecure tenure of land for farming; lack of farming facilities; lack of extension services; dominance of men in leadership positions in society; cultural and religious barriers.

Though more than 90 per cent of the respondents indicated that women and men have equal access to markets, there are constraints to access by women: production levels are quite low with women farmers, and access is determined by how much produce farmers have for sale; religion and tradition restrict the mobility of women. The overexploitation of women smallholder farmers underscores the need to link women to agricultural value chains, from production all the way to processing and marketing.

Recommendations

1. There is a dire need for enlightenment campaigns and advocacy with relevant institutions to remove the barriers women farmers face accessing their services.

2. Adequate rural extension services should be employed to reach out to remote farmers in small villages who may not have access to agricultural information and technologies. Setting up an apprenticeship model will help people with little or no education get useful life skills and remove or reduce the barriers to entry.
3. Improvement of security and market regulation and provision of capital, implements, energy-saving devices, and additional livelihood options.

4. Provision of loans to both male and female farmers, as well as provision of farming facilities, including a take-off grant for the most vulnerable beneficiaries. A soft loan of about 100,000 naira should be provided for each female farmer to purchase agricultural inputs that will enhance production.

5. Creation of a policy for the urgent allocation of funds for conflict-affected communities. An insurance system should be established to cover farmers, crops, and other assets, such as the Index-based Agriculture Insurance introduced by the National Insurance Commission in collaboration with the Nigeria Incentive-based Risk Sharing System for Agricultural Lending.

6. Since agriculture is the dominant sector for food and nutrition security and livelihood improvement in Borno State, building capacity for staff of the Borno State Agricultural Development Programme (women and men), especially in the areas of gender, gender mainstreaming, and women’s rights, is recommended.

7. Borno State Agricultural Development Programme should conduct appropriate interventions with targeted groups and facilitate discussions regularly.

8. Reaching out to men and boys separately to tackle gender inequality can be done through gender training, advocacy, and sensitization. Mixed-sex engagement can discuss gender norms, roles, and power relations for the establishment of more equitable and respectful relationships.

9. Formal and informal institutions should monitor and ensure equal access in the services they provide for farmers. Institutions should involve women and ensure that women are aware of their agricultural aids and services.

10. The project partners should link up with government through the Ministry for Reconstruction, Rehabilitation and Resettlement in the area of providing accessible roads from the farms to the markets. Government should provide vehicles at subsidized rates to convey goods to the weekly markets.

11. Security agencies should provide security along access roads to the market and within the markets.

12. The project partners should facilitate an inventory of markets destroyed by non-state armed groups, with a view to undertaking advocacy for rebuilding by government (Ministry for Reconstruction, Rehabilitation and Resettlement and the Presidential Initiative for the North-East).

13. Installation of agro-input vendors in the immediate communities, improving the availability of inputs, implements, and tools for farming.

14. Government should break the ‘middleman syndrome’ so that farmers themselves are the ones benefitting from their sweat.

15. Linking women to agricultural value chains, from production all the way to processing and marketing, which will help make traditional farming more productive and commercially viable.

4. Strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats in relation to women’s and girls’ participation in decision making and policy formulation/review of agricultural practices, food security and nutrition, livelihoods, and security in Borno State

There is a general consensus that the participation of women and girls in decision making is very low at all levels. There are very few women in politics in Borno State. For example, there is not a single woman in the Borno State House of Assembly and neither is there a single female local government chairman in the state. At the community level, the trend is the same; it is not unexpected, as religious misinterpretation and culture has worked against women’s participation.

Borno State does not have a state gender policy in agriculture, and the general view is that such
a policy would be crucial to promote and ensure the adoption of gender-sensitive and gender-responsive approaches towards agriculture plans and programmes so that men and women have equal access to and control of productive resources and facilities. Such a policy, which would require technical assistance from partners such as UN Women and FAO, is expected to drastically reduce the vulnerability of women.

**Recommendations**

1. There should be enlightenment campaigns and training programmes for all stakeholders; workshop communiqués that capture the voice of the people should be submitted to key stakeholders such as policymakers and lawmakers and followed up by high-level advocacy and lobbying to ensure that these are included in policy formulation or review.

2. Establishment of steering communities in the target LGAs/communities to guide and monitor the implementation of the project. This committee should comprise community leaders, ward heads, women leaders, and youth leaders.

3. Ensuring that the programme is designed to carry along minority and marginalized groups such as persons with disabilities, IDPs, youth, and survivors of sexual and gender-based violence. Women should be prioritized during the beneficiary selection process. Training/capacity building is recommended to ensure qualitative participation, including participation in agricultural value chains.

4. Recognizing existing organized groups comprised of marginalized persons and building their capacity to participate in the agricultural value chain; a project implementation committee should be established from among these groups.

5. Ensuring that government authorities at all levels recognize women and provide space for them to raise their voices and continue to participate at all levels of the decision-making process.

6. The Borno State government is already making efforts to revamp agriculture and boost food security; the project should link up with the state government to ensure that all steps taken involve community members.

7. Training of relevant partners such as the agriculture secretary, extension officers, and women development officers at the LGA and ward levels to identify the most important agricultural activities and interventions for improving food and nutrition security and household livelihoods (e.g. home gardening and poultry raising), and for addressing constraints and women’s vulnerabilities.

8. Enhancing the capacity of policymakers on gender mainstreaming, capacity development, raising awareness, gender analysis for more reliable data and information, communicating and disseminating findings, and producing policy briefs focused on gender and agriculture.

9. Promotion of the implementation of the Sustainable Development Goals through workshops on bridging the knowledge gap, even among government policymakers implementing the goals.
5. Mitigation of risks of backlash and violence faced by women and girls due to their empowerment and involvement in programme implementation and governance

Borno State is a highly patriarchal society with rigid gender roles and specified domains. The conflict has seen a shift in gender roles: women are now breadwinners and also beneficiaries of livelihood schemes, cash transfers, and other social protection services provided by UN agencies – FAO, WFP, the Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs, – as well as the National Emergency Management Agency, the State Emergency Management Agencies, and various international and local non-governmental organizations (NGOs). This shift in gender roles may result in a backlash against women and girls.

From the findings, the backlashes are already manifesting. Men are already complaining that their wives are becoming unruly and disrespectful, resulting in domestic violence, verbal and psychological abuse, divorce, exclusion, assault, negligence, and denial of education.

Findings have shown that gender-based violence (GBV) is a serious problem in all six LGAs. Pre-conflict GBV identified by the respondents included domestic violence; early marriage; verbal abuse; forced marriage; deprivation of education; rape; wife battering; and incest. GBV during the conflict included: abduction/kidnapping; rape; forced marriage; early/child marriage; sexual exploitation and abuse; domestic violence; psychological/verbal abuse; increasing vulnerability of women and girls arising from various deprivations; stigmatization and rejection of victims of GBV and survival sex.

Recommendations

1. Community sensitization and enlightenment campaigns, mass media and social media platforms, and community-level extension services and employment of trained extension workers will help in creating awareness in communities. This could be done by NGOs, international NGOs (INGOs), religious and community leaders, MWASD and MPAYE, and UN Women.

2. Involving men ab initio in project implementation and sensitizing them on what the project is trying to achieve, as well as working with them for better understanding of and support for women.

3. Proper sensitization of community leaders, husbands (men), and women. Involvement of community leaders in such activities to establish trust among the men and women of the communities.

4. Educating women on their rights; empowering them both financially and in various skills that will help them to be independent.

5. Putting in place strong policies that will deal decisively with the perpetrators of GBV, to serve as a deterrent to others and assist the speedy prosecution of GBV cases, especially rape; setting up a helpdesk that will strictly respond to victims in a confidential and dignified manner, and provide all required support services. In this regard, UN Women should support MWASD and CSOs as they lobby for the domestication of the Violence against Persons Prohibition Act 2015 in the state.

6. Awareness creation to sensitize community members about the availability of GBV services and how to access them.

The prevalence rate of gender-based violence in north-east Nigeria is 30%
7. Development of community mobilization and campaign strategies using existing informal community groups and engaging women, men, boys, and girls to take action against gender-based violence.

8. Establishment of women-friendly spaces for survivors of sexual and gender-based violence and establishment of referral pathways at the local government level. The spaces would have multipurpose functions: skill acquisition centre; childcare centre; medical centre for women; meeting point for agriculture extension meetings; and place for information and experience sharing.

6. Other findings with Implications for programming

Impact of Conflict on Agricultural Production
All the respondents in the FGDs and KIIIs agreed that the conflict has seriously destroyed agriculture through the killing or displacement of farmers, the destruction of assets, and reduced arable land (due to restricting farming to a few kilometres from homesteads). In addition, the restrictions on movement of people in and out of camps hinder access to fields, and restrictions on certain goods such as fertilizers by the military lower agricultural production. In Borno State, grains such as millet, sorghum, and maize are staple crops; however, growing them is prohibited in some communities, as members of non-state armed groups hide among the crops and from there attack both military personnel and civilians.

Impact of conflict on food security and nutrition
The conflict has greatly affected food security in the state. There is scarcity of food due to low food production; there is destruction of agricultural assets and infrastructure, including physical infrastructure, production equipment, animals, seed supplies, and food stocks. Combined with restrictions on the sale of nitrogen-based fertilizers (due to fears that they will be used to make explosive devices), food production has reduced drastically. The influx of IDPs has led to reduced access to food and limited food utilization due to the scarcity of firewood. Malnutrition is being reported across the target LGAs, but is being ameliorated by food supplements from WFP, government, INGOs, NGOs, and individuals. The respondents want the women to be trained in the modern production of nutritious meals from local food materials.

Impact of climate change on agricultural production
The farmers have experienced climate change in the form of rains arriving late and stopping early; drought; rising temperatures; failure of crops; and desertification. Farmers have used the following approaches to mitigate the impacts of climate change: intercropping/mixed cropping, which leads to more farm products on the same farmland; livelihood diversification; use of grasses and mulching to conserve soil moisture; and water harvesting for irrigation.

Gender analysis of crops grown in the study communities
A variety of crops are grown within the target communities: maize, millet, sorghum, okro (okra), roselle, sesame, cucumber, watermelon, tomato, onion, rice, groundnut, Bambara nut, cotton, and various beans and vegetables. The men grow crops for both home consumption and commercial
purposes, while women grow mainly vegetables and beans for family consumption and a little for sale. There are no restrictions on what crops can be grown by either women or men, but growing crops such as cotton, rice, and grains, which require a lot of inputs and energy, is seen as the men’s domain. These crops are the main sources of agricultural income, and women are marginalized from them.

**Livestock husbandry**
Livestock are kept in all the target communities. These include cows, goats, sheep, poultry, and donkeys. All members of the community, from the youth to adults, are involved in livestock farming. Women do own livestock. The general consensus is that women have full control over their own animals, while milk from animals is always for the women, irrespective of whether the animal belongs to her or her husband.

**Farming systems in the target communities**
Respondents identified four main farming systems across the LGAs. These are fishery, irrigation farming, poultry farming, and home gardens (plus agroforestry). While fishery and irrigation farming systems are dominated by men, poultry farming and home gardens are dominated by women. Agroforestry practice is almost non-existent, as what was described by respondents was actually mixed farming.

7. **Programming opportunities, strengths, gaps, lessons learned, and recommended strategies for designing a gender-responsive livelihood programme that caters for the needs and interests of women, men, boys, and girls to enhance programme effectiveness that maximizes impact for food security**

This gender analysis has been carried out to inform gender-transformative programming within target communities that would challenge existing and longstanding gender norms, promote positive and transformative social and political change for women and girls, and address power inequities between men and women. For this, recommendations would be made from three perspectives: programming opportunities and entry points; strategies that can lead to results in the long, medium, and short term; and gaps/weaknesses in terms of what other programmes are not currently addressing and what needs to be addressed in the target communities.

**A. Recommendations for programming opportunities and entry points**

1. Advocacy to gatekeepers at state, LGA, and community levels to create awareness about the project and what it hopes to achieve.

2. Identifying partners and their areas of expertise to leverage these skills in the design and implementation of the programmes.

3. Gender-targeted interventions that promote the rights and empowerment of women farmers through eliminating discrimination and increasing their access to land ownership, agricultural inputs, technology (including LST, which frees women’s time for productive activities), credit, labour, and markets.

4. Promotion of agroforestry, which will not only improve the health of the land, but also be a source of much-needed firewood and reduce the GBV associated with searching for firewood.

5. Establishment of farmers’ groups/cooperatives and strengthening of existing ones.

6. Women should be assisted in those farming systems they dominate by training them on more modern farming techniques for increased production. Women should also be encouraged to go into irrigation farming for year-round production of home garden produce as well as cash crops.

7. Training on modern husbandry systems should be provided to both male and female farmers to increase livestock production.
B. Recommendations on strategies that can lead to results in the long, medium, and short term

1. Establishment of steering committees in the target LGAs/communities to guide and monitor the implementation of the project. These committees will comprise community leaders, ward heads, women leaders, and youth leaders.

2. Strengthening women’s capacities around leadership, decision making, and participation and ensuring that their voices are in the conversations around agriculture, food security, livelihoods, sexual and gender-based violence, advocacy, etc.

3. Increasing women’s literacy level through adult education. The partners should link up with SAME, who have structures on ground in most LGAs; this will increase their access to agricultural information, credit, and financial management services.

4. Strengthening of linkages with ministries, departments, and agencies and other programmes that are working on gender issues and women’s empowerment with a view to addressing gender inequality.

5. Building capacity of programme staff and partner staff to recognize gender inequalities and design programmes to reduce them.

6. Capacity building for programme implementers for consistent and effective gender mainstreaming.

7. Programmes around sexual and gender-based violence, sexual exploitation and abuse, psychosocial support, and trauma healing; also increasing access to basic services.

8. Establishment and operation of women-only Farmer Field Schools, preparing women for leadership roles in extension schemes.

9. Strengthening rural institutions, increasing their gender awareness, and having gender champions within both rural institutions and the target communities.

10. Putting in place a robust monitoring, evaluation, accountability, and learning framework that is flexible enough to incorporate changes.

11. The project partners should develop gender-sensitive indicators for monitoring, evaluation, accountability, and learning.

12. Awareness creation on human rights, laws, and policies for protection and redress. This could be through community and media interventions, using public awareness campaigns to challenge gender norms, stereotypes, discrimination, and gender inequality; capacity should be built on the human rights–based approach to demand service delivery.

C. Recommendations on gaps/weaknesses

The past six years have witnessed an unprecedented humanitarian crisis in Borno State, manifested in the massive displacement of persons. Humanitarian actors have responded with food and non-food aid. Some organizations are beginning to combine humanitarian responses with early recovery initiatives, but there seems to be a gap in these projects related to human rights, literacy, and livelihoods. The project thus will be using a two-pronged approach that meets both the practical gender needs of the farmers and the strategic
gender needs. To achieve this, the following recommendations are made.


2. Incorporating into the project an adult education component to bridge the gap in education between women and girls and men and boys. The expected increase in the level of education will increase women’s and girls’ capacity to benefit from this and other projects.

3. Livelihood support for women through capacity building in financial literacy, as well as mandatory weekly savings by beneficiaries that would provide capital for them to invest at the end of a specified period.

4. Put in place gender-transformative programming that seeks to challenge longstanding gender norms, promote positive and transformative social and political change for women and girls, and address power inequities between men and women.
1. BACKGROUND

Agriculture remains key to achieving the poverty target of the Sustainable Development Goals in Africa. Nearly 80 per cent of the population in sub-Saharan Africa live in rural areas; 70 per cent of the rural population is dependent on farming and livestock production for their livelihood. This small-scale farming provides most of the food produced in Africa and employs 60 per cent of the working population.

Borno State is located in the north-eastern corner of Nigeria. The people are mostly agrarian: 57 per cent of all households are involved in agriculture, with the number higher in rural areas (78 per cent) and lower in urban areas (25 per cent). Over 70 per cent of the active labour force in rural areas is employed in agriculture, with the sector’s national contribution to gross domestic product at 24 per cent. Many of the farmers and food producers are women, who produce about 60 to 80 per cent of the food in the country. The Food and Agriculture Organization of the UN (FAO) indicates that women produce as much as 80 percent of the basic foodstuffs for household consumption and sale in sub-Saharan Africa.

1.1 Profile of Borno State

Borno State is located in north-eastern Nigeria; its capital is Maiduguri. It has an area of 57,799 square kilometres and a population of 4.17 million (2006 census). Borno State occupies the greater part of the Chad Basin and is divided into three senatorial districts: Borno North, comprising ten LGAs – Abadam, Gubio, Guzamala, Kaga, Kukawa, Magumeri, Marte, Mobbar, Monguno, and Nganzai; Borno Central, comprising eight LGAs – Maiduguri, Bama, Konduga, Jere, Kala/Balge, Mafa, Ngala, and Dikwa; and Borno South, comprising ten LGAs – Askira/Uba, Bayo, Biu, Chibok, Damboa, Gwoza, Hawul, Kwaya Kusar, and Shani. The state shares borders with the Republics of Niger to the north, Chad to the north-east, and Cameroon to the east. Within Nigeria, Borno State shares boundaries with Adamawa State to the south, Gombe State to the west, and Yobe State to the north-west.

Agriculture and livestock farming, which are the mainstay of the state’s economy, have vast developmental potential. The state is rich in such crops and products as millet, rice, cassava, dates, fruits, vegetables, sorghum, wheat, sweet potatoes, cowpeas, sugar cane, groundnuts, cotton, and gum arabic, among many others.

1.2 Local Government Area and community selection

The call for proposals indicated 13 local governments in which the sustainable agricultural project was going to be implemented. Bearing in mind the principle of equitable geographical representation, and after a series of conversations among the consultants, UN Women, FAO, and WFP, six LGAs/communities were selected that cut across the three senatorial districts: Jere (Old Maiduguri) and Konduga (Auno) in Borno Central; Kaga (Benisheik) and Monguno (Monguno) in Borno North; and Gwoza (Gwoza) and Biu (Mirnga) in Borno South. The UN Women team, together with the relevant partners and officials of the six LGAs, assisted in selecting the communities under each LGA, taking into account security and accessibility.
1.2.1 Jere

Jere is located in Borno Central Senatorial District, bordering Maiduguri. It comprises 13 villages in an area of 868 square kilometres and a population of 211,204 (2006 census). It is one of the 16 LGAs that constitute the Borno Emirate Council. The people are involved in small-scale agriculture (growing various crops, including rice) as well as animal husbandry and irrigation farming. There are 16 official camps hosting 69,000 IDPs and 15 unofficial camps. Jere LGA was not spared from the conflict, and thousands have fled and returned.

1.2.2 Konduga

Konduga is located in the Borno Central Senatorial District and comprises 14 villages, including the Auno community. Konduga has an area of 6,000 square kilometres and a population of 157,322 (2006 census). It is about 25 kilometres to the south-east of Maiduguri, situated on the banks of the Ngadda River. Most of the inhabitants of Konduga are engaged in subsistence farming, but there is declining soil fertility. Fishing is common. Alau village is well known for irrigation farming, growing most of the tomatoes, peppers, and onions consumed in Maiduguri, with many transported to other parts of the country. The main roads to Cameroon and southern Borno pass through Konduga. Numerous organizations/projects are active there: International Organization for Migration, UNICEF, World Food Program (WFP), World Health Organization (WHO), IMC, International Rescue Committee, UNFPA, and Rural Water Supply and Sanitation Agency. There are 31,500 returnees in Konduga and 11 official camps hosting more than 105,000 IDPs.

1.2.3 Kaga

Kaga LGA comprises 48 villages and is located in Borno North Senatorial District, with its capital at Benisheikh. It is located in western Borno and has an area of 2,700 square kilometres and a population of 90,015 (2006 census). It is located on the main road between Maiduguri and Damaturu. The people are involved in transhumant pastoralism, subsistence farming, and small trade. It is a major centre for producing and trading in watermelons. The following organizations/projects are active in the area: International Organization for Migration, UNICEF, WFP, World Health Organization (WHO), IMC, International Rescue Committee, UNFPA, and MSF Spain.

1.2.4 Monguno

Monguno is located in Borno North Senatorial District about 140 kilometres from Maiduguri, with an area of 1,913 square kilometres and a population of 109,851 (2006 census). It is one of the 16 LGAs that constitute the Borno Emirate Council. The people depend mainly on agriculture (both rainfed and irrigation farming) and fishery, which is a major source of their income. The following organizations are present and active in Monguno: International Organization for Migration, Action Against Hunger, Alliance for International Medical Action, the Centre for Corrections and Human Development, International Rescue Committee, MSF France, Norwegian Refugee Council, Partners Outside HRP, UNICEF, WHO, Borno State MWASD, UNFPA, and Rural Water Supply and Sanitation Agency. There are 31,500 returnees in Monguno and 11 official camps hosting more than 105,000 IDPs.

1.2.5 Gwoza

Gwoza is located in Borno South Senatorial District, comprising 29 wards. It has a total area of 2,883 square kilometres and a population of 276,312 (2006 census). The capital for the local government is Gwoza. The people are involved in subsistence farming, trade, and transhumant pastoralism. The terrain, which includes the Gwoza Hills and the Mandara Mountains, is rocky and hilly. The following organizations are present and active in Gwoza: Social Welfare Network Initiative, WFP, UNICEF, WHO, Borno State Ministry of Health, State Primary Health Care Development Agency, Danish Refugee Council, International Organization for Migration, and Oxfam. Gwoza has 16,000 returnees and three official camps.

1.2.6 Biu

Biu is located in Borno South Senatorial District, comprising 30 wards. It has an area of 3,423 square kilometres and a population of 175,760 (2006 census). Much of the LGA is in the northern Guinean savannah zone. The people are involved
in mixed agriculture based on livestock and crop farming. The agriculture consists mostly of small farms using traditional methods. There is also a small mining industry extracting iron ore, gravel, magnesite, uranium, topaz, granite, aquamarine (beryl), nephelite (nepheline), and salt. The following organizations are active in the area: CAI, Education Crisis Response, Ekklesiyar Yan’uwa a Nigeria, IMC, UNICEF, WHO, Care for Life, SCI, Borno State MWASD, and UNFPA. There are about 8,360 returnees and one unofficial camp.  

1.3 Agriculture and the conflict in Borno State

Mijindadi⁴ has asserted that in Nigeria women are responsible for about 70 per cent of actual farm work, and constitute up to 60 per cent of the farming population. Paradoxically, the poorest of the poor are often women and young girls. World Bank reports classified 63 per cent of the country as poor, with the poverty incidence highest for agricultural households.⁵ National food security and nutrition are closely tied to these smallholder farmers. These enormous contributions that women make to food production and food security are hardly recognized and are poorly documented. Patriarchal norms and practices ensure that there are many inequalities, reflected in the challenges, constraints, and discrimination that women farmers face on a daily basis—challenges that need to be understood and addressed in the fight against poverty and food insecurity. These inequalities mostly involve the unequal distribution of resources, benefits, opportunities, or decision-making powers. Women typically have limited access to land, education, information, credit, technology, and decision-making power. Inequality in access to and control of assets severely limits women’s ability to provide food, care, and health and sanitation services to themselves, their husbands, and their children.⁶

It is against this background that, over the last few decades, many donors and implementing agencies, including the World Bank, the International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD), and FAO, have expanded their programmes and activities in land policy and administration. Land policy and administration projects unfortunately can contribute inadvertently not only to gender inequality, but also to more general social inequality by supporting individuals who already have the advantage of wealth, power, or custom, to the disadvantage of those who are poor and vulnerable. Gender inequality can be diminished when women’s rights are explicitly considered and when women participate in designing and implementing land policy and programmes. The extremism-related conflict in Borno State since 2009 has exacerbated existing inequalities and has resulted in over 2 million people displaced from their communities into IDP camps and host communities. The International Organization for Migration Displacement Tracking Matrix Round XXI (February 2018) indicates that 77 per cent of the total amount of 1.78 million IDPs in Nigeria are located in Borno State, with Adamawa State accounting for 9 per cent and Yobe State for 6 per cent. About 80 per cent of the IDP population are women and children, and they are at constant risk of grave human rights violations and sexual and gender-based violence.

The conflict has prevented normal farming, fishing, and herding operations from being carried out. Farming activities in the conflict-affected communities in Borno have ceased, as farmers have fled, leaving most of their assets and livelihoods behind. In many cases, they end up as displaced persons in communities where they have few claims to land or in camps managed by the international humanitarian community. Fleeing populations also include extension agents of the Borno State Agricultural

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Development Programme. The conflict, coupled with unfriendly climate conditions, has negatively impacted livelihoods and food security, especially for the estimated 80 to 90 per cent of the population in the area who are dependent on agriculture, fisheries, and livestock for their livelihoods. The impact of the conflict on agriculture is estimated to be USD 3.7 billion. Access to fishing grounds has been reduced, irrigation and farming facilities have been destroyed, and extension services and key agriculture-based value chains have collapsed. The situation has also impacted the transportation of farm produce and market and trade facilities (including fish markets). It has reduced production due to mass displacement and limited access to markets. Fear of looting and attacks has prevented farmers from working in their fields, leading to reduced harvests, a loss of productive assets, and extremely reduced purchasing power.

The conflict situation has negatively impacted men, women, boys, and girls in Borno State in different ways and changed household and community dynamics. In the camps and host communities, IDPs are dealing with a serious humanitarian crisis: inadequate shelter, food, and water, sanitation, and hygiene facilities; sexual and gender-based violence; and hunger. In 2017, it was estimated that more than 6 million people are facing the threat of severe hunger; this could get worse, as there are people in communities who cannot be reached. According to a report by the Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs in April 2017, the prevalence of food insecurity remained high, particularly among IDPs and refugee returnees whose livelihood opportunities are limited. Nearly 4.7 million people are in need of food (Famine Early Warning Systems Network – Crisis, Emergency, and Famine phases), a number that was projected to increase to 5.2 million between June and August 2017 in the three most affected states. Over 65,000 people were already living in famine in pockets of north-east Nigeria, and over 1 million people were one step away from famine.

1.4 The sustainable agriculture project

About two years ago, some IDPs began to return to their LGAs of origin, though some have remained within the LGA headquarters, as the hinterland has remained unsafe. To resume their agricultural livelihoods, these IDPs require support. In response, FAO, UN Women, and WFP are embarking on a three-year joint project: Restoring and Promoting Sustainable Agriculture-based Livelihoods for Food Security, Employment and Nutrition Improvement in Borno State. It will seek to build the resilience of conflict-affected people and public sector institutions in Borno State, with two broad objectives:

1. Enhancing social protection, through the creation of employment and the promotion of environment- and climate-friendly livelihood opportunities (with a special focus on women, youth, and vulnerable households) in 13 LGAs in Borno State, with the aim of increasing access to basic needs, significantly reducing malnutrition, and strengthening resilience in communities affected by the conflict.

2. Supporting resilience in terms of food security and the wider economy; this includes basic services for local populations (particularly the

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**Statistics:**

- **70%** Farm work done by women in Nigeria
- **77%** Borno State’s share of the total number of IDPs in Nigeria
- **80%** Women and children within the IDP population
most vulnerable and including refugees and displaced people) related to food and nutrition security, health, education, social protection, and environmental sustainability.

The project will target women and youth, with the participation of men. To ensure that the differential needs of men, women, boys, and girls are met in the programming cycle, this gender analysis was carried out as part of the project’s inception activities. The gender analysis – which constitutes the merging of local knowledge and external ‘expert’ knowledge in assessing local needs, problems, opportunities, and prioritization of issues through participatory surveys, discussions, and interaction – will shape beneficiary targeting, with adapted programming (including training tools, sensitization, and advocacy) to take the outcomes of the gender analysis into account.

1.5 Sustainable agriculture and food and nutrition security

Sustainable rural livelihoods (ensuring quality of life and sustainability of the production systems) in Nigeria depend on agriculture and natural resources (forests, trees, soil, water, fisheries); indeed, agriculture is the lifeline of the rural economy. Women play important roles as farmers, food producers, and natural resource managers. Though major contributors to food production and food security, women’s contributions are hardly recognized and are poorly documented. Women also carry out informal activities (unpaid care activities) that are not officially accounted for in the systems of national accounts, thereby undervaluing their contributions and overlooking the impact of their activities on the overall development of the economy.

This poor documentation and non-recognition may not be unconnected to social constructs and cultural inclinations that value everything male as superior to everything female. In Nigeria, patriarchy guides roles, responsibilities, laws, policies, norms, and practices. Patriarchy is defined as a system of male supremacy and female subordination that is strengthened by value systems and cultural norms that propagate the notion of women’s inferiority. In Nigeria, gender relations, which are the ways in which a culture or society defines rights, responsibilities, and the identities of men and women in relation to one another, are informed by patriarchy. Often this relationship is tilted in favour of men, giving more power to the men and creating inequalities in terms of power, decision making, access to resources, and benefits. The inequalities arising from patriarchal norms are also reflected in the challenges, constraints, and discrimination women farmers face on a daily basis. These challenges need to be understood and addressed in the fight against poverty and food insecurity.

Agriculture is most accurately and usefully understood as an umbrella term denoting a wide range of activities – crop, livestock, and fisheries value chains – that link farmers and rural people with livelihoods and food and nutrition security. Agriculture continues to be the main source of income among the rural poor, and farmers depend on agriculture for their wealth creation, improved livelihoods, and food and nutrition security. However, the impacts of conflict on food security and nutrition are significantly worse when the conflict is protracted and compounded by weak institutional response capacity and other stress factors, such as vulnerability to climate change (FAO 2017). This is the situation in the north-east of Nigeria, where the conflict is part

90% of residents of north-eastern Nigeria depend on agriculture
of a long history of chronic underdevelopment and higher rates of poverty, illiteracy, unemployment, and food insecurity. Long-standing environmental degradation has affected the livelihoods of farmers as well as fishermen in the Lake Chad region. The shrinking of Lake Chad is a major cause of conflict itself, as there is increased competition for the shrinking resources. In general, the situation in the area has reduced benefits, vibrant livelihoods, and food and nutrition security.

Food security at the individual, household, national, regional, and global level is achieved when all people at all times have physical, social, and economic access to sufficient, safe, and nutritious food to meet their dietary needs and food preferences for a healthy and active life (FAO 2001). Food security is essentially built on three pillars: food availability, food access, and food utilization. An individual must have access to sufficient food of the right dietary mix (quality) at all times to be food secure. Those who never have sufficient quality food are chronically food insecure. Those whose access to an adequate diet is conditioned by seasonality are food insecure and are generally called seasonally food insecure. Individuals who normally have enough to eat but become food insecure in the face of disasters triggered by economic, climatic, and civil shocks (war and conflict) are transitorily food insecure (Anegbeh 2010, 2016). The ‘at all times’ element of the food security definition makes risk and associated vulnerability an important element of the food security concept.

Agricultural production in sub-Saharan Africa is predominantly from small-scale farming (Anegbeh 2015), with more than 50 per cent of the agricultural activities performed by women; they produce about 60 to 70 per cent of the food in this region. A gender division of labour characterizes this system of production, based on patriarchal norms that ascribe household roles to the woman and those related to cash income to the man. Crop production, livestock, and aquaculture provide income generation, employment creation, and improved food and nutrition security across different production systems and along different value chains (millet, sorghum, maize, meat, dairy, live animals, hides, eggs, fish, etc).

Agriculture is central to the livelihoods of the rural poor and to the attainment of the Sustainable Development Goals. Agriculture can be an engine of growth and is necessary for reducing poverty and food insecurity, particularly in sub-Saharan Africa (IFAD 2001, World Bank 2007a). Understanding the dynamic processes of change is crucial to better positioning the sector for faster growth and sustained development, which is vital for food and livelihood security for millions of men and women worldwide.

1.6 Gender issues within Nigeria’s agriculture sector

Gender equality is crucial for agricultural development and the attainment of the Sustainable Development Goals. The Global Monitoring Report 2007 on gender equality defines it as equal access to the ‘opportunities that allow people to pursue a life of their own choosing and to avoid extreme deprivations in outcomes’ and highlights gender equality in rights, resources, and voice (World Bank 2007b). Most of the gender issues in agriculture have their roots in gender inequality. The most common involve the non-recognition of the productive activities of women and the unequal distribution of resources, benefits, opportunities, and decision-making powers. Women are responsible for half of the world’s food production, and in most developing countries produce between 60 and 80 per cent of the food, yet they continue to be regarded as home producers or assistants on the farm and not as actual farmers and economic agents. Women also typically have limited access to land, education, information, credit, technology, and decision-making power.

Land is a very crucial farm resource, without which there would be no agricultural production. Unfortunately, patriarchal structures and authorities give more resources to men, resulting in women having less access to productive resources, including land. In many developing countries, land is predominantly owned by men and transferred inter-generationally to males. Some religious laws forbid female ownership of land. Even when civil
Resident of an IDP camp in Borno State
law gives women the right to inherit land, local custom may rule otherwise. Women’s access to land is through their husbands or male relatives, thereby increasing their dependence on men. And even where women hold parcels of land, they are small, less fertile, and less conducive to efficient farming practices.

Lack of access to loans and credit is also a major hurdle for women. Women farmers face more credit constraints than male farmers. This is especially true of women farmers in rural areas, where access to formal financial facilities is limited. Women receive only a small fraction of assistance for agricultural investments; women in Africa receive less than 10 per cent of small farm credit and access only 1 percent of available credit in the agricultural sector. This has been attributed to their lack of collateral and consequently their inability to obtain credit, limiting their ability to purchase agricultural tools, seeds, and fertilizer or to hire labour that could increase their crop production. Another cause is the high rate of illiteracy, which limits women’s access to information, available on-farm resources, and improved technological innovations. Even where credit is available without collateral, women’s illiteracy and lack of familiarity with loan procedures may limit their access; the predominantly male credit officers are another barrier.

Women also have unequal access to information and improved technology. Productive agriculture requires the dissemination of information related to production and marketing to farmers. The lack of access to agricultural information is a key contributor to the inability of smallholder farmers, including women farmers, to transit from subsistence to commercialized agriculture. Extension officers play a great role in the dissemination of agricultural information. In Nigeria, male extension workers, who mostly relate to male farmers, dominate extension services. Women receive only 5 per cent of agricultural extension services worldwide. This has serious implications for those areas where religion and culture forbid the interaction of men and women.

Women often do not have the appropriate technology, tools, and inputs to farm productively. Because of the unequal control of resources, when men and women grew the same crop on individual plots, women were at a disadvantage; most inputs such as labour and fertilizer went to the men’s plots. Due to lack of access to improved technologies, women still use crude traditional implements in food crop production. Sometimes technologies are developed without considering the differences between men and women, resulting in the inability of women to use such technologies.

Appropriate technology packages have been developed to ease rural farm tasks such as weeding, fertilizer application, harvesting, and storage, but the cost of such technologies has kept them out of reach for women farmers. Often, such improved technologies are not cost-effective on the small...
plots that women farm. Lack of technical knowhow and cultural norms have also limited the extent to which female farmers have been able to adopt the technologies.

Women have inadequate access to markets, and this hampers their opportunity to earn income. Reasons for this include the following: religion and culture, which restrict women’s movement; women are tied to their homes as the primary caretakers of children; and women lack access to transportation (e.g. vehicles, bikes, horses, donkeys, oxen, or carts) because of scarcity or because males control such means of transport. Additionally, insecurity is a major deterrent to market access.

Many reports have indicated that women’s productivity can be at least equal to men’s if they are given the same opportunity. FAO estimates that a 4 per cent increase in food output could be achieved if women had equal access to resources, and that this could reduce the number of hungry people by up to 150 million.

1.7 The gender dimension of the armed conflict in Borno State

Many armed conflicts are not gender neutral. Women and men are exposed to different forms of rights violations during armed conflicts; while both are exposed to violence, men are more likely to be targets of gun violence, and women are mostly affected by GBV. Highlighted below are some of the gender issues in the conflict in north-east Nigeria.

1.7.1 Internal displacement

The majority of IDPs in camps and host communities are women and children. There they have reduced access to resources, meaning they are less able to cope with household responsibilities. They also face increased physical and emotional violence.

1.7.2 Indirect consequences of the conflict

Some indirect consequences include the breakdown of public service provision infrastructure, which leads to the non-delivery of essential services; limited access to food and water; poor sanitation and hygiene; weak or collapsed health services; increased displacement and family dislocation; and family stress and domestic violence. These ‘indirect’ consequences have the biggest role in shaping people’s lives and livelihoods in the aftermath of conflicts, and women and girls often bear the brunt.

1.7.3 Sexual and gender-based violence

GBV refers to any act of violence that results in, or is likely to result in, physical, sexual, or psychological harm or suffering to women, girls, boys, or men on the basis of gender, while sexual violence is ‘any sexual act, attempt to obtain a sexual act, or other act directed against a person’s sexuality using coercion, by any person, regardless of their relationship to the victim, in any setting’. Women have undergone horrible violation of their rights as a result of the conflict. They have been raped, tortured, and forced into sex slavery or marriage.

As a result, they have experienced pregnancies and abortions and various grave violations of their rights, in addition to displacement and social discrimination. Sexual and gender-based violence

The prevalence rate of gender-based violence in north-east Nigeria is 30%.

has become pervasive, with multiple perpetrators (security personnel, weapons bearers, camp elders, people from the camp environment, etc.) and multiple locations (in the camps, on farm roads and paths, on the farms, in the communities, etc.). An unofficial communication between a security agent and the Gender Equality, Peace and Development Centre in May 2018 indicated that from January 2018 to April 2018, over 300 cases of rape had been reported.

1.7.4 Abduction of women and girls

In April 2014 in Chibok, 276 girls were abducted, while in Dapchi in 2018, 110 girls were abducted. Before the Chibok girls, there had been other abductions from schools, but not on such a massive scale. Not only schoolgirls have been abducted — women and girls who were on the streets hawking, working on the farm, or travelling have also been taken.

1.7.5 Food scarcity and inequalities in food distribution

The conflict has resulted in food scarcity, and for survival IDPs have had to depend on food aid from UN agencies, the government (National and State Emergency Management Agencies), non-governmental and civil society organizations, and private individuals and foundations. Women and girls are more susceptible to food insecurity and malnutrition and suffer more consequences, including survival sex and exposure to sexually transmitted infections such as HIV, herpes, and hepatitis.

1.7.6 Shifts in gender roles and responsibilities

Both women and men have experienced a shift in roles. Demographic change due to the conflict has led to more women becoming heads of households, creating new opportunities for such women in training and development programmes in health and education, as well as in income-generating activities. The skills these women gain enable them to assume new roles within their households, becoming the main breadwinners when men have died or have become unemployed. This shift represents a move away from stereotypically ‘masculine’ and ‘feminine’ roles. However, men may react to these changes with depression, alcoholism, and an escalation of violence against women in public and private. The relatively small gains women obtain during displacement do not necessarily translate to more equitable gender relationships. Women may have new roles to fulfil, but might not have the institutional leverage to fulfil them effectively.

1.7.7 Reduced access of girls to education

Education facilities have been destroyed by the insurgents, exacerbating an already dire situation for girls. The statistics are gloomy: 952,029 school-age children have been forced to flee the violence in the north-east, 600 teachers have been killed, 19,000 teachers have been displaced, 1,200 schools have been damaged, and overall 600,000 children have lost access to learning. In IDP camps, about 75 per cent of the children do not attend school; in host communities, where up to 81 per cent of the displaced have found refuge, the educational resources are stretched even further. Attacks on schools, exemplified by the abduction of 276 girls from a school in Chibok, has raised community concerns about the safety of school attendance. Schools in Maiduguri were closed for more than two years as they were converted into IDP camps.

1.8 Impact of armed conflicts on food security in Borno State

Armed conflicts have a very negative impact on all the components of food security, from availability through to access, utilization, and stability. Conflicts often reduce food availability by preventing normal farming, fishing, and herding operations as farmers flee conflict-affected areas. For the past five years or so, farming activities in the conflict-affected communities in Borno State have ceased
The conflict in north-east Nigeria has devastated the agricultural sector and has greatly affected both food security and women’s security as farmers have fled – leaving most of their assets and livelihoods behind. In many cases, they end up as displaced persons in camps or in communities where they have few claims to land. Fleeing populations also include the extension agents of the Borno State Agricultural Development Programme. Concern about the presence of landmines on farmland has also limited agricultural production in the state. In addition to all this, agricultural assets and production equipment (animals, seed supplies, and food stocks) are being destroyed and farmers are being killed.

Armed conflicts also reduce access to food; as populations are forcibly displaced by violent conflict, they suffer the greatest reductions in their access to food due to loss of livelihoods, and hence loss of income and attendant power. Conflict also leads to an increase in food prices; with limited financial resources, most households become food insecure and quickly become dependent on international assistance. The number of people in need far outweighs the amount of food assistance, and only a portion of those directly affected receive food deliveries or income support to ensure food security. They then confront inflated market prices as traders anticipate the growth in demand and/or raise their prices to cover the costs associated with increased risk, especially when conflict is ongoing. The cost of transportation increases as fewer and fewer motorists agree to go to conflict-affected areas. Also, due to the general lack of physical security in conflict zones, people may simply not feel safe traveling to markets.

Food utilization is a measure of how well food supplies are used to promote consumers’ health and productivity. Conflicts affect food utilization in many ways, making preparation and storage of food more complicated. In some areas of Borno State, the rate of acute malnutrition in children under five in 2016 was over 50 per cent; about 450,000 children were suffering from severe acute malnutrition. The Governor of Borno State on 8 August 2016 said that his state was ‘hanging between malnutrition and famine...people [were] dying like flies’. Children were dying in Bama, having no food, clean water, or medical care – a tragic manifestation of the humanitarian fallout of the conflict. In the camps, despite more food being available, collection of fuelwood and clean water for the preparation of food became dangerous for women and children.

The reduced access to health care seems to have had a major impact on food utilization. The killing or flight of trained health workers and the lack of public financing for medication and vaccinations exacerbate the loss of public health services. Many of the 3,000 health facilities in the three north-eastern states have been completely destroyed, while some have been partially destroyed or closed down due to lack of staff and medication. It is estimated that 37 per cent of such facilities, especially primary health care centres in the rural communities, are affected. In 2017, around 6.9 million people needed humanitarian health services, including more than 1.7 million IDPs across camps in the three states.

About 64 per cent of the health facilities across Borno State are completely or partially destroyed. Only 288 facilities out of 749 are functional, but they are overburdened and suffer from power cuts and water shortages. Making matters worse, there was an outbreak of deadly Lassa fever, there is an already elevated risk for meningitis, and cholera and malaria are major issues, especially during the rainy season (there was a recent outbreak of
cholera in IDP camps in Borno State). Very high mortality and morbidity rates are routinely reported among populations affected by the conflict. Along with food, health services such as vaccinations are often provided in camps that receive international humanitarian support, but overcrowding and poor shelter conditions give rise to epidemics of communicable diseases, which often prove fatal in populations with poor nutritional status.

1.9 Objectives of the gender analysis

The objectives of the gender analysis are as follows:

1. Examine the differential needs of women and men in the target communities in relation to gender, age, and how dominant social norms and power dynamics play out.

2. Understand who has access to and/or control over land and productive resources, as well as food security and other social protection issues among women, men, and households in the face of the conflict and scarce resources.

3. Understand differential vulnerability, barriers, and constraints faced by women and men of different ages in informal and formal institutions (involving people living with disability, elderly people, and youth), in relation to agriculture, livelihoods (including access to market business), and security.

4. Explore strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats to improve women’s and girls’ participation in decision making and policy formulation/review regarding agricultural practices, food security and nutrition, livelihoods, and security in the state.

5. Explore how to mitigate the risk of backlashes and violence that women and girls may face because of their empowerment and involvement in programme implementation and governance.

6. Identify programming opportunities, strengths, gaps, lessons learned, and recommended strategies for designing a gender-responsive livelihood programme that caters for the needs and interests of women, men, boys, and girls to enhance programme effectiveness that maximizes impact for food security.
2. RESEARCH METHODS AND APPROACHES

2.1 Gender analytical tools used in the study

Two gender analytical tools were used for the gender analysis: the Harvard Analytical Framework and the Caroline Moser Framework. The tools were used to guide all the FGDs and the KIIs at the community level. The Harvard Analytical Framework maps the work and resources available to women and men and highlights the differences. It discovers who does what in terms of productive and reproductive roles and who has access to and control of which resources.

The framework also helps identify the factors that influence gender relations and gendered opportunities and constraints. In addition, the framework enables the development of a checklist for project cycle analysis, in which sex-disaggregated data is used to capture how social change affects men and women differently. The framework looks at the activity profiles of men and women, assesses access to resources and benefits, and examines the influencing factors that cause the gender division of labour, access, and control and thus determine different opportunities and constraints for men and women.

The second tool, the Caroline Moser Framework, aims at emancipating women from their subordinate state and having them achieve equality, equity, and empowerment. This framework analyses women’s triple roles and their practical and strategic gender needs.

2.2 Development of data collection tools

The consultant and UN Women developed tools that would capture the required information for the gender analysis around the issues as stipulated in the objectives of the gender analysis in Section 1.8 above.

These tools were: Tool 001, designed for the focus group discussions; Tool 002, designed for the key informant interviews at the community level; and Tool 003, designed for the key informant interviews at the state level.

2.3 Management of the research process

The research team comprised the two consultants, the UN Women Programme Officer, and 14 research assistants. The research assistants were trained through a methodology workshop. The training covered the objectives of the gender analysis, methods and tools, translation of some of the unfamiliar words and terms into Kanuri and Hausa (which, together with English, were seen as the likely languages for conducting the interviews), facilitation skills, ethics, notetaking, and transcription.

The research assistants were also taken through a process of familiarization on the study locations and mobilization techniques. Their individual roles were defined and guidance provided for community entry and collection of data in the field. The research assistants were selected based on their
knowledge of the culture of the people and the terrain; fluency in the local language (Kanuri); availability; and experience in the selected communities.

2.4 Community mobilization

Each study community was mobilized three days prior to the research visit to ensure that the targets were reached. During the mobilization process, community leaders were mobilized, and they in turn informed the required persons (from various categories). This was followed up a day to the main visit with a phone call as a reminder. This was found to be very effective; sometimes the team had more participants than required and had to limit them by using a numbering system (those without a number do not participate).

2.5 Desk review

Using the research questions, which are well described in the gender analysis problem statement, secondary data was gathered online and from existing studies by relevant partners (FAO, WFP, IFAD-CASP, etc.). The process was cognizant of the data’s original purpose, the relevance to UN Women’s mandate, the credibility of the data (including when it was collected, the questions asked, and shape of the data).

2.6 Collection of data

The data collection was carried out in June and July 2018 using the tools described in Section 2.2. The data collection was done through focus group discussions and key informant interviews.

2.6.1 Focus group discussions

There were four focus group discussions in each selected community, comprising younger women (18–30 years), younger men (18–30 years), older women (over 30 years), and older men (over 30 years); thus there were 24 FGDs across all six communities. Each FGD involved 10 to 12 persons. The total number of FGD respondents was 286 – 150 females and 136 males. Of these, 73.7 per cent were married and 14.1 per cent, 9.7 per cent, and 2.4 per cent were single, widowed, and divorced respectively.

2.6.2 Key informant interviews

Key informant interviews were conducted at two levels (community level and state level) using Tools 002 and 003 respectively.

At the community level, a minimum of six key informants were interviewed. There were 46 key informants across the selected communities: community and religious leaders, male opinion leaders, female opinion leaders, women or men living with disabilities, IDPs and returnees, youth leaders (male/female), local security, and representatives of cooperatives.

At the state level, the key informants comprised representatives of the following: Ministry of Women Affairs and Social Development, Ministry for Poverty Alleviation and Youth Empowerment, Borno State Agricultural Development Programme, International Fund for Agricultural Development, international non-governmental organizations (Save the Children International, Oxfam, Street Child), and civil society organizations (Neem Foundation, Samaritan Care, Gender Equality, Peace and Development Centre, and GOAL Prime Organization Nigeria).

2.7 Data analysis

The field study was purposively designed. In analysing the data, the perspectives of all the different stakeholders were highlighted. All qualitative data collected through the study was disaggregated by sex and age. The analysis drew on and made comparisons to existing data sources and secondary data to compare findings. The data was collected directly from interviewees using questionnaires.
The qualitative data was entered into computers, sorted, organized, coded, and interpreted. The qualitative data collected and the findings were analysed using descriptive statistics.

The information obtained from the key informants and FGDs were transcribed (verbatim) from conversations and studied to identify thematic categories. The data was analysed inductively and larger volumes of narrative information coded and analysed. The time diary reports that were collected in the six LGAs were analysed, and the impact of the daily activities on women’s time was ascertained. The data was further grouped into tables, interpreted in percentages, and presented in graphs and pie charts for easy reading and interpretation.

2.8 Limitations of the study

In line with the study plan, the research team visited almost all the target LGAs to collect information. The research team could not go to Gwoza – they were unable to get slots for the chopper, as flights were overbooked. The team therefore relied on information from IDPs of Gwoza origin in Christian Association of Nigeria Centre Camp and Gwoza Bakassi Camp within Maiduguri town. These persons are currently involved in some farming activities, though on a very small scale.

The team was also unable to visit Monguno. Most of the people from the town have been displaced and now reside in Maiduguri – in Bakassi Camp and host communities. On the advice of local government staff, information was collected from the IDPs of Monguno origin in Bakassi Camp. As with the Gwoza IDPs, they are engaged in small-scale farming.
Women holding a meeting in an IDP camp in Borno State
3. KEY FINDINGS

3.1 Activity profiles of the respondents

3.1.1 Household activities

Figure 2 indicates the activity profile of women and men, boys and girls before (B) and during (D) the ongoing conflict under the various household tasks. The findings show that women are still more involved than men in household activities after the conflict; what has changed is that women now head households and participate in decision making. Regarding whether there were traditional norms that prescribe what women, men, boys, and girls can do, the answers varied. There were those that said there are norms embedded in the tradition that forbid a man from cleaning, cooking, or engaging in threshing (Konduga) and forbid women from heading households. Others are of the view that there are no norms that forbid either sex from carrying out any activity.

The details of the household activity profiles of community members before the conflict, disaggregated by LGA, are presented in Annex 2. Cleaning was done by only women, girls, and boys prior to the conflict, and this has not changed with the conflict; the practice remains the same, except in Biu where 2.5 per cent of men were involved in cleaning. Before the conflict, women, men, girls, and boys fetched firewood, but after the conflict men were more involved in other categories. In Monguno and Kaga, fewer women were involved in the collection of firewood, probably as a result of restrictions imposed on women's mobility and hard labour (cultural and social factors cited by some respondents). During the insurgency, men and women were less involved in the collection of firewood and girls and boys became more involved.

Grass, animal dung, and charcoal were also collected, as these are used as alternatives in most of the study communities. Food preparation is the responsibility of women and girls, except in Jere where boys also began to get involved. The involvement of women in taking care of children ranged from 65 per cent in Monguno to 100 per cent in Jere, placing this responsibility on the shoulders of women. Such care tasks and other household chores use up women's time. This time constraint should be considered in the project design and implementation, as the project strategizes about how to free women's time for paid productive jobs.

Heading households and decision making was predominantly the domain of the men, but the crisis has led to an increase in the proportion of women heading households — because the husbands have been killed, are missing, or became incapacitated. Some husbands are under security detention, while others are sick or too old to work. About 9.4 per cent of the respondents are widows, and the conflict has increased women's decision-making responsibilities in the family. One area of concern indicated in Figure 2 and Annex 2 is the non-involvement of girls and boys in decision making, both before and during the conflict. It was only in Jere LGA that the participation of girls and boys (during the conflict) was recorded, and this was very minimal.

3.1.2 Productive activities

The findings (Figures 3 and 4) indicate that most productive activities — land clearing, ploughing, weeding, daily maintenance, harvesting, and storage — were done by men before the conflict, while seed selection, threshing, and processing was dominated by women. However, the conflict brought about a sharing of responsibilities in all the
The involvement of women in taking care of children ranged from 20 to 50 per cent across the six LGAs before the conflict; the practice remains the same after the conflict. The involvement of women in fetching firewood is very minimal, with the highest number of women fetching firewood in Monguno (40 per cent). In Kaga, none of the women were involved in fetching firewood. In Jere, the involvement of women in fetching firewood reached 30 per cent. In Biu, the involvement of women in fetching firewood was 10 per cent. Overall, the involvement of women in fetching firewood across the six LGAs is low, with a range of 0 to 30 per cent. Figure 2: Household activity profiles of members of communities before and during the conflict across the six LGAs

Figure 3: Farming activity profiles of community members across the six LGAs before the conflict
productive activities except processing, which has remained the purview of women. In general, there are no farm activities that women are not involved in, but their level of involvement varies from one LGA to another (Annex 3).

3.1.3 Twenty-four hour time use for members of the target Local Government Areas

Figures 5, 6, 7, and 8 present data on 24-hour time use in the communities and indicate that women do more work and work longer hours than men. They work up to 16 hours a day – cooking, bathing children, washing plates, cleaning the house, farming, preparing lunch, cleaning the kitchen, washing clothes, preparing dinner (and cleaning after dinner), and preparing children for bed. They also carry out multiple activities at the same time. The men are involved in fewer activities and work less than six hours per day; they even have time for leisure and relaxation with friends at the majalissa (men’s meeting and relaxation point). Unlike the men, the women have no time to rest. There was a general agreement that the volume of work and responsibilities has increased. For example, more women now have responsibilities that were previously the domain of the men: serving as the breadwinner and head of the household or looking for odd jobs for the survival of the family.

Women are facing a double burden due to gender inequality in the distribution of domestic tasks and productive tasks, resulting in time constraints (time poverty). Some needs were identified based on the roles of women. The practical gender needs include firewood, water, food, credit, security, and agricultural inputs. The strategic gender needs identified for the woman farmer include land, decision making power, education, economic empowerment, access to markets, and participation.

The time use for girls and boys is shown in Figures 7 and 8. They show the same patterns as those for women and men respectively. Girls spend more time doing household chores than boys, who find time to go to Islamiya school and to play. After school, the girl child goes to assist her mother with chores.

The analysis of the way men, women, boys, and girls spend their time, as presented above, shows a huge differential in the burden of care among them. We see deep-rooted patriarchal practice that promotes inequality. The perception of who does more work varied among respondents – three views were expressed:
Women are facing a double burden due to gender inequality in the distribution of domestic tasks and productive tasks, resulting in time constraints (time poverty). Some needs were identified based on the roles of women. The practical gender needs include firewood, water, food, credit, security, and agricultural inputs. The strategic gender needs identified for the woman farmer include land, decision making power, education, economic empowerment, access to markets, and participation.

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Figure 5: Twenty-four-hour time use for women across the six LGAs

Figure 6: Twenty-four-hour time use for men across the six LGAs
The analysis of the way men, women, boys, and girls spend their time, as presented above, shows a huge differential in the burden of care among the men. We see deep-rooted patriarchal practice that promotes inequality. The perception of who does more work varied among respondents – three views were expressed:

Sleeping, prayers, cleaning, fetching water, bathing, eating breakfast, school, hawking

Figure 7: Twenty-four-hour time use for girls across all LGAs

Time period
- 5.00 - 9.00 am
- 9.00 - 12.00 pm
- 12.00 - 3.00 pm
- 3.00 - 6.00 pm
- 6.00 - 9.00 pm

Dinner, washing plates, cleaning kitchen, prayer, resting
Hawking, assisting with dinner, prayer, washing clothes, household chores
Returning from school, hawking
School, hawking
School, returning from school, lunch, prayer, playing

Figure 8: Twenty-four-hour time use for boys across the six LGAs

5.00 - 9.00 am
- 9.00 - 12.00 pm
- 12.00 - 3.00 pm
- 3.00 - 6.00 pm
- 6.00 - 9.00 pm
• Men do more work because tradition has given men the responsibility of heading the household and taking care of the family. (This view reflects society’s refusal to acknowledge the unpaid work that women do; this unpaid work is not regarded as work.)

• Women work more because they are on their feet throughout the day, with no moment of rest.

• Both men and women are working hard and contributing to the welfare of their families.

‘Men, because they are the head of the household and it is their responsibility to do more work and cater for the family.’
– Traditional leader, Biu

‘Men do more work because they are the heads of the households, except where the woman is the head of household.’
– Agricultural extension worker, Kaga

‘To be honest, I think women do more work – working in the house and working on the farm’
– Older woman, Gwoza

‘Women do more work, and the reason is according to our culture; women are the ones taking care of the house, while men only provide food for the family.’
– Male opinion leader, Konduga

‘Everybody works, but the women who have lost their husbands do more work because there is no one to help them; they do everything and make every decision on their own.’
– Women opinion leader, Konduga

3.2. Access to and control of resources

3.2.1 Access to and control of land

Land is a crucial farm resource without which there would be no agricultural production. Unfortunately, patriarchal structures and authorities give more productive resources to men, resulting in women having less access to land. Secure access to land and related productive assets is necessary for any lasting solutions to hunger and poverty. The literature indicates that when women do not have access to land, they are effectively denied access to the information, technologies, and resources that would enable them to engage in more environmentally sustainable practices. This research looked at both access to land and land ownership, and 100 per cent of the FGDs and KIIs indicated that both men and women have access to land. For women, access is obtained through renting or through their husbands or male relatives.

‘We both have equal access, but men own most land. We hire the land. What we do in the camp now is the women gather money and hire the land and share out parcels of land to those who have contributed money. It is done on an annual basis. But in Gwoza, women have parcels of land from their husbands or hire from people who own land. We also practice ngaji, where we harvest and share the produce with the owner of the farm.’
– Older woman, Gwoza

‘Women can rent for a period of time, often through the community head (bulama), who gives them a portion of the land of other people who may have contacted him to look for tenants to work on the land for a period of time.’
– Younger man, Konduga

‘Everybody has access to land, provided you can pay your annual rent for the land.’
– Younger man, Jere

The nine-year conflict has reduced access to land for both men and women farmers. The FGDs and KIIs at the community level reported that agricultural production is now restricted to land that is close by, for fear of attack by insurgents. This restriction means that arable land is getting scarce, and in this sort of situation women are the last to have access to land. Women’s landlessness has to be tackled by the proposed sustainable agricultural project, as women’s participation depends largely on adequate access to land.
Fewer women than men owned land, and women owners have obtained their land through purchase, inheritance from their parents or husbands, or as a gift. Around the world, land ownership has a number of crucial benefits for women and their families, both economic and social. Increased security allows women to access credit to buy key agricultural inputs or make other investments to increase food production. Access to land can also lift a woman’s status and enhance her bargaining power in families and communities, boosting well-being at the household level. Some research even shows that women who own land are less likely to suffer from domestic violence (World Bank, 2014).

‘Some women own land through inheritance, purchase, or gifts from family and friends. My father bought a huge plot of land and divided it among me and my siblings.’
– Female opinion leader, Gwoza

‘Some women are now buying land, and others keep their late husband’s land in order to be able to take care of his children. But if they want to remarry, then they will have to leave the land.’
– Younger man, Konduga

One finding that came out clearly from all respondents, whether in the FGDs or KIIs, is that there are no religious laws or cultural norms that prevent women from owning land.

‘There are no religious restrictions. Women only lack land when they lack the resources to acquire land of their own to farm, and that is why they hire, although there are women who own land, having received it through inheritance or purchase or as a gift.’
– Younger woman, Biu

However, a woman’s ownership of land may not give her control over it. In the highly patriarchal Borno State, the nature of the society has implications for women’s empowerment and their access to and control of resources, even those they rightfully own. The husband controls the woman and hence all that she owns. The statement below underscores the serious implication that patriarchy has for the empowerment of women.

‘According to our tradition, the man inherits land from his father, and the woman inherits what she can inherit from her mother. But even practically you know that the man keeps the woman, hence he needs to control vital resources such as land that strengthen his hold over his home.’
– Younger man, Konduga

The majority of respondents across the LGAs (70.8 per cent of FGD respondents and 87.8 per cent of KII respondents) were of the view that women do not have control over land they do not own (Figure 9). They observed that any control was limited to the period of rental, and because there is an agreement on what to grow within that period, women cannot cultivate any crop outside of what has been agreed.

‘The land is rented for a period, and there is an agreement on what she can do on it. Outside of that, the owner can take back the land.’
– Older man, Gwoza

Given this lack of control, the investments women can make in such land are restricted. They cannot use it as collateral for credit; they will also be reluctant to invest time and resources in long-term farming practices, which would improve production. According to some respondents, women cannot plant trees on such land.

‘No, women do not have control over the land they do not own because the land is hired and not bought; therefore, they cannot do things on the land other than farming. Planting trees is one of the things they cannot do.’
– Older woman, Jere

This robs the region of trees, which are crucial for sustainable agriculture, especially in a zone where serious deforestation has led to land degradation (which is exacerbated by climate change). In addition, high-income cash crops such as watermelon cannot be grown on rented farms because they
A women sells farm produce in a town market in Borno State.
are sold wholesale to buyers at the farm, a practice that excludes landlords from harvest sharing. This marginalizes women farmers from producing cash crops that will increase their income-generating capacity and reduce poverty.

3.2.2. Access to credit

Agricultural credit is seen as a strategic resource for crop production that has led to an increase in the standard of living for the rural poor. Thus, it plays a significant role in economic development. There are two main types of agricultural credit: formal and informal.

Awareness of formal sources of credit

The findings on respondents’ awareness of two formal sources of credit (banks and government) across the target LGAs are presented in Figure 10. Of the FGD respondents, 45.8 per cent were aware of banks as a source of credit to farmers; only 8.3 per cent of the FGD respondents were aware of government as a source of credit. Among the key informants interviewed at the community level, only 2.4 per cent were aware of banks as a formal source of credit to farmers, and only 4.9 per cent were aware of government as a source of credit.

The Bank of Agriculture was the only bank mentioned by respondents at the LGA level as a formal source of credit for farmers. In addition to the Bank of Agriculture, the KIIs at the state level identified the following as sources of credit for farmers: the government through the World Bank’s agricultural credit project, the Central Bank of Nigeria through the Nigeria Incentive-based Risk Sharing System for Agricultural Lending, the Bank of Industry, and cooperative banks. Unfortunately, the respondents in this study who are farmers and who are intended to be served by these facilities are not aware of their existence. Awareness is the first step to access. There is a need for the project to create awareness about these sources of agricultural credit for farmers, the criteria for accessing them, and linkages with other institutions that may be needed to facilitate access to such facilities.

Farmers’ access to formal sources of credit

The predominant view of respondents is that farmers in Borno State do not have access to formal sources of credit, be they banks or the government (Figure 11). Accordingly, 79.2 per cent of FGD respondents and 91.1 per cent of key informants said that farmers have no access to formal sources of credit. As stated earlier, access is dependent on awareness, which is very low among the farmers (Figure 10). Though some respondents said they are aware of some people who have accessed loans from microfinance banks, none of the farmers interviewed in this research have borrowed money from banks or received government loans. Recently, the federal government initiated the Anchor Borrowers’ Programme for rice farmers through the Central Bank of Nigeria. Though rice is grown as a cash crop in most of the LGAs, no mention was made of this facility in any of the target LGAs.

During the FGDs and KIIs, many reasons were given for farmers’ lack of access to formal credit:

- It is not easy to access credit from the banks.
- The need for collateral, plus high interest rates.
- Lack of knowledge and capacity, especially among the female farmers, regarding accessing formal sources of credit.
- Some have heard about such loans, but they do not know anyone in the city who can vouch for them in the application process.
- Some farmers have applied to the government several times for loans, but have not obtained even one.
- Lack of formal education.

Farmers would need to be helped or taught because it involves a lot of processes and procedures that can be very difficult for the layman. Our challenge is a lack of formal education.

– Local security informant, Monguno

Access to credit is critical to the recovery of the agricultural sector and building the resilience of farmers. Improving access to such facilities will go a long way towards improving agricultural production, and the project should put in place strategies
none of the farmers interviewed in this research have borrowed...m...earlier.

Awareness of Formal Sources of Credit

Figure 9: Views on whether women have control over land they do not own

Figure 10: Awareness among respondents about formal sources of credit across the target LGAs
Across the LGAs and from both FGDs and KIIs, various sources of informal loans were identified. These include family, friends, voluntary contributions, moneylenders, politicians/influential persons (7.5 per cent), and the suppliers of credit (4 per cent). The findings indicate that all farmers borrow money from informal sources of credit in the study area. This is especially true of women farmers in rural areas, as they do not have the capacity to access the facilities of formal sources of credit. As to whether there were differences in access to credit among different categories of farmers, it is not easy to access credit from the banks because only 10 per cent of the respondents at the community level reported that there are no moneylenders and friends. According to the participants in this FGD, it is often challenging for many low income farmers, especially among the female farmers, to get loans because of the size of their farms. Only 22.5 per cent of the respondents suggested that there are no family and friends who can lend money to farmers when they need it, while 40 per cent have heard of this FGD/Neem and 22.5 per cent have never heard of any reason. However, according to them, farmers in the communities have more knowledge and capacity to understand the informal sources of credit.

Figure 11: Views on whether farmers have access to formal sources of credit

| Percentage | FGDs | KII
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 12: Responses on whether informal sources of credit exist in the communities

- Yes: 65
- No: 35
for facilitating access for the proposed target farmers. The issue of collateral as a huge barrier to low-income farmers accessing credit resonated among the state-level key informants.

Collateral of landed property is required in many instances, as are collateral certificates in some categories of loans offered by the Central Bank of Nigeria. It is often challenging for many low-income women farmers to access such loans, because only a few would have landed property that can be used as collateral.

– Representative of Neem Foundation

As to whether there were differences in access for male, female, and youth farmers, the predominant answer was neither yes nor no. According to them, farmers in these LGAs have not been able to access credit, and until they do so the differences among these different categories of farmers cannot be ascertained. However, a dissenting voice came from the FGD for older women in Jere LGA. According to the participants in this FGD, male farmers have more access to loans than female farmers, for two reasons: women do not have the capacity to access the facilities or someone to teach them how; and men have more knowledge and capacity, so they are able to access credit.

Women farmers face more constraints then male farmers when trying to access credit. This is especially true of women farmers in rural areas, where access to formal financial facilities is limited. Women lack collateral to obtain credit that will enable them to purchase agricultural tools, seeds, and fertilizer or to hire labour that could increase crop production. In addition, high levels of illiteracy among women, which translate into lack of familiarity with loan procedures, limit their access. It is therefore understandable that all the respondents suggested the provision of money/funds/grants to improve women’s agricultural production.

Access to informal sources of credit

About 65 per cent of the respondents at the community level reported that there are informal sources of credit in the study communities, while 35 per cent gave a negative response (Figure 12).

Across the LGAs and from both FGDs and KIIIs, various sources of informal loans were identified.

Figure 13: Informal sources of credit in the community

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Family</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friends</td>
<td>22.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adashe</td>
<td>22.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Money lender</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Politicians</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cooperatives</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Credit from suppliers</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
These include family, friends, voluntary contributions, moneylenders, politicians, and organizations. The respondents were of the opinion that anyone can borrow from family and friends, but outside this circle men are more likely than women to get loans because of the size of their farms.

Figure 13 gives an indication of the informal sources of credit identified by the key informants at the community level. The findings indicate that all farmers borrow money from informal sources of credit in the study communities. Adashe is the source most utilized by farmers (40 per cent), followed by family (30 per cent), then moneylenders and friends (22.5 per cent each). Other informal sources of credit identified were cooperatives and politicians/influential persons (7.5 per cent each). Some said that they collect supplies on credit then pay back the suppliers after the harvest (7.5 per cent).

The information provided by the key informants is supported by that obtained from the FGDs. Moneylenders are used by farmers when all efforts to obtain credit from other sources fail. This is because, according to the respondents, the moneylenders are as bad as the banks, adding interest that is sometimes double the loan amount. The respondents also reported that both men and women have access to moneylenders, but the loans are more often given to men because of their larger farms – the amount of produce is after all commensurate with farm size.

People with bank accounts
Very few people had bank accounts among the respondents in the FGDs (Figure 14).

The reasons given by the respondents for the low number of people with bank accounts are summarized as follows:
- There is not enough money to save. Some respondents asked, ‘Where is the money that people will save when there is hunger in the community? The little we have we use to buy food, which is hardly enough, and to pay children’s school fees.’
- There is lack of knowledge about bank account procedures.
- There are no banks in the community (Kon-duga, Monguno).

3.2.3 Access to and control of farmers’ groups
Farmers’ groups are groups of farmers that are organized around mutual needs, serving the interests of their members. Well-organized and functional farmers’ associations are crucial actors in the provision of services to their members. According to information from the FGDs and KIIs across the six LGAs, there are farmers’ associations in all the target communities. Monguno has the highest number of farmers’ associations, while Gwoza has the lowest (Figure 15). Women farmers also have their own associations in all the communities (Figure 15). The farmers’ associations and the women farmers’ associations are organized around the crops they grow or the farming systems they use.

According to the respondents, women are members of all farmers’ associations and are part of the leadership through election. However, men have held the positions of president, vice president, and secretary; women are only elected as treasurer and financial secretary. While these positions are technically part of the executive leadership, these officers are not considered as important and are often marginalized; men dominate the membership, and discussions can always be swayed in their favour.

Most of the information about women farmers’ associations, their names, and the challenges they face emanated from the KIIs. Most of the FGD participants were not aware of women farmers’ associations, but they acknowledged that the establishment of such associations would be very useful for women, helping them obtain loans/credit and discuss their issues.
The Very few people had bank accounts among the respondents. People with bank accounts produce is after all commensurate with the crops they grow or the farming systems they use. According to the respondents, women are members of all farmers organizations rather than individual farmers, and it may be no different in the proposed sustainable agriculture project. The names of women farmers' associations in the target LGAs are therefore presented here to enable this engagement: Women Poultry Farmers’ Association (Jere LGA); Auno Women Poultry Association, Auno Widows Farmers’ Association, and Fadama 3 Women’s Association (Konduga LGA); Women Groundnut Farmers’ Association, Women Soya Bean Farmers’ Association, Women Groundnut Processing Association, and Women Animal Fattening Association (Kaga LGA); Women FADAMA Farmers’ Association A, B, and C, Women Cattle Farmers’ Association, Mintar Farmers’ Association, and Monguno Women Farmers’ Association A, B, and C (Monguno LGA); Zalidva Farmers’ Association and Thawale Farmers’ Association (Gwoza LGA); and Monguno Women Farmers’ Association A, B, and C (Monguno LGA); Zalidva Farmers’ Association and Thawale Farmers’ Association (Gwoza LGA);...
and Myringa Women Farmers’ Association, Bwala Women Farmers’ Association, and WAZA Women Farmers’ Association (Biu LGA).

Some challenges were identified with the women farmers’ associations:
- Lack of funds/capital
- Knowledge and skills/capacity gaps
- Lack of access to and ownership of land
- Inadequate agricultural inputs
- Lack of strong leadership skills to run a group
- Lack of financial management skills

3.2.4 Access to extension services and inputs

Productive agriculture requires the dissemination of information related to production and marketing to farmers. Lack of access to agricultural information is a key contributor to the inability of smallholder farmers, including women farmers, to transit from subsistence to commercialized agriculture. Extension officers play a great role in the dissemination of agricultural information. In the pre-crisis period, when the Borno State Agricultural Development Programme was implementing the World Bank Agricultural Development Programme, the state had 1,750 trained extension workers providing services to farmers in most farming communities in the state.

As a result of the conflict, extension officers fled from the conflict-affected zones along with the farmers. The findings from the FGDs and KIIs showed that extension services are almost non-existent in the study communities, with extension workers coming once a year or once in a while. This information was corroborated at a recent meeting with extension workers and CSOs. They noted that the number of extension workers in Borno State stands at 168, meaning the ratio of extension officers to farmers is 1:3,311; the World Bank standard is 1:300. This huge personnel gap partly explains why extension services are almost non-existent in the study communities.

Women have less access to extension services than men, for three main reasons. First, there is an inadequate number of female extension workers, as indicated by the extremely low ratio of female extension workers to female farmers (1:1,972; the World Bank standard is 1:80). Second, the extension services are dominated by male extension workers, and women are often not aware of their visits. By the time they know, the extension officers have come and gone. Third, male extension workers are not allowed to interact with female farmers for cultural reasons. The services the extension workers provide include:
- Advice and techniques for planting and application of fertilizers, agro-chemicals, and pesticides
- Provision of improved seeds and farming tools
- Advice on pest control, seed selection, improved varieties, and farming skills

The women have less access to the extension services than men and, according to a female opinion leader from Biu, ‘Women do not know about such services in time, and by the time they know it is after the extension workers have come and gone; our source of information most times is the men.’

In some places such as Gwoza, extension services are sometimes provided by organizations such as FAO, WFP, and SCI. According to the youth leader and female opinion leader, ‘We were trained by them on farming techniques, farm management, pest control, seed selection methods, and farming skills; they provided farming tools and improved seeds and sometimes money, up to 10,000 naira. They also provided rakes, other items for clearing the farm, cutlasses, and watering jugs for home gardening.’

3.2.4.1 Access to fertilizers

Improved varieties require fertilizers if (for substantive yields). Fertilizers from government sources do not reach the farmers on time, and farmers have to source for money to purchase in the open market at exorbitant prices. The findings from both FGDs and KIIs across the LGAs indicate that men and women can have equal access to fertilizers, but financial realities limit most women. Nitrogen-based
An older woman attending a women’s meeting in an IDP camp in Borno State.
fertilizers such as urea have been banned by the security agencies because they are used in improvised explosive devices, and this has pushed their prices up.

‘Women have equal access; the condition is money – if you have money to buy, you can get as much as you want.’
– Local security informant, Biu

‘Yes, but it depends on one’s political influence; in most cases, lucky farmers do share it 50 per cent with the politicians that added their name. Both men and women suffer the same problem.’
– Younger man, Jere

‘We know of a few women in the community who got access to fertilizer, but the majority of the beneficiaries are men.’
– Older woman, Jere

According to key informants at the state level, all farmers have physical access, but not economic access, confirming the findings from the community level.

‘Most farmers are priced out of the fertilizer market for economic reasons. We know for sure that women have lower income and little or no assets; without these, women’s access is limited.’
– Representative of SCI

‘There is equal opportunity based on the availability of funds at the disposal of the farmer, irrespective of their gender. Male farmers have a better chance of getting fertilizer than women farmers, and most often the source of fertilizer is the open market – rarely through government, which comes with a little subsidy compared to the market price.’
– Representative of MPAYE

‘One of the reasons for inadequate fertilizer for farmers is the military restrictions on fertilizer distributions, especially urea, as it was found that Boko Haram was using it in making improvised explosive devices. Other reasons include the lack of proper procedures for targeting beneficiaries; the government always relies on local leaders, and this will affect the listing of final beneficiaries.’
– Representative of Oxfam

3.2.4.2 Access to pesticides
All the respondents from the FGDs and KIIs across all six LGAs said that they had pest problems in the communities, leading to very low yields or total crop failure. Some of the pests identified were fall armyworm, African armyworm, quelea birds, aphids, stem borers, and fruitworms. In addition, there are fungal and viral diseases and noxious weeds such as *Striga*. All the farmers spray unspecified pesticides that they buy in the open market.

Thus, access for both men and women depends on the resources they have (as with fertilizers). In addition to the chemicals, some farmers use traditional methods to control these pests. The team probed further to find out the kind of chemicals they spray, but this did not elicit any response. The situation has serious implications for human health and the environment.

‘For those who have money, they buy pesticides and other disease-controlling chemicals to tackle the problem, and for those who cannot afford them, they use the local way, which includes burning some of the pests and then spread the ashes on the farm for the rest of the pests to smell and run away; and pounding and spreading neem leaves on the farm and putting ash on vegetables like spinach and sorrel.’
– Younger woman, Monguno

‘They often lack the resources to acquire the chemicals, and for this reason they won’t be able to control the pests or the diseases; they let it be and at the end harvest the produce they can get.’
– Older woman, Jere

‘Females are at a disadvantage when it comes to access to agricultural inputs because most of the decisions are made by men, sometimes without even consulting the women.’
– Representative of SCI
3.2.4.3 Effect of the conflict on access to agricultural services

This question on agricultural services was directed only to respondents at the state level in order to examine the holistic impact of the conflict on all aspects of agricultural services. The findings are quite illuminating, and some are captured below:

‘The conflict did not directly affect access to these services, but due to security concerns it has limited the scope of usage and coverage of agricultural machines. For example, the LST are designed to reduce tedium, which consequently encourages an increase in farm size, but this has not been the case due to the conflict.’
– Representative of SCI

‘Yes, it has; men have lost so much that farming is no longer interesting to them, and women do not have the farmlands or the energy to farm. The security problem is still on.’
– Representative of Samaritan Care

‘No tangible support throughout the whole production period, and limited access to farmland. Farmers are coping with small-scale planting of crops; they miss the rainy season or harvest crops early due to security and safety concerns and low market price.’
– Representative of Oxfam

‘There is low production of farm produce and low motivation of farmers to carry out farming activities in some areas.’
– Representative of GOAL Prime Foundation

3.2.5 Access to agricultural equipment

Information from both the FGDs and the KIIIs indicates a general consensus that both men and women have physical access to agricultural equipment, but not equal economic access, as they have to hire equipment such as tractors. Men, with more financial resources, have more access to agricultural equipment; women have small landholding and a low capital base, and hence have low access to agricultural equipment. To gain access, groups of women do come together to contribute money to hire a tractor or animal traction for land preparation.

‘The tractors are being hired for 40,000 to 50,000 naira. To gain access to this service, about 10 to 15 women come together to contribute money and hire a tractor.’
– Older woman, Gwoza

Some farmers access tractors through registered farmers’ cooperatives connected to agricultural banks. Tractors used to be provided and subsidized by the government before the conflict, but currently they are individually owned. Access to tractors has therefore become difficult for both men and women.

‘No, even the men find it difficult to get tractors to farm, and sometimes you need connections; the women find it difficult because there are lots of protocols and delays, which most women do not have the patience to wait for.’
– Youth leader, Gwoza

‘Women do not have equal access to agricultural equipment because most of the equipment is energy intensive. Also, it is owned and mainly operated by men. Also, access in this case means money to hire, and this limits women’s access.’
– Community leader, Kunduga

According to the representative of GOAL Prime Organization, ‘Farmers are able to access agricultural equipment through registered farmers’ cooperatives and associations from the Bank of Agriculture and other agencies that support agriculture.’

Unfortunately, there are no farmers’ cooperatives in the target LGAs, and the few cooperatives that exist are general multipurpose cooperative societies. In view of the important role that farmers’ cooperatives can play in increasing access to agricultural inputs and services, the sustainable agriculture project could begin to put in place strategies on how to facilitate the establishment of farmers’ cooperatives and what training should be packaged.
to strengthen their capacities for efficient management and impact.

3.2.6 Access to training

Training is key to the success of agricultural production. In all the study locations, respondents reported some form of training. The trainings and the responsible organizations are highlighted below:

- In Jere, training was provided by IMC on health (hygiene) for both younger women and men.
- In Konduga, SCI provided training on agriculture, poultry rearing, and how to control pests, and distributed layers to the women free of charge. They did training on testing soils and the crops that should be grown on certain soils, as well as planting times and fertilizer application. They trained 1,150 farmers on cultural practices and the use of Purdue Improved Crop Storage (PICS) bags to reduce post-harvest losses.
- In Kaga, Danish Refugee Council and agricultural extension workers provided trainings for older men and women on pest control, modern farming skills, farm management, agricultural techniques, and livelihoods.
- In Monguno, agricultural extension workers provided training on farming techniques, but this was known by only 25 per cent of the FGD respondents. The key informants were more aware of the trainings. – The Fadama III project by the government included training on pest control and modern farming skills. An INGO conducted training on agricultural techniques, livelihoods, health, and GBV. Everyone benefited from all the trainings except for the GBV and livelihood trainings, which were solely focused on the women so as to build their capacity. The trainings also included agricultural techniques and health and hygiene (safe water for drinking).
- In Gwoza, farmers were trained on irrigation farming, vegetable farming, and micro-gardening by FAO and the Federal Ministry of Agriculture. Also, when they were at the IDP camps they were trained by some INGOs on agricultural techniques, livelihoods (soapmaking, tailoring, bagmaking, etc.), health, and GBV. Everyone had access to the training.
- In Biu LGA, Mercy Corps provided training on agricultural techniques and livelihoods. All had access to the training. The International Institute of Tropical Agriculture, Feed the Future, Borno State Agricultural Development Programme, and Nigeria Red Cross also provided training on agricultural techniques, livelihoods, and health. About 75 per cent of the trainees were selected from the youth, while 25 per cent where drawn from other categories; young men benefited more than any other group.

Information from the key informants at the state level (MPAYE and Borno State Agricultural Development Programme) showed that government had provided some training on crop and rice farming, community-based seed enterprises, and agronomy practices for some major crops. The government also provided training on improved varieties, pests/pesticides, and proper storage of farm produce against infestation.

Respondents suggested training in modern agricultural techniques, livelihood opportunities, conflict management, food nutrition, and modern methods of food preparation, especially for women. The youth would require training on modern farming technology, agricultural marketing and linkages, and the establishment of cooperatives. In addition, there was a general recommendation that youths need to go back and complete their education, which was scuttled by the conflict.

3.2.7 Access to labour

The sources of agricultural labour identified in the communities include the following:

- Family labour
- Hired labour
- Friends (gaiya, a group of acquaintances providing their labour to one another in turns)
Some of the tasks that society has traditionally prescribed for women are as follows: seed selection, sowing, watering, threshing, post-harvest processing, farming vegetables, picking groundnuts and beans, collecting ingredients for soup, cultivating groundnuts, okra, and spinach, and threshing. Traditionally prescribed tasks for men include ploughing, land clearing/preparation, harvesting, regularly monitoring the farm, weeding and cutting large grasses, and all other cultivation that requires more strength.

Religion and culture are some of the factors that determine what men and women can do. According to some respondents, women are not supposed to be exposed to hard labour. Women are only to be involved in those tasks that will not physically drain their energy. Women mostly grow crops for cooking purposes, and it is the women who do the cooking. Men’s tasks are determined by physical energy and strength and include the operation of sophisticated equipment, hard labour, and large-scale farming.

The findings indicate that, for now, the conflict has done away with traditions that have hitherto restricted women to certain field tasks (so-called easier and less energy-intensive tasks) and men to other tasks (so-called hard tasks). Now anyone can perform any task in the field depending on their strength and resources. Both men and women are now contributing to the upkeep of the family.

3.2.8 Access to markets

Market access for farmers means the ability to acquire farm inputs and farm services, and the capability of delivering agricultural produce to buyers. Markets provide the opportunity to generate income, contributing to a reduction in poverty and hunger in developing countries. Markets also drive production to meet consumer demand in terms of quantity and quality. Sustainable access to markets is required to guarantee smallholders an increase in income and to lift them out of poverty. When farmers do not have access to markets, they remain at the mercy of middlemen, who become the greatest beneficiaries of the sweat and investment of the farmers; they become rich at the expense of the farmers.

Findings from the field indicate that all the communities have some form of functional markets (both within the community and outside of it). Though more than 90 per cent of the respondents indicated that women and men have equal access to markets, there are in reality constraints for women:

- The level of production of farm produce determines market patronage and access, and the level of production is quite low with women farmers.
- Religion and tradition can restrict the mobility of women. For example, prior to the conflict in Biu LGA, only old women and widows went to the market; married women did not go out without the permission of their husbands.
- Most of the produce is bought up by middlemen at ridiculously low prices or marketed by the women themselves in the community at giveaway prices, as all the farmers are selling similar produce in the market (the supply is higher than the demand, and demand determines prices). Secondly, a lot of the produce sold by women is perishable (e.g. vegetables). The implication is that women’s only involvement in the agriculture value chain is production and sale; the value of the produce is hardly commensurate to the investments made.

The overexploitation of women smallholder farmers underscores the need to link women to agricultural value chains – from production all the way to processing and marketing – as this would help to make traditional farming more productive and commercially viable.

Various suggestions were made by the respondents on how to improve women’s access to markets in the communities:
- Providing accessible roads from the farms to the market, and having security agencies provide security for life and property.
- Having functional markets nearby and supporting more production by women.
- Increasing security within and around the
communities and the market. Market areas should be repaired and reopened for business, especially in Gwoza, where the market was destroyed. According to Goal Prime Organization Nigeria, ‘Government is working to provide security to ensure farmers can transport their farm produce to markets and to rehabilitate the local market to enable rural farmers to sell their farm produce.’

- Since the level of production of farm produce determines market patronage and access, the provision of agricultural inputs to women farmers or soft loans to purchase agricultural inputs will enhance production. Having vendors of agricultural inputs, including implements and tools, in the immediate community will improve production.
- Provision of money to buy farmland, fertilizers, and improved seeds and to pay for labour.
- Government should break the hold of the middlemen on the marketing process, as well as provide adequate financial support.
- Provision of vehicles to convey goods to the market.
- Community childcare and customized support to ease women’s double workload as farmers and caregivers.

3.3 Gender analysis of crops grown in the Local Government Areas

The information from the FGDs and KIIs showed that different crops are grown in the target communities. These are indicated in Table 1 (as well as which ones are grown by men and which ones by women). The men grow crops for both home consumption and commercial purposes, while women grow mainly vegetables and beans for family consumption, and a little for sale. There are no restrictions on what crops can be grown by either women or men; however, growing crops such as cotton, rice, and grains, which require a lot of investment and physical strength, is seen as men’s domain. These crops are the main source of agricultural income, and women should be assisted to venture into the production of these crops.

Respondents made suggestions on how to improve women’s agricultural production:
- Financial assistance to rent large pieces of land or buy the land for farming
- Training in modern farming techniques and implements
- Funding and low-interest loans
- Provision of improved seeds, fertilizers, herbicides, pesticides, and extension services
- Money to hire labourers for those who want to go into commercial farming

Table 1 indicates that there are no restrictions on what crops can be grown by women, but they mostly gravitate towards the production of the so-called ‘easy-to-cultivate’ crops. What restricts women from cash crops is that they are capital and energy intensive, involving a lot of expenses/inputs as well as energy and labour; although there are no cultural or religious restrictions, there are economic restrictions.

3.4 Gender analysis of livestock husbandry and other farming systems in the communities

3.4.1 Gender analysis of livestock husbandry

Livestock are kept in all the target communities. These include cows, goats, sheep, poultry, and, in some places such as Konduga, donkeys. All members of the communities, from the youth (boys and girls) to women and men, are involved in livestock farming. While men and boys are involved in herding and watering, women and girls are involved in watering and cleaning. Both males and females are involved in milking and taking care of sick animals. Women do own livestock. The general consensus is that women have full control over their own animals, while the milk from the animals is always for the women, irrespective of whether the animals belong to them or their husbands.
**TABLE 1: GENDER ANALYSIS OF CROPS GROWN IN THE SIX LOCAL GOVERNMENT AREAS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Local Government Areas</th>
<th>Crops grown</th>
<th>Grown by men</th>
<th>Grown by women</th>
<th>Restrictions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Jere</strong></td>
<td>Beans, maize, millet, sorghum, okro (okra), roselle, sesame, cucumber, watermelon, tomatoes, and onions</td>
<td>All the listed crops are being grown by men for food and cash.</td>
<td>All the listed crops are being grown by women for food and cash.</td>
<td>No restrictions. Anyone can grow any of the crops depending on their economic capacity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Konduga</strong></td>
<td>Rice, maize, beans, groundnuts, millet, watermelon, sesame, beans, okro, vegetables, and sorghum</td>
<td>Millet, beans, sorghum, watermelon</td>
<td>Garden vegetables (spinach and pepper), beans</td>
<td>No restrictions. Women only farm crops that require little energy. In fact, all the crops can be grown by both males and females now; it depends on the resources at one’s disposal.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Kaga</strong></td>
<td>Maize, beans, groundnuts, millet, sesame, beans, okro, vegetables, sorghum, Bambara nuts</td>
<td>Maize, beans, groundnuts, millet, sesame, beans, sorghum, and Bambara nuts for food and sale</td>
<td>Mostly groundnuts and cowpeas and small garden vegetables (spinach and pepper)</td>
<td>No restrictions; women only farm crops that require little energy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Monguno</strong></td>
<td>Beans, groundnuts, sorghum, okra, maize, millet, and sesame</td>
<td>Beans and maize are mostly grown by men; women are restricted because these crops require more physical strength.</td>
<td>Groundnuts, okra, and sesame are mostly grown by women, but men can also grow these. Women who can afford hired labour engage in cultivating crops usually grown by men.</td>
<td>Yes, there are cultural and economic restrictions. Their way of life has always had strict gender roles, but as a matter of urgency and family upkeep, it now depends on individual capacity, manpower, and resources. Men can cultivate any crop and women can also cultivate any crop.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gwoza</strong></td>
<td>Maize, beans, groundnuts, guinea corn (sorghum), millet, sesame, beans, okro</td>
<td>Maize, guinea corn (sorghum), beans, and groundnuts mainly for consumption, while beans and groundnuts are also for commercial purposes.</td>
<td>Small garden vegetables (spinach, pepper, okro), beans, and groundnuts, because they require little energy to cultivate.</td>
<td>No restrictions, except for those related to physical strength and resources.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Biu</strong></td>
<td>Beans, maize, groundnuts, eggplant, soya beans, Bambara nuts, rice, vegetables, and cotton</td>
<td>Before the conflict, cotton was grown by men, but now all the crops can be grown by both males and females; it depends on the resources at one’s disposal.</td>
<td>All the crops are grown now by women.</td>
<td>There are no restrictions on what men should grow and what women should grow, except for those related to physical strength and resources.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.4.2 Gender analysis of other farming systems

The respondents identified other farming systems within the communities (Table 2). The findings indicate that while fishery and irrigation farming systems are within the domain and control of the men, poultry and home gardening are controlled by women. In the home gardens, women grow vegetables, beans, tomatoes, and peppers for home consumption and provision to neighbours. The home gardens are thus the source of protein and vitamins for the family. As women are presently unable to access land beyond what is considered a safe perimeter, the proposed project should support them with training, improved seed varieties, agricultural inputs, and modern farming techniques to improve their production—for better food security and nutrition for their families and for commercial purposes.

3.5 Participation in non-farm activities

The findings of this component are presented in Table 3 and indicate that both men and women participate in various non-farm activities. They earn incomes ranging from 20,000 to 60,000 naira depending on what they do and the customers they attract. The individuals have control over the incomes they generate; in Monguno, however, the men control the earnings; the women must seek their husbands’ permission before spending any money they earned. In Gwoza, the men have control over such incomes, but this has brought many problems; some husbands collect the money and spend it. In most other LGAs, some men allow the women to use their money while some decide what to do with the money together.

As discussed earlier, lack of access to productive assets such as land and the restriction of farming activities to areas close to communities (for security reasons) have led to dwindling agricultural production. This is likely to continue unless the security situation in the state improves. These non-farm activities need to be supported in order to continue with the resilience-building that the project seeks to promote.

3.6 Decision making concerning agricultural production on family farmland

This section is concerned with the production of cash crops by families in the communities. Table 4 presents the findings on the types of crops, who produces them, what the earnings are, and who controls the profit. Both men and women are involved in cash cropping. However, the activity is dominated by men because, according to the respondents, it requires financing and the cultivation is difficult. Men also dominate when it comes to making decisions about how to spend the money generated from the sale of cash crops. This is because, according to the respondents, men are the heads of families. In Monguno, men and women jointly decide how the monies are to be allocated based on needs. Men are responsible for most household expenses; women provide only if the husband is dead or divorced. Women are usually the owners of the small gardens, so they provide for those expenses.

3.7 Impact of the conflict on agricultural production

All the respondents in the FGDs and KIIs agreed that the conflict has seriously destroyed agriculture in the state. The many who have been displaced now lack access to productive resources. The chairman of a cooperative from Konduga related his experience: ‘Some of us ran to nearby villages, while some ran to Maiduguri, and others ended up in the bush for weeks and months. It was a bad experience, but people who took pity on us helped us.’ Others were not displaced from their communities of origin, but had to spend days in the bush as the insurgents went on a rampage in their communities, killing and maiming people. This was the case in Miringa.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Local Government Areas</th>
<th>Identified farming systems</th>
<th>Farming systems controlled by men</th>
<th>Farming systems controlled by women</th>
<th>Who controls the earnings from these farming systems</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Jere</strong></td>
<td>Irrigation farming, fishery, poultry, and home gardens</td>
<td>Irrigation farming, fishery</td>
<td>Poultry and home gardens</td>
<td>Both men and women control the farming systems.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Konduga</strong></td>
<td>Irrigation farming, poultry, and home gardens</td>
<td>Irrigation farming</td>
<td>Poultry and home gardens</td>
<td>Everybody has control over their farming system and their earnings.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Kaga</strong></td>
<td>Irrigation farming, poultry, and home gardens</td>
<td>Irrigation farming</td>
<td>Poultry and home gardens</td>
<td>Everyone controls the earnings from their farming system.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Monguno</strong></td>
<td>Irrigation farming, poultry, fishery, home gardens, and agroforestry</td>
<td>Irrigation farming, fishery, and agroforestry</td>
<td>Poultry and home gardens</td>
<td>Whoever is engaged in the farming system has control over whatever he/she produces.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gwoza</strong></td>
<td>Irrigation farming, aquaculture/fishery, poultry, home gardens</td>
<td>Irrigation farming and fishery</td>
<td>Poultry and home gardens</td>
<td>Men decide who will spend the money and how. For example, if women get 1,000 naira, if the husband instructs we have to follow his instructions, but we also have the power to negotiate if we are not happy with the instructions. After the harvest, we ask our husbands what to do with the money, then the husband gives us a list of what to do; we can negotiate about the list. If the husband is around, he must provide for the family; but if the husband is not around or not capable, the woman hustles to sustain the family.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Biu</strong></td>
<td>Irrigation, fishery, poultry, and home gardens</td>
<td>Irrigation farming, fishery</td>
<td>Poultry and home gardens</td>
<td>Everyone spends their money as they want.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(Biu LGA). The impacts of the conflict are highlighted below:

- Restricted access to fertile lands because of displacement has reduced agricultural production and increased food scarcity, hunger, and poverty.
- It is not safe to embark on farming activities because of the presence of non-state armed groups. There are restrictions on farming far from the communities; farmers cannot cultivate fertile land in the bush because it is too dangerous. Farmers have even been killed by insurgents on their farms or as they went in search of fuelwood; in June 2018, members of a non-state armed group killed eight people in Gwoza. Women and girls have also been abducted near farms.
- Grains such as millet, sorghum, and maize cannot be grown because members of the non-state armed groups hide inside and from there attack both military and civilians.
- Livelihoods of farmers have been destroyed, and displaced farmers have become beggars who have to depend on government, INGOs, and philanthropists.
- There is abject poverty, as stated earlier; people have to skip meals or reduce rations in order to cope. Some farm small plots inside the community. Others are involved in business and physical labour: construction, driving three-wheel taxis, and petty trading.

3.8 Impact of the conflict on food security and nutrition

Food security exists when all people at all times have physical, social, and economic access to sufficient, safe, and nutritious food to meet their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life. Food scarcity and inequalities in food distribution are exacerbated during periods of armed conflict, rendering women and girls more susceptible to food insecurity and malnutrition. The conflict has greatly affected food security in Borno State – from availability to access to utilization, the three pillars of food security. Below are some statements made across locations on the impact of the conflict on food security.

‘There is scarcity of food now due to overpopulation (from the IDPs) and food items in the market are costly. Poverty and lack of livelihoods have meant families do not have enough to eat.’
— Community leader, Konduga

‘Food has become very scarce. We are suffering to get food. It is really a threat, and what we eat now is just to survive, not because it has value.’
— Religious leader, Konduga

‘Food is expensive now because most farmers are not farming due to the insecurity. Therefore, there is food shortage compared to before. Before, we farmed in the villages and food was very much available and less expensive, but we fled from our villages and stopped farming. This has brought about food scarcity. Children at times don’t get enough food to eat in a day. We eat from hand to mouth. The insecurity is a big threat to food security.’
— Female opinion leader, Konduga

‘Children suffer more than the parents because we usually eat two times a day. This is affecting their nutritional level. Lactating mothers and pregnant women too have become more vulnerable.’
— Women leader, Monguno

‘Lack of access to farmland to cultivate basic food crops for consumption, insecurity, and the high cost of available food in the market has made food inaccessible.’
— Representative of MPAYE

‘There is a significant negative impact of the insurgency on food security and nutrition. Farmland now has restricted access due to fear of insecurity or threats from the insurgents. Many farmers who were agriculturally productive in the state are now displaced and no longer have access to their farms and their communities – hence the significant drop in production. This
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Local Government Areas</th>
<th>Women</th>
<th>Men</th>
<th>Earnings (naira)</th>
<th>Control</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jere</td>
<td>Knitting, vegetable oil making, grinding and frying bean cakes and dumplings <em>(kosai, awarra, danwake)</em>, tailoring, sewing, cap making, liquid soap making</td>
<td>Tailoring, carpentry, and electrical and other small-scale businesses that include the buying and selling of cosmetics, provisions, and vegetables; brick-laying; shoe mending; operating grinding machines; delivering water</td>
<td>20,000–40,000</td>
<td>Individuals have control over their earnings.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Konduga</td>
<td>Cap knitting, selling firewood, charcoal, sale of akara (bean cakes) and foodstuff such as vegetables, petty trading, tailoring</td>
<td>Trading, masonry, truck (cart) pushing, meat selling, bricklaying and other forms of hard labour, sale of firewood, hawking</td>
<td>20,000–40,000</td>
<td>Women control their earnings.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kaga</td>
<td>Cap knitting, food vending</td>
<td>Trading, masonry, truck (cart) pushing, meat and fish selling</td>
<td>&lt;41,000–60,000</td>
<td>Women control the earnings from the non-farm income-generating activities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monguno</td>
<td>Making fried snacks, knitting, tailoring, buying and selling wrappers, cap making, catering, trading, awarra (tofu) making</td>
<td>Buying and selling of food items and charcoal, taxi driving, blacksmithing, Keke NAPEP (three-wheel taxi) driving, selling of wrappers</td>
<td>Income depends on what they do.</td>
<td>The men control the earnings; the women must seek their husbands’ permission before spending any money they earned.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gwoza</td>
<td>Tailoring, cap making, catering, trading, awarra (tofu) making</td>
<td>Carpentry, physical labour, shoe mending, provision sales, Keke NAPEP (three-wheel taxi) taxi driving, selling of wrappers</td>
<td>&gt;100,000 (sometimes a million from irrigation farming)</td>
<td>The men control earnings, but this has brought problems; some husbands collect the money and spend it. Some allow the women to use their money; some decide what to do with the money together.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biu</td>
<td>Sales of groundnut oil, cap making, selling of foodstuff, tailoring, knitting, plaiting, making fries, petty trading</td>
<td>Bricklaying, driving three-wheel taxis, driving commercial cars, trading, buying and selling of food items, petty trading, tailoring, and water vending (push-push)</td>
<td>20,000–40,000</td>
<td>Women have control over their income, but they consult their husbands.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
significantly affects nutrition – hence the rampant cases of severe malnutrition among children under the age of five years.’
– Representative of Neem Foundation

‘The conflict has limited food availability; it has limited food access; it has resulted in complete failure of livelihoods for a huge chunk of the population.’
– Representative of SCI

‘Reduction in agricultural production as farmers fled from conflict-affected areas; the presence of landmines on agricultural land or rural roads during the conflict; the destruction of agricultural assets and infrastructure, including physical infrastructure, production equipment, animals, seed supplies, and food stocks; and the restriction on the sale of fertilizers to farmers (as these are being used in the manufacture of improvised explosive devices) all combine to drastically reduce food production.’
– Representative of the Gender Equality, Peace and Development Centre

The KII at the state level revealed views on the social protection the government has made available to farmers who have had their livelihood disrupted due to the conflict.

‘Government has carried out clearance operations, especially of landmines, and provided improved varieties of seedlings and fertilizers.’
– Representative of MPAYE

‘Government, through the State Emergency Management Agency and the National Emergency Management Agency, has been providing the IDPs with food items and other fortified products for a balanced diet. They are also complemented significantly by the UN agencies, INGOs, NGOs, individuals, and other organizations to ensure that they do not suffer from malnutrition.’
– Representative of Neem Foundation

There was mention of malnutrition among children to varying degrees in each of the communities, but the impact is being ameliorated by supplements, hygiene awareness, and food and non-food items provided by organizations such as UNICEF, WFP, the National and State Emergency Management Agencies, and other INGOs.

Utilization of available food is a challenge among the IDPs, as fuelwood has become very scarce; people are afraid to go in search of fuelwood. Information provided by respondents in this study indicates that IDPs and returnees have resorted to the use of alternatives such as charcoal, animal dung, crop stalks, and kerosene. Even these are scarce in the camps and communities where agricultural activities are almost non-existent. Charcoal, when available, is quite expensive. In the Christian Association of Nigeria IDP camp in Wulari, one of participants in the Older Women FGD observed that the issue was no longer about lack of food but lack of money to buy charcoal to cook the food.

Protection is also an issue for women and girls who go searching for firewood. In addition to addressing fuel scarcity, producing low-cost alternative energy for cooking would mitigate the risks and dangers women and girls face. One of the partners in the consortium, FAO, has been involved in the production of fuel-efficient stoves in other countries plagued by protracted conflicts. The project can leverage on this experience. Briquette production and marketing also has promise, and could provide alternative livelihoods for community members, especially women.

Water is not a major problem in any of the locations, so water is available for cooking and sanitation and hygiene activities. There are boreholes in the communities, some of them put in place by the government or INGOs. Respondents said that getting the water is difficult because of overcrowding due to the influx of IDPs and the breakdown of borehole infrastructure.
### TABLE 4: DECISION MAKING CONCERNING HOW INCOME FROM CASH CROPS IS ALLOCATED WITHIN THE FAMILY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Local Government Areas</th>
<th>Cash crops</th>
<th>Who produces the cash crops</th>
<th>Earnings (naira)</th>
<th>Control</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Jere</strong></td>
<td>Beans, groundnuts, carrots, onions, cabbage, rice, okro, sesame</td>
<td>Men and very few women, because these crops need money and are very difficult to cultivate.</td>
<td>61,000–100,000</td>
<td>Men have control over family farm cash crop earnings.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Konduga</strong></td>
<td>Rice, beans, onions, sesame, cowpeas, groundnuts, watermelon, maize, millet</td>
<td>Both men and women, but men dominate cash crop farming because cultivation is expensive. Although many women are involved, they do not produce watermelon, because it is very difficult to manage and expensive.</td>
<td>40,000–60,000</td>
<td>Men have control over family cash crop profits because men are the heads of families. The largest share goes to the father, followed by the mother; only a little is given to the children. Cash crops are sold in order to pay school fees, conduct ceremonies, and buy foodstuff. Men pay electricity and rent; health care is paid by both men and women.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Kaga</strong></td>
<td>Groundnuts, beans, watermelon, Bambara nuts, sesame, sorghum, maize</td>
<td>The main producers of cash crops in the community are men. Only a few women are involved because of the fear of loss.</td>
<td>&gt;20,000–40,000</td>
<td>Men have control over profits from cash crops grown by the family, while women have control over earnings from their own crops.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Monguno</strong></td>
<td>Watermelon, sesame, maize, beans, onions, groundnuts</td>
<td>All are involved, but it is mostly the men.</td>
<td>61,000–100,000</td>
<td>Men and women; they allocate profits based on demand.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gwoza</strong></td>
<td>Cotton, onions, pepper, beans, sesame, sugarcane</td>
<td>All are involved.</td>
<td>&gt;100,000</td>
<td>Men control earning, but in most cases they consult their wives.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Biu</strong></td>
<td>Watermelon, maize, beans, onions, groundnuts, pepper, tomatoes, sorghum</td>
<td>All are involved.</td>
<td>61,000 – 100,000</td>
<td>Men and women decide jointly; they distribute the money and allocate the money based on demand.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.9 Social protection

Social protection is concerned with protecting and helping those who are poor and vulnerable, such as children, women, older people, people living with disabilities, the displaced, the unemployed, and the sick.

When asked whether members of the community have received any cash transfers or food items or other support from other organizations, the response was a resounding ‘yes’. However, the providing organizations differed from one LGA to another (Table 5). The targets of such assistance have mostly been women and children. There are mixed reactions trailing this development, as highlighted below.

‘The men see it as nothing because they know it is a result of the suffering they are all facing. The women feel they are helping the men. Where there is this understanding, there are no issues arising from the changing roles.’
– Older woman, Konduga

‘People felt most of the assistance was given to women. Yes, because some women don’t let their husbands know they have benefited from the intervention, it brings a lot of conflict.’
– Local security representative, Kaga

‘People felt most of the assistance was given to women. It has not brought conflict. Men are even happy that their wives are benefitting.’
– FGD respondent, Kaga

‘The feeling varies; some men can’t take it in some families; in other families, they are grateful. And in others, there are no men. Women do not find the situation funny; it is difficult and hard on them. Conflict has arisen between husband and wife due to the fact that husbands can’t provide.’
– Community leader, Gwoza

‘Men feel very bad; they are very sad. Some women have understood that the situation is the will of God and have not allowed the power to go to their heads. Others have become very disrespectful to their husbands, and this is causing a lot of problems in such homes.’
– FGD respondent, Gwoza

‘Men see it as forbidden for a woman to take their role in the house. Women feel they have a burden on them taking the role of men. Yes, men now see that women have started to disrespect them, because women are now carrying out men’s role.’
– Religious leader, Konduga

‘The men have no choice but to accept reality. They see it as helping one another as family. The women feel okay with it and, as they have said, it’s not bad for boys to do what girls are supposed to do or vice versa. There have been no issues arising from this.’
– Older woman, Jere

‘The men are not comfortable with the situation; women are feeling superior. Yes, there have been issues arising from this, as some men have driven their wives away because of rudeness.’
– Older man, Jere

‘The men are uncomfortable because they are seeing their role taken over by their wives, who are becoming proud and big-headed. This has led to a lot of issues, even divorce, because the women have started feeling bigger than their husbands.’
– Person with disability, Konduga

‘Most women feel comfortable and superior. The consequence of these feelings, whether real or perceived, has been separation among couples. It is not easy, but we have to take it the way it has happened. Things have been difficult on their own side too because they are gradually becoming the heads of the family. Often our men feel disrespected by the women, but we thank God for his help.’
– Chairman of cooperative society, Konduga

The displacement arising from the conflict has led to shifts in gendered roles and responsibilities for
### TABLE 5: SOCIAL PROTECTION IN THE STUDY COMMUNITIES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Local Government Areas</th>
<th>Organizations that provided support</th>
<th>Type of support and reception</th>
<th>Type of beneficiaries and reasoning</th>
<th>Perceptions of men on women’s access to assistance</th>
<th>Who controls how the cash transfer is utilized in the family</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Jere</strong></td>
<td>Oxfam, WFP, UNICEF, Norwegian Refugee Council, International Committee of the Red Cross, Action Against Hunger, SCI, Alliance for International Medical Action, MSF, Solidarités International</td>
<td>Unconditional cash transfers, food items, non-food items, and skill acquisition/livelihood training. It has really helped us.</td>
<td>Women and children.</td>
<td>People were of the view that the distributions were fair. According to their responses, men and women, boys and girls are okay with such a programme. After the conflict, the men realized that women are very helpful, especially now that men need their full support. They said women’s empowerment programmes will not cause backlashes. Some people felt that women were unduly favoured in the assistance provided and would like to see a situation where both men and women have equal access.</td>
<td>Mixed responses: the FGD for younger men suggested it is women; the FGDs for older women and older men suggested it is both men and women.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Konduga</strong></td>
<td>SCI, Christian Aid, WFP</td>
<td>Unconditional cash transfers, food items, non-food items, and seeds. Psychosocial support, skill acquisition/livelihood training, employment. They brought good varieties of seeds; dug boreholes; provided health-care services; and provided free education.</td>
<td>Children and women are their main targets because they are the most vulnerable.</td>
<td>People felt most of the assistance was given to women. Yes, it has led to conflicts, because some women don’t let their husbands know they have benefited from the intervention, so it brings a lot of conflict.</td>
<td>Both (jointly) if the wife informs the husband about the cash transfer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Kaga</strong></td>
<td>SCI, Christian Aid, WFP</td>
<td>Unconditional cash transfers, food items, non-food items, seeds, psychosocial support, skill acquisition/livelihood training, employment. The NGOs have helped us so much more than the government.</td>
<td>Women and children are their targets.</td>
<td>People felt most of the assistance was given to women. It has not brought conflict. Men are even happy that their wives are benefiting.</td>
<td>Joint decision, if there is an understanding between them.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Monguno</strong></td>
<td>Christian Aid, WFP, Danish Refugee Council, National and State Emergency Management Agencies</td>
<td>Unconditional cash transfers, food items, non-food items, seeds, psychosocial support, skill acquisition/livelihood training, employment. It has really helped us, because NGOs have benefited everyone in our community.</td>
<td>Women, because if you assist women it as if you help the family because it will touch virtually everybody in the household.</td>
<td>People felt most of the assistance was given to women. Yes, it has generated conflicts, but I am in support of what they do by giving to women (religious leader).</td>
<td>Both men and women decide.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gwoza</strong></td>
<td>Christian Aid, WFP, SCI, Danish Refugee Council, National Emergency Management Agency, IMC, National Directorate of Employment, and International Organization for Migration</td>
<td>Unconditional cash transfers, food items, tools, psychosocial support. The interventions brought comfort and peace of mind.</td>
<td>All benefited.</td>
<td>People were of the view that the distributions were fair.</td>
<td>Joint decision.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Biu</strong></td>
<td>Norwegian Refugee Council, International Committee of the Red Cross, UNICEF, IFAD, SCI, Christian Aid, WFP</td>
<td>Unconditional cash transfers, food items, non-food items, seeds, tools, psychosocial support, skill acquisition/livelihood training, and employment. It helped the community a lot, supported the community to return to livelihood activities, and reduced anxiety.</td>
<td>Women; they are the mothers and have suffered a lot.</td>
<td>People were of the view that the distributions were fair.</td>
<td>Some said men; others said joint decision.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
both women and men; more women have become heads of households, creating new opportunities for such women in training and development programmes in health and education, as well as in income-generating activities for which they have received support from various INGOs. Thus, women are becoming breadwinners, as husbands are killed or are unable to find employment. Against this background, respondents were asked whether they envisage a backlash against women as they return to their communities of origin. According to some respondents, the backlash has already started – women’s pride and feelings of superiority have led to some men sending away or divorcing their wives. These views were re-echoed at the state-level KII: ‘There is high risk of divorce, lack of control in the household, and belittling of the household head’ (Representative of MPAYE).

3.10 Gender-based violence in the communities

Various forms of gender-based violence before and during the conflict were identified by the respondents. The pre-conflict forms included the following:

- Domestic violence
- Early marriage
- Verbal abuse
- Forced marriage
- Deprivation of education due to poverty
- Rape
- Wife battering
- Incest

GBV that has occurred during the conflict includes the following:

- Abduction/kidnapping
- Rape
- Forced marriage
- Early/child marriage
- Sexual exploitation and abuse
- Domestic violence
- Psychological/verbal abuse

The following were identified as the causes of GBV in the communities:

- Loss of family business and accompanying frustration
- Closure of schools
- Population increase
- Poverty
- Drug abuse/misuse
- Unemployment
- Increasing vulnerability of women and girls arising from various deprivations
- Stigmatization and rejection of victims of GBV
- Food scarcity
- Anger and frustration

The general consensus is that there are no services for survivors of GBV. There were a few reported cases in Biu over the last 12 months, and the local government took the survivors to the hospital for treatment. The perpetrator in one case was arrested, but there was no information from the respondents on any psychosocial support being provided to the victims. There is also no informal support network within any of the communities.

Traditional and religious leaders, health personnel, and INGOs such as SCI, Plan International, IMC, the Federation of Moslem Women Association of Nigeria, and the International Organization for Migration have sensitized some communities on GBV and its negative impact.

State-level key informants affirmed the findings from the LGA level regarding the risks that women face as they try to embark on agricultural activities during the crisis. These include inter alia the following: abduction/kidnapping, rape and killings in farms/on the way to farms, physical abuse, etc., especially in remote farming locations, and increased domestic violence arising from the backlash in their homes and/or communities because of the new shift in power dynamics.
Women gathering informally in Borno State.
3.10.1 Measures to protect women, men, girls and boys

Respondents identified the following measures the government and its partners should put in place for the protection of women, men, and boys:

- Establishing strong policies that will decisively deal with perpetrators of GBV and serve as a deterrent to others; setting up a help desk that will respond to victims in a strictly confidential and dignified manner, with all health, mental health, and psychosocial support provided.
- Awareness creation to sensitize community members about GBV services and how to access them.
- Putting in place laws that criminalize GBV; enforcing these laws; mass public education on GBV.
- More support to the National Drug Law Enforcement Agency to check drug abuse among young people and their spouses; creation of family planning units in health institutions.
- Educating women about their rights; empowering them both financially and in various skills that will help them to be independent and provide for themselves.
- Domestication of the Violence Against Persons Prohibition Act 2015 in the state; speedy prosecution of GBV cases, especially rape. According to MPAYE, for advocacy and lobbying for the domestication of the act, UN Women should partner with MWASD and other INGOs working on GBV issues.
- Ensure the promotion of education, especially girl child education.
- Legislation on gender equality.
- Creation of safer farming areas.
- Livelihood capacity building and empowerment of women and girls to mitigate the risk of GBV.
- Training of women and girls in agripreneurship.

3.11 Experience of climate change in the communities

All respondents, whether in the FGDs or KIls, are aware of the manifestations of climate change in their communities:

- Rainfall coming late and stopping early
- Drought
- Rising temperatures
- Less rainfall
- Failure of crops
- Desertification

Community members said that they have used various approaches to improve agricultural production in the communities. One is intercropping/mixed cropping, which leads to more farm produce from the same farm land; the challenge is that it requires more inputs, which excludes some farmers. They are also diversifying livelihoods by engaging in non-farming activities. In addition, farmers use grasses and mulching to conserve soil moisture, and some practice water harvesting for irrigation.

One farming system that is not being practiced currently in any of the target LGAs is agroforestry. In this system, trees are inter-planted with crops or used as live fences around farmlands. In an area in which deforestation has led to serious land degradation (which is further exacerbated by climate change), agroforestry will not only improve soil health and reduce erosion, but it will also be a source of much-needed firewood and so reduce the GBV associated with searching for firewood.

3.12 Vulnerabilities, barriers, and constraints faced by women and men of different ages in relation to agriculture, livelihoods, and food security

Vulnerability results from poverty, exclusion, marginalization, and inequities in material
consumption; these conditions are determined by physical, social, economic, and environmental factors or processes, which increase the susceptibility of an individual to a threat or risk. The general consensus from the gender analysis is that women are the most vulnerable group within the community, and the most vulnerable households are those headed by women. People living with disability were also classified among the highly vulnerable persons.

3.12.1 Underlying causes of the vulnerability of men, women, and youth in Borno State

The key informants identified the underlying causes of the vulnerability of men, women, and youth in Borno State:

- Inadequate storage facilities, lack of modern agricultural techniques, illiteracy, inaccessibility to good markets
- Land tenure system, lack of government support for producers, and lack of complementary livelihood activities
- Lack of farmland, capital, and zeal (harvests are being stolen by insurgents)
- Insecurity, lack of manpower, low agricultural productivity, and low income
- Unemployment among the youth, unequal access to economic activities, and no welfare for the elderly
- Women’s double burden and triple roles
- Additional burdens for widows engaged in agriculture due to care work in the household
- No safe access to farmland and limited support for agricultural inputs
- Patriarchy, religion, lack of economic empowerment, illiteracy
- Lack of access to some of their own land because of the security situation; lack of agricultural equipment such as machinery and lack of fertilizers, improved seeds, manpower capacity development schemes, and timely information about available agricultural services

3.12.2 Barriers and constraints faced by men and women in relation to agriculture, livelihoods, and food security

Women and men face many barriers and constraints in the areas of agriculture, livelihoods, and food security. According to the responses obtained, they cut across the following:

- Lack of formal education, which prevents them from being able to fill out the documents necessary for some services
- Poor attitudes of some institutions in allocating the equipment and materials needed for agricultural production, etc.
- Lack of capital for entry into activities, as well as inadequate knowledge and/or education
- Lack of institutionalized apprenticeship models
- Lack of support or funding from institutions
- Ignorance, insecure tenure of land for farming, and lack of farming facilities
- Lack of extension services
- Dominance of men in leadership positions
- Cultural and religious barriers (rigid, socially sanctioned gender roles in rural societies that severely constrain women’s choices regarding how they allocate their time among different paid and unpaid productive and household activities, giving rise to time poverty; unpaid domestic activities (such as water collection, childcare, cooking, and washing clothes), which are seen as the domain of females; systems, structures, and institutions, including traditions, customs, and social norms, that typically and overwhelmingly act as a constraint on women’s activities and restrict their ability to compete on an even footing with men)
- Limited ownership of land and lack of capital
- Denial of women’s access to some agriculture services, such as training on the use of sprayers, which is seen as men’s work
3.12.3 Recommended solutions to the constraints faced by women, men, and youth in relation to agriculture, livelihoods, and food security

The constraints faced by farmers are enormous; against this background, respondents were asked to recommend solutions:

- There is a need for drastic enlightenment campaigns and advocacy to formal and informal institutions to reduce or remove these constraints.
- Adequate rural extension services should be employed to reach out to remote farmers in the small villages who may not have access to agricultural information and technology.
- Improve extension services, set up an apprenticeship model to help people with little or no education to obtain useful life skills, and remove or reduce the barriers to entry.
- Improve security, regulate markets, and provide capital, implements, energy-saving devices, and additional forms of livelihoods.
- Provide loans to both male and female farmers; provide farming facilities, including a take-off grant for the vulnerable.
- Create a policy for the allocation of funds that would respond to the issues bedevilling conflict-affected communities, to be implemented with a sense of urgency. In this regard, an insurance system should be established for small-scale farmers that covers farmers, crops, and other assets, with appropriate consideration of women farmers’ needs.
- Tackle gender inequality through gender training and advocacy to change mindsets, and challenge patriarchy through sensitization and the establishment of allies (men and boys).
- Provide capital using zero interest loans and improve access to agricultural resources, including fertilizers and technologies that reduce the drudgery of women’s productive work.
- Formal and informal institutions should monitor and ensure equal access in the services they provide to farmers. Institutions should also involve women and ensure that women are aware of the agricultural aids that are available.

In parallel, there should be proper sensitization of women to encourage them to get involved in farming.

3.13 Mitigating the risks of backlash and gender-based violence stemming from women’s empowerment and increased involvement

3.13.1 Backlashes and gender-based violence women and girls are likely to face due to their empowerment and involvement in programme implementation and governance

Borno State is a highly patriarchal society with rigid gender roles; any venture into male spaces by women is considered an affront or a challenge to long-held views. The conflict has seen a shift in gender roles: women are now breadwinners, exposed to trainings, and targeted for livelihood schemes, cash transfers, and other social protection services. Key informants were asked whether the conflict-driven shift in gender roles is likely to result in backlashes against women and girls. The following responses were obtained:

- Given the widespread belief that commercial farming activities in this part of the country are assumed to be men’s business, women and girls engaging in such are considered to be competing with men, and some backlashes have occurred and are envisaged. Backyard farms and kitchen gardens for household use are widely believed to be the domain of women and girls, and they are expected to remain within that niche.
- Men are complaining that their wives are now becoming unruly and disrespectful, and this is generating conflicts that are resulting in domestic violence, verbal and psychological abuse, and divorce.
- Exclusion, assault, domestic violence, denial of education, and negligence by husbands is occurring because they feel that women now have money.
Patriarchy is a cross-cutting factor in all the backlashes women will experience. Men traditionally are in charge and lord it over women; now roles are changing and there is not much they can do about it. Two types of feelings are envisaged: anger and the accompanying helplessness, along with frustration. If not well handled, this can explode into violence. These feelings can be exacerbated if women do not maturely manage their new power. Domestic violence can occur, including marital rape (used to remind women of who is still in charge), psychological/emotional violence, and divorce.

3.13.2 Measures to reduce backlash/violence that women and girls might face

The following measures were suggested by respondents for reducing the backlashes and violence women and girls are likely to face:

• Community sensitization and enlightenment campaigns, use of mass media and social media platforms, community-level extension services, and employment of trained extension workers will help in creating awareness among community members.

• Community sensitization by organizations and religious and local leaders.

• Involving males from the community in programme implementation and sensitizing them on what the scheme is trying to achieve.

• Enlightening women about the need to include their family in decision making.

• Advocacy and sensitization directed at the men, while working with them for better understanding of and support for women.

• Proper sensitization of community leaders, men/husbands, and women. Involvement of community leaders in such programme implementation to establish trust between the men and women of the communities.

• Continued education, workshop, skill acquisition, and political awareness activities.

• Stiff punishments for perpetrators.

3.14 Women’s and girls’ participation in decision making and policy formulation/review of agricultural practices, food security and nutrition, livelihoods, and security in Borno State

3.14.1 Existing opportunities for improving women’s and men’s participation in decision making and policy formulation

People’s participation generally means involvement in decision-making processes and governance, and it is a key ingredient for poverty reduction and tackling inequalities. By participating, people can articulate their priorities based on felt needs, and can ensure the proper and equal distribution of services and inputs among targeted populations. Thus, the participation of women and men is crucial in the formulation of policies.

Though there is recognition of the importance of men and women’s participation in policy formulation and review, the question posed was whether there are existing opportunities for improving such participation. These answers were provided by the key informants:

• Women and men in appropriate ratios should participate in meetings, seminars, workshops, etc. that have to do with the review or formulation of policies using affirmative action policies.

• Education and women’s empowerment will give them a say in decision making, because they would have the capacity to make contributions.

• Inadequate opportunities for participation exist due to cultural and religious barriers, and hence there is a need for advocacy and sensitization.

• The establishment of groups plus capacity development and town hall meetings would increase participation.

• Having more women in politics would increase the number of women in decision-making positions where they can influence policies.
A market scene in Borno State
• An active CSO network that brainstorms on agricultural development needs will inform decisions and policies.

3.14.2 Existing policies on agriculture, livelihoods, and food security in the state

About 82 per cent of the key informants were not aware of any existing policies on agriculture, livelihoods, and food security, either at the local government level or the state government level. The following were mentioned as existing policies:

‘Eight skill acquisition centres are spread across the state to promote access to training in trades and skills. The state government also established an entrepreneurship centre and development centre to increase awareness about good governance.’
— Representative (1) of MPAYE

‘The Anchor Borrowers’ Programme and purchasing of locally produced food crops for a home-based school-feeding programme.’
— Representative (2) of MPAYE

3.14.3 Strategies for enhancing men’s and women’s participation in policy formulation and review on agriculture, livelihoods, and food security

The importance of people’s participation in policy formulation was highlighted earlier; this section is devoted to how to ensure such participation. The strategies suggested by the key informants are as follows:

• Enlightenment campaigns and training programmes for all stakeholders.
• Organizing workshops; drafting communiqués that capture the voice of the people; submitting the communiqués to key stakeholders such as policymakers and lawmakers; and following up with high-level advocacy and lobbying.
• Training/capacity building to ensure qualitative participation.

• Government authorities at all levels should recognize women and provide space for their voice and for participation at all levels of the decision-making process.
• Creation of more awareness about the importance of farmers’ participation through the various farmers’ groups/associations and CSOs working on agriculture and gender equality.
• Promotion of the implementation of the Sustainable Development Goals through workshops on bridging the knowledge gap, even among government policymakers implementing the goals.
• Grass-roots information gathering from local farmers facilitated by the concerned government agency.

3.14.4 Constraints to men’s and women’s participation in policy formulation and review on agriculture, livelihoods, and food security

There are many constraints to women’s and men’s participation in policy formulation. The following were identified by the key informants at the state level:

• Illiteracy; poor selection process for participants in decision making
• The process has not been inclusive and participatory
• Gender inequality
• Cultural practices
• No established laws to back such policies
• Not enough women in politics
• Ignorance
• Poverty
• Complex cultural differences; marital status; ignorance
• Lack of technical knowhow
• Patriarchy

The response below beautifully summarizes the constraints:
The process of policymaking does not provide opportunity for local farmers (men and women) to participate in policy formulation. Poverty levels of local farmers make them not bother about what is going on at the policy formulation level. Nigerians have this notion that every official activity is solely the responsibility of those in government and thus tend not to participate.
– Representative of Neem Foundation

3.14.5 Whether Borno State has an agriculture gender policy and whether it would be beneficial to have one

Nigeria developed its Gender Policy in Agriculture in 2016. Its preamble noted that gender inequalities limit agricultural productivity and efficiency and, in so doing, undermine the development agenda. It further stated that failure to recognize the different roles of women and men is costly, as it results in misguided projects and programmes, predictably low agricultural outputs and incomes, and food and nutrition insecurity. It stressed that it was time to consider the critical contribution and role of women in agricultural production in order to move women, as the main farmers and producers in many parts of the world, including Nigeria, beyond subsistence production into higher-value, market-oriented production. This quest can only be achieved through a gender policy in agriculture that emphasizes the different roles of women and men in the sector. It also must emphasize gender equality in access to resources as well as equal opportunity in maximizing livelihoods, a necessary condition for progressively realizing the Sustainable Development Goals.

The policy promotes and ensures the adoption of gender-sensitive and gender-responsive approaches in agriculture plans and programmes in such a way that men and women have access to and control of productive resources and facilities. Stakeholders expect it to drastically reduce the vulnerability of women to biases in agriculture, address the unequal gender power balance, and help to bridge the gender gap. It aims to improve the contributions of smallholder farmers, who are predominantly women; though large in number, their access to agricultural assets is low.

Nigeria is a federation, and the implementation of policies at the national level is not binding for the states. A case in point is the National Gender Policy, which is facing implementation challenges even at the national level. Laws such as the Child Rights Act of 2003 and the Violence Against Persons Prohibition Act of 2015 are facing the same challenge, as they need to be domesticated in the states to make them applicable. The benefits of a gender policy in agriculture have been highlighted above, and the study sought to find out whether Borno State has one. All of the key informants responded in the negative concerning the existence of a gender policy in agriculture, but all of them believe that such a policy would greatly benefit farmers, especially female farmers, towards bringing about solutions to many of the gender issues discussed in this report.

‘It will give equal opportunities to both men and women, especially in the area of equal access to any inputs and services.’
– Representative of MWASD

‘Such policies will ensure the adoption of gender-sensitive and gender-responsive approaches such that men and women have access to and control of productive resources and facilities. This will drastically reduce the vulnerability of women to biases in agriculture, address the unequal gender power relation, and bridge the gender gap.’
– Representative of the Gender Equality, Peace and Development Centre

‘It will break the barriers women face in accessing information and agricultural services. It will reduce the level of abuse women face when participating in agricultural activities. It will empower and boost the confidence of women to fully and actively get involved in agricultural activities. This will go a long way to aid the humanitarian actors in transitioning from the emergency phase to the recovery...’
phase of their response and in establishing long-term development plans in agriculture, livelihoods, and food security.’
– Representative of GOAL Prime Organization Nigeria

All the informants (including ministries, department, and agencies) agreed that the state would want to put in place such a policy, but it would require technical assistance to do this:

‘The state would want to put such a policy in place to enable the state government and partners to have a solid and sustainable foundation in moving towards the recovery phase of their response to build the agricultural sector of the state, and to achieve a reasonable level of food security in the state.’
– Representative of GOAL Prime Organization Nigeria

‘Such assistance (provided by UN agencies and INGOs) could be in the area of crafting the policy.’
– Representative of MWASD

‘Technical assistance in following up on implementation and monitoring and evaluation.’
– Representative of SCI

‘Prior to this, there should be sensitization on the importance of such a policy.’
– Representatives of GOAL Prime Organization Nigeria and Street Child

3.15 Suggestions on assistance required by different farmers for improved agricultural productivity, food security, and nutrition

3.15.1 Assistance required by farmers

The need for assistance for men and women for agricultural production is obvious from the answers given by the respondents in the FGDs and KILs – training, improved seeds and crop varieties, fertilizers, pesticides, reform of the land tenure system, access to farmland, market support, extension services, agricultural equipment, agricultural credit/loans, funding, preservation methods, safety, security, agricultural and livestock inputs, fully funded proper policy in accordance with the people’s participation, start-up capital, scholarships for the youth farmers to complete their education, organization of women, and support for women’s participation in the agricultural value chain.

All these responses could be summarized by the response of the representative of Oxfam: ‘Training of women and men in different agriculture sectors and empowering them with the required raw materials, equipment, and financial assistance to enable them to start up. Active monitoring of the agricultural beneficiaries and mentoring to ensure the growth of each beneficiary in their respective sector.’

According to the respondents, such assistance could be provided by UN agencies such as FAO and WFP, along with INGOs, NGOs, private organizations, and government agencies – National and State Emergency Management Agencies, the Victim Support Fund, and the Presidential Committee on the North-east Initiative

3.15.2 Suggestions on how to put the agricultural sector on the path to recovery

Various suggestions were made on how to put the agricultural sector, destroyed during the conflict, on a path to recovery:

• Consult the community members on any plan or proposed support in order to hear what will work best for them, in addition to the necessary equipment and implements.
• Ensure the security of life and property, especially in the rural communities.
• Empower farmers and families interested in farming and other livelihoods.
• Develop the agricultural value chain and involve rural farmers at all levels.
• Give livelihood support such as the provision of farm inputs and capital.
• Listen more to the people and make decisions based on their feedback.
• Provide land, credit, and facilities.
• Localize agricultural interventions by implementing such programmes with community members; train, empower, mentor, and monitor them to ensure growth.
• Start a livestock programme that will empower every household with livestock.
• Initiate a community-based, gender-responsive life skills and livelihood programme for the youth in agriculture.

3.16 Programming opportunities

The respondents identified some programming opportunities for designing a gender-responsive livelihood programme that caters for the needs and interests of women, men, boys, and girls and will maximize impact for food security. The respondents advocated for a sustainable approach that:

• Is managed by non-politically motivated project managers, for fairness and equal access by vulnerable men and women
• Allows easy access to loans for processing products, crops, vegetables, and trees
• Supports agripreneurs and encourages youths in agricultural employment
• Has a component of long-term livelihood and vocational training
• Includes sustainable agricultural practices such as agroforestry; puts in place an agriculture gender policy in the state and ensures its implementation
• Comprises a multi-dimensional agricultural programme that empowers both the youth and adult men and women with specific required raw materials and support, e.g. poultry, fishery, livestock (rams, goats, cows), improved seeds, and farming equipment, and also allocates farmland for communities, while ensuring active mentoring and monitoring to ascertain sustainability.

3.16.1 Strategies that will enable local-level stakeholders to participate in the proposed sustainable agriculture project

The key informants made suggestions on strategies that would enable local-level stakeholders to participate in such a project:

• Advocacy directed at gatekeepers, which should include not only men, but also female opinion leaders.
• Establishment of steering committees in the target LGAs/communities to guide and monitor the implementation of the project. These committees will comprise the community leader, ward heads, women leaders, and youth leaders, and will be chaired by the implementing organization. The community leader is to mobilize and help to sensitize men on the importance of women’s involvement in agricultural activities. The ward heads are to serve as agricultural extension service providers/volunteers; the women leaders will be used to mobilize and sensitize women on how important their involvement in the project activities is and to educate them about a culturally appropriate way of going about it. The youth leaders will monitor the level of participation of all the beneficiaries, especially the youth and women.
• Gender-targeted interventions that promote the rights and empowerment of women farmers through eliminating discrimination and increasing their access to land ownership, agricultural inputs, technology (including LST, which frees women’s time for productive activities), credit, labour, and markets.
• Ensuring that the programme is designed to carry along minority and marginalized groups. This can include ensuring that women and others are members of committees or beneficiary representatives who will ensure programme guideline implementation.
• Establishing farmers’ associations where there are none, and strengthening those that already exist.
• Construction of rural roads, which would allow the participation of various stakeholders in
policy initiation and formulation. The project will engage with government through advocacy to achieve this.

- Ensuring that, wherever possible and where markets are functional, women operate through the markets, especially local markets.
- Involvement of community leaders on advisory bodies in all the communities.
- Developing programme staff and partner staff capacity to recognize gender inequalities and designing programmes to reduce them.
- Strengthening rural institutions, increasing their gender awareness, and having gender champions within rural institutions and target communities.
- Strengthening women’s groups economically, raising their capacity, and engaging gender-sensitive facilitators for workshops, Farmer Field Schools, etc.
- Establishment of women-only Farmer Field Schools.
- Recruiting and training female extension workers.
- Increasing women’s literacy levels through adult education. The partners should link up with the State Agency for Mass Literacy and Non-formal Education, who have structures on ground in most LGAs; this will increase their access to agricultural information, credit, and financial management.
- Engaging men and boys.
- Utilizing this gender analysis, which has been carried out to inform gender-transformative programming within target communities.

3.16.2 Recommendations to ensure the needs of all farmers in the proposed sustainable agriculture project

The following recommendations were proffered to ensure that the needs of women, men, girls, boys, and people living with disabilities are met in the proposed project Restoring and Promoting Sustainable Agriculture-based Livelihoods for Food Security, Employment, and Nutrition Improvement in Borno State:

- There is a need to give special consideration to people living with disability; affirmative action is required to ensure they are carried along, while also ensuring that the programme is designed with their needs in mind.
- Women should be prioritized during the beneficiary selection process; special and separate attention should also be channelled to adolescent boys and girls.
- Ensuring well-coordinated planning, empowerment, and skills acquisition.
- A realistic gender-responsive approach is needed with a sense of urgency to meet the needs of men and women farmers in their agriculture-related activities, including adaptable ways of working (the bottom-up approach).
- Restoring the system of accountability; developing systems and technologies that everyone, including people with disabilities, can use.
- Encouraging involvement, participation, and ownership of programmes.
- Focusing on policy and implementation.
- There is a need to carry everyone along. There is also a need to recognize existing groups (women/men/youth/persons with disabilities) and build their capacity to participate in the agricultural value chain; a project implementation committee should be established from these groups.
- There should be equal allocation of aid to women and men in the programme, as well as robust training and mentoring components.
- Gender-sensitive indicators should be developed for monitoring, evaluation, accountability, and learning.
- Extension staff should be fully utilized.

3.16.3 Strategies for inclusive policies for resilient agricultural development

The following strategies were suggested for inclusive policies for resilient agricultural development:
• Balanced invitations for both genders should be sent out to ensure equal participation.
• Materials and discussions should also be translated into local languages so that those who do not have a formal education can contribute.
• There should be more focus on institutional policies for a gender-responsive approach at all levels of government.
• Appointments into groups, associations, and cooperative societies should be gender sensitive.
• A bottom-up approach should be used.
• Establishment of affirmative action principles that specify the minimum proportions of women and men to ensure equitable participation.
• Creation of a local agricultural policy formulation committee that will include local farmers (men and women).

• Improving livelihoods, creating job opportunities, using poverty reduction approaches, increasing income-generating activities, and enhancing rural financing.
• Training/capacity building for economic empowerment, leadership development, and conflict management skills, especially negotiation skills.
• Proper sensitization of men on the need to support women and girls to be fully involved and to participate in the economic activities of the community, especially agriculture.
• Organization of training workshops to sensitize women and girls on the importance of their involvement.
• Training women and girls on livelihoods and economic empowerment and providing mentoring and coordinated monitoring.

3.16.4 How to empower women and entrench gender equality in communities in Borno State

The following strategies were suggested for empowering women and girls and entrenching gender equality:

• Sensitization of women on their right to participate in all activities, translating messages for them to have a better understanding of the issues, recruiting female facilitators and extension workers who can break through the social barriers and deliver the messages more appropriately.

• Inclusion of gender equality in the school curriculum; using the community and religious leaders’ structure to reorient the population; mainstreaming gender equality into things such as food security and livelihoods, nutrition, and water, sanitation, and hygiene, etc.

• Removal of all forms of cultural and religious biases and creating platforms for awareness, economic opportunities, girl child education, and the political participation of women.
GENDER ANALYSIS FOR A SUSTAINABLE AGRICULTURE AND LIVELIHOOD IMPROVEMENT PROJECT

Female traders in Borno State
4. RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings from the gender analysis of the six LGAs, the following recommendations are made under each specific objective.

1. Differential needs of women and men in the target communities in relation to gender, age, and how dominant social norms and power dynamics play out

Women are overwhelmingly involved in household tasks, and at the same time are involved in productive activities. Women in the target communities work about 16 hours per day – cooking, bathing children, washing plates, doing general cleaning of the house, preparing meals, cleaning the kitchen, washing clothes, and preparing children for bed – while the men work fewer than six hours per day, with plenty of hours to rest and meet with other men at the majalissa. As can be seen, the women unfortunately do not have any time to rest.

The results of the study showed that women’s burdens were exacerbated by the conflict in the area, as there are now additional responsibilities related to the survival of the family – women are often breadwinners and heads of households. This is especially true of women who have lost their husbands (9.4 per cent of the female respondents in this study were widows), while there are many women whose husbands are missing or incapacitated.

Prior to the conflict, tradition played a major role in defining the tasks women and men within the study communities can and cannot do. For example, in Konduga tradition forbids a man from cleaning, cooking, or engaging in threshing. Women cannot head households, except when the women have lost their husbands. Only women took care of children. However, the conflict has changed things, and those norms seem not to hold water any more, as women are now going out to work and feed the family. Some are of the view that there are no norms that forbid either sex from carrying out any activity.

The implication of this situation is that women are facing a double burden of domestic and productive responsibilities. In addition to the inherent inequality, there are significant time constraints for women. The study identified some needs based on the roles of women. These include practical gender needs such as firewood, water, food, credit, security, and agricultural inputs; the strategic gender needs identified for the woman farmer include land, decision-making power, education, economic empowerment, access to markets, participation, etc. Women need to participate in the sustainable agricultural project in Borno State, but the challenge is how to free up women’s time for effective participation.

Recommendations

1. Provision of labour-saving technology for women, including threshing machines and grinding machines.
2. Sensitization about gender norms and women’s workload.
3. Training and capacity building for men on gender issues; these include inter alia gender equality and equity, the importance and recognition of women’s participation in agriculture, gender discrimination in access to agricultural resources, the multiple roles of women and the
need for support, and gender-based violence and the role of community members in ending it.

4. Improving women’s access to domestic energy and fuel-efficient stoves and planting of fast-growing species of trees to increase household fuelwood supply. One of the partners in the consortium, FAO, has been involved in the production of fuel-efficient stoves in other countries that have been plagued with protracted conflicts. In north-east Nigeria, FAO is involved in issues related to energy access by vulnerable populations. FAO has established three production centres for fuel-efficient stoves; 100 people were trained in production techniques, resulting in the production and distribution of 5,000 locally produced fuel-efficient stoves in Maiduguri, Jere, and Konduga LGAs. FAO is also involved in the distribution of an emergency SAFE kit (consisting of a lightweight stove and a solar lantern) for highly mobile IDPs and is in the process of supporting existing structures of sustainable forest management. FAO is also coordinating a Working Group on Safe Access to Fuel and Energy (SAFE) in Maiduguri, under the Food Security Sector, in order to share information, coordinate activities, and advocate for energy access. The sustainable agriculture project can leverage on this experience. Another area the project can explore is briquette production.

5. There is a need to design (in a participatory manner) strategies that will give women some free time. Community childcare and customized support can ease their double work load as farmers and caregivers. In this regard, the project should think about establishing women-friendly spaces that can act as childcare centres as well as places where women can discuss their issues and unwind. It can also be a place to meet extension workers and a skill acquisition centre for the women to learn new livelihoods. If such spaces already exist, the project could liaise with such structures.

2. Access to and control over land and productive resources, food security, and other social protections in the face of conflict and scarce resources

A. Access to land

All of the participants of the FGDs and KIIs agreed that both men and women have access to land; women’s access is obtained through renting or through their husbands or male relatives. According to all the respondents at the community level, land for cultivation is becoming scarce; due to fear of attack by insurgents, there are restrictions on agricultural production on land close to the community. In this situation, women are the last to have access to land.
There are no religious norms that prevent women from owning land in the study communities; however, fewer women own lands compared to men because ownership is through inheritance or purchase, and women often have fewer resources to purchase than men. Women’s land ownership means security and subsequently access to credit to buy key agricultural inputs and other investments to increase food production, thereby lifting women’s status and her bargaining power in families and communities as well as boosting well-being at the household level. However, some respondents are of the view that a woman’s ownership of land may not give her control over it. Borno State is a highly patriarchal society, and this has serious implications for women’s empowerment and their access to and control of resources, even those they rightfully own. The woman is under the control of the husband, and all that she owns also belongs to him.

When renting land, women cannot cultivate any crop outside of what has been agreed; such restrictions include high-income cash crops such as watermelon. They also cannot plant trees on such lands; trees are a key to sustainable agriculture, especially in a zone where serious deforestation has led to land degradation, which is exacerbated by impacts of climate change.

One of the challenges that must be tackled by the proposed sustainable agricultural project is that of women’s landlessness in the face of diminishing arable land. Women’s participation in the project depends largely on adequate access to land.

Recommendations
1. The Nigeria Land Use Act of 1978 nationalized all land and vested authority in the State Governor, who holds it in trust on behalf of all. In this regard, advocacy workshops must target key stakeholders – government (state and local), traditional and religious leaders, civil society organizations (CSOs), etc. – to put in place strategies that will provide land for female beneficiaries of the project.
2. Working with traditional leaders and LGAs to provide land or facilitate ownership of land.
   The traditional/community leaders have the authority to give out land and can be approached to give land to women beneficiaries; it may be group possession of land.
3. Provision of money to rent larger plots of land to increase production by women farmers and group possession of land by women should be encouraged.

B. Access to credit
Agricultural credit is seen as one of the strategic resources for crop production, and has led to an increase in the standard of living for our rural poor. There are two main sources of agricultural credit: formal and informal. Farmers in the target communities have not benefitted from the formal sources (banks and government). As to whether there were differences in access to credit for men, women, and youth farmers, the predominant answer was in the negative. According to respondents, it is only when all farmers are able to access formal sources of credit that the issues of differences in access among the different categories of farmers can be ascertained. However, it is the view of the women that if such opportunities should present themselves, men are likely to have more access because women face certain barriers: lack of financial literacy, illiteracy (and hence lack of familiarity with loan procedures), inability to provide collateral, and male-dominated banking facilities.

Informal sources of credits were identified – family, friends, adashe (voluntary community savings and credit groups), money lenders, politicians, organizations, and vendors who give goods to farmers on credit. Everyone has access to these informal sources of credits, but access to money lenders is dependent on the size of farms, which of course marginalizes women farmers by virtue of their very small parcels of land. This lack of access of women farmers to money lenders may be a blessing in disguise because of the high interest rate – often double the amount.
Access to credit is critical to the recovery of the agricultural sector and for building the resilience of farmers. The issue of collateral as a huge barrier to accessing credit for low-income farmers resonated at the state-level KIIs.

**Recommendations**

1. Providing women with greater access to land, finance, and production inputs is critical to closing the productivity gap between men and women. Various sources of formal credit identified in this research should be looked at and strategies developed to facilitate access by rural farmers to such facilities.

2. Awareness is the first step towards access. The partners should work with MWASD, MPAYE, and relevant CSOs to create awareness about these sources of agricultural credit for farmers, the criteria for accessing them, and the linkages with other institutions that may be needed to facilitate access to such facilities.

3. There is a need to incorporate an unconditional cash transfer into the project, especially in the first rainy season when farmers are still trying to rebuild their agricultural assets. The modalities and the delivery mechanisms of such cash-based transfer interventions, however, have to be determined after baseline assessments.

4. Women and girls should also be supported in their non-farm livelihoods to build resilience and hence reduce their vulnerability. This component would also involve mandatory weekly savings contributions for 40 weeks, after which their contributions would be made available to them.

5. Working closely with MWASD, MPAYE, the Ministry of Agriculture, and the Borno State Agricultural Development Programme to leverage whatever facilities or opportunities are available in these institutions.

6. Facilitation of the emergence of women’s cooperatives/associations for easy access to loans/credit.

**C. Access to and control of farmers’ groups/associations**

Many farmers’ groups/associations were identified in all the study communities; these include mixed-sex groups and all-female groups organized around the crops that they grow or the farming systems they use. The mixed-sex groups are controlled by men, while women have absolute control of the all-female groups. The latter face challenges such as lack of capital and knowledge, skills/capacity gaps, limited access to and ownership of land, limited leadership skills to run a group, limited financial management skills, and inadequate agricultural inputs.

**Recommendations**

1. Facilitating women’s participation in farmers’ associations, ensuring that the leadership of mixed-sex farmers’ groups comprise at least 35 per cent women (as per the affirmative action principle of the National Gender Policy), and ensuring that women have equal rights to acquire services and assistance from the association and share the common benefits.

2. There is a need for capacity building and training for women farmers’ associations in the areas of resource mobilization, leadership, financial management, entrepreneurship, and conflict management.
3. UN Women and partners should work through the women farmers’ groups as entry points to their work with women and girls in the target communities.

D. Access to extension services and inputs

Productive agriculture requires the dissemination of information related to production and marketing to farmers. Lack of access to agricultural information is a key contributor to the inability of smallholder farmers, including women farmers, to transit from subsistence to commercialized agriculture. Extension officers play a great role in the dissemination of agricultural information. In the pre-crisis period, when the Borno State Agricultural Development Programme was implementing the World Bank Agricultural Development Programme, the state had 1,750 trained extension workers providing services to farmers in most farming communities in the state.

As a result of the conflict, extension officers fled from the conflict-affected zones along with the farmers. The findings from the FGDs and KIIs showed that extension services are almost non-existent in the study communities, with extension workers coming once a year or once in a while. This information was corroborated at a recent meeting with extension workers and CSOs. They noted that the number of extension workers in Borno State stands at 168, meaning the ratio of extension officers to farmers is 1:3,311; the World Bank standard is 1:300. This huge personnel gap partly explains why extension services are almost non-existent in the study communities.

Women have less access to extension services than men, for three main reasons. First, there is an inadequate number of female extension workers, as indicated by the extremely low ratio of female extension workers to female farmers (1:1,972; the World Bank standard is 1:80). Second, the extension services are dominated by male extension workers, and women are often not aware of their visits. By the time they know, the extension officers have come and gone. Third, male extension workers are not allowed to interact with female farmers for cultural reasons. The services the extension workers provide include:

- Advice and techniques for planting and application of fertilizers, agro-chemicals, and pesticides
- Provision of improved seeds and farming tools
- Advice on pest control, seed selection, improved varieties, and farming skills

Extension services are sometimes provided by organizations such as FAO, WFP, and SCI, among others.

E. Access to fertilizers

Both male and female farmers have physical access to fertilizers, but economic access is where the challenge is, especially for women farmers. According to respondents, fertilizers from government sources do not reach the farmers, as only those whose names are submitted by politicians can access them. Thus, farmers have to purchase in the open market at exorbitant prices; the ban on the sale of nitrogen-based fertilizers (because of their potential for making improvised explosive devices) has caused scarcity and further price hikes.

F. Access to pesticides

There are pest problems in all the study communities. These include fall armyworm, African armyworm, quelea birds, aphids, stem borers, and fruitworms. In addition, there are fungal and viral diseases and noxious weeds such as Striga. All the farmers spray unspecified pesticides bought from the open market, which may lead to pesticide abuse; access for both men and women depends on the resources they have. Some farmers use traditional methods of control for these pests such as the use of ashes and potash.
G. Access to agricultural equipment

Before the conflict, tractors used to be provided, subsidized by the government, but these are currently individually owned. Both men and women have physical access to such agricultural equipment, but not equal economic access, as men are more likely to have more financial resources. Women have small landholdings and low capital, and hence have limited access to agricultural equipment. Groups of women do come together to contribute money to hire a tractor or animal traction for land preparation. Some farmers also access tractors through registered farmers’ cooperatives connected to agricultural banks; this may need to be explored.

H. Access to training

Training is very important to the success of agricultural production. In all the study locations, respondents reported one form of training or another by UN agencies (FAO and WFP) or international non-governmental organizations (SCI, Plan International, Oxfam). Trainings were on modern farming methods, fertilizer application, storage, pest control, livelihoods, health, gender-based violence, vegetable gardening, etc. Information from KIs at the state level indicates that the Ministry of Agriculture provided information on crop and rice farming, community-based seed enterprises, and agronomic practices for some major crops. The government also conducted training on the use of improved varieties, pests and pesticide application, and post-harvest handling and proper storage of farm produce against infestation.

These are the suggested areas of training: modern agricultural techniques, livelihoods, food fortification and nutrition, processing and utilization of farm produce (especially for women), and conflict management. The following areas are particularly for youth: modern farming technology, agribusiness, marketing and linkages, and the establishment of cooperatives. Awareness must be raised on the importance of conflict-affected youth completing their education (while also pursuing livelihoods).

I. Access to labour

The main sources of agricultural labour in the communities are family and hired labour and the practice of gaïya, in which groups of friends support one another rotationally. There are certain tasks that society has prescribed for men and women. For women, these include seed selection, sowing, watering, threshing, and processing; farming vegetables such as okra and spinach; cultivating groundnuts, sesame, and beans; picking groundnuts and beans; and collecting soup ingredients. For men, traditionally prescribed tasks include ploughing, land preparation, regular monitoring of the farm, harvesting of grains, and weeding of larger grass varieties.

According to respondents’ religion and culture, women were not supposed to be exposed to hard labour. They were only to be involved in those tasks that do not physically drain their energy. Women do the cooking, so the crops they grow are mostly for household consumption. Men’s tasks include operation of sophisticated equipment, hard labour,
and large-scale farming. However, the conflict has changed all that, as everyone can now perform any task in the field depending on their ability, and both men and women now contribute to the upkeep of the family.

**Recommendations**

1. Women’s access to training and information should be improved, as knowledge of farming techniques is critical to productivity. This would mean putting in place robust agricultural extension and training services which should be adapted to rural women’s needs and constraints.

2. Recruitment and training of extension workers, especially female extension workers. The project can liaise with the Borno State Agricultural Development Programme to retrain its pre-conflict pool of extension workers. The project should also link up with the Agricultural Extension Unit within the Ministry of Agriculture with a view to improving services.

3. Creation of awareness about the discrimination against women farmers regarding their unequal access to inputs. There is a need to change the mindset that women are not serious farmers. This underscores the dire need for advocacy and training in the area of gender mainstreaming, participation, women’s rights, gender roles/time constraints, and economic empowerment. Farmer Field Schools should be established in all the communities of the sustainable agriculture project, and they will incorporate these topics into their curriculum. The Farmer Field School approach is an innovative, participatory, and interactive learning approach that emphasizes problem solving and discovery-based learning. The goal of the schools is to build farmers’ capacity to analyse their production systems, identify problems, test possible solutions, and eventually adopt the practices most suitable to their farming systems (FAO, 2003c). Such schools can equally provide an opportunity for farmers to practice and test/evaluate sustainable land use technologies, and introduce new technologies through comparing conventional technologies with their own tradition and culture.

4. UN Women and partners should link up with relevant ministries, departments, and agencies to ensure access to fertilizer for women farmers and advocate to have qualified dealers and shops with agricultural inputs in the communities for easy access by women farmers, whose mobility is restricted by culture and religion.

5. Provision of assistance to farmers in the following areas: training, improved seeds and crop varieties, fertilizers, pesticides, access to farmland, market support, extension services, agricultural equipment, agricultural credit/loans, funding, post-harvest technologies, safety, security, start-up capital, scholarships for young farmers to complete their education, organization of women, and women’s participation in the agricultural value chain.


3. Differential vulnerability, barriers, and constraints faced by women and men of different ages in informal and formal institutions in relation to agriculture, livelihoods (including access to market business), and security

Vulnerability results from poverty, exclusion, marginalization, and inequities in material consumption, which are conditions determined by physical, social, economic, and environmental factors or processes and increase the susceptibility of an individual to a threat or risk. The general consensus from the gender analysis is that women are the most vulnerable group within the community, and the most vulnerable households are those headed by women. People living with disability were also classified among the highly vulnerable persons.
Men at a town market in Borno State
A. Underlying causes of the vulnerability of men and women farmers of different ages in Borno State

The underlying causes identified by the key informants were: poverty, hunger, and deprivation (negative coping mechanisms); low level of education; gender inequality; lack of access to agriculture inputs, information, and knowledge; lack of access to decision making; lack of farmland and capital; inadequate storage facilities; inaccessibility to good markets; lack of government support for producers; the land tenure system and lack of complementary livelihood activities; lack of farmland; stolen harvests; insecurity; women’s double burden and triples roles; additional burdens for widows who perform agricultural activities; patriarchy and religious misinterpretations.

B. Barriers and constraints faced by men and women in formal and informal institutions in relation to agriculture, livelihoods, and food security

Women and men face many barriers and constraints in the area of agriculture, livelihoods, and food security. According to the responses obtained, they cut across the following: lack of formal education, which prevents them from filling the necessary documents for some services; poor attitudes of some institutions in allocating the equipment and materials needed for agricultural production, etc.; lack of capital; inadequate knowledge; lack of institutionalized apprentice models; lack of support or funding from institutions; insecure tenure of land for farming; lack of farming facilities; lack of extension services; dominance of men in leadership positions in society; cultural and religious barriers. The rigid, socially sanctioned gender roles in rural societies severely constrain women’s choices regarding how they allocate their time between paid and unpaid productive and household activities, giving rise to time poverty. Culture, religious beliefs, and social norms, which are sustained by religious and traditional institutions, dictate that unpaid domestic activities (water collection, childcare, cooking, washing clothes) are the domain of females. Limited capital and limited ownership of land are big constraints. In addition, women are denied access to some agricultural services such as training on the use of sprayers, which is seen as men’s work.
Market access for farmers means the ability to acquire farm inputs and farm services, and the capability to deliver agricultural produce to buyers. When farmers do not have access to markets, they remain at the mercy of middlemen, who get rich at their expense. Findings from the field indicate that all the communities have functional markets. But there are constraints to access by women, including low production rates, limited mobility, perishable goods, and competitive local markets. Women’s only involvement in the agriculture value chain is production and sale; often, the value of the produce is hardly commensurate to the investments made. The overexploitation of women smallholder farmers underscores the need to link women to agricultural value chains – from production all the way to processing and marketing – as this would help to make traditional farming more attractive and commercially viable.

**Recommendations**

1. There is a dire need for enlightenment campaigns and advocacy with institutions (the relevant banks, ministries, departments, and agencies) to remove the barriers women farmers face accessing their services.

2. Adequate rural extension services should be employed to reach out to remote farmers in small villages who may not have access to agricultural information and technologies. Setting up an apprenticeship model will help people with little or no education get useful life skills and remove or reduce the barriers to entry.

3. Improvement of security and market regulation and provision of capital, implements, energy-saving devices, and additional livelihood options.

4. Provision of loans to both male and female farmers, as well as provision of farming facilities, including a take-off grant for the most vulnerable beneficiaries. A soft loan of about 100,000 naira should be provided for each female farmer to purchase agricultural inputs that will enhance production.

5. A policy for the allocation of funds that would respond to the issues bedevilling conflict-affected communities should be created and implemented with a sense of urgency. In this regard, an insurance system should be established that covers small-scale farmers, crops, and other assets, with appropriate support to women farmer’s needs from government. One such programme is the Index-based Agriculture Insurance introduced by the National Insurance Commission in collaboration with the Nigeria Incentive-based Risk Sharing System for Agricultural Lending. The scheme pays out benefits on the basis of a predetermined index for loss of assets, investments, and primary working capital resulting from weather and catastrophic events, without requiring traditional insurance services.

6. Since agriculture is the dominant sector for food and nutrition security and livelihood improvement in Borno State, building capacity for staff of the Borno State Agricultural Development Programme (women and men), especially in the areas of gender, gender mainstreaming, and women’s rights, is recommended.

7. Borno State Agricultural Development Programme should conduct appropriate interventions with targeted groups and facilitate discussions regularly.

8. Reaching out to men and boys separately to tackle gender inequality can be done through gender training, advocacy, and sensitization. Mixed-sex engagement can discuss gender norms, roles, and power relations for the establishment of more equitable and respectful relationships.

9. Formal and informal institutions should monitor and ensure equal access in the services they provide for farmers. Institutions should involve women and ensure that women are aware of their agricultural aids and services.

10. The project partners should link up with government through the Ministry for Reconstruction, Rehabilitation and Resettlement in the area of providing accessible roads from the farms to the markets. Government should provide vehicles at subsidized rates to convey goods to the weekly markets.
11. Security agencies should provide security along access roads to the market and within the markets.

12. The project partners should facilitate an inventory of markets destroyed by non-state armed groups, with a view to undertaking advocacy for rebuilding by government (Ministry for Reconstruction, Rehabilitation and Resettlement and the Presidential Initiative for the North-East).

13. Installation of agro-input vendors in the immediate communities, improving the availability of inputs, implements, and tools for farming.

14. Government should break the ‘middleman syndrome’ so that farmers themselves are the ones benefitting from their sweat.

15. Linking women to agricultural value chains, from production all the way to processing and marketing, which will help make traditional farming more productive and commercially viable.

4. Strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats in relation to women’s and girls’ participation in decision making and policy formulation/review of agricultural practices, food security and nutrition, livelihoods, and security in Borno State

There is a general consensus that the participation of women and girls in policy formulation and decision making is very low at all levels. There are very few women in politics in Borno State. For example, there is not a single woman in the Borno State House of Assembly and neither is there a single female local government chairman in the state. At the community level, the trend is the same; it is not unexpected, as religious misinterpretation and culture has worked against women’s participation.

Women constitute approximately 49% of the country’s population, yet they play a very limited political and participatory role. Only about 4% of local government councillors are women. Marginalized groups such as youth, IDPs, people living with disability, and survivors of GBV also have a limited voice in the public sphere.

Borno State does not have a state gender policy in agriculture, and the general view is that such a policy would be crucial to promote and ensure the adoption of gender-sensitive and gender-responsive approaches towards agriculture plans and programmes so that men and women have equal access to and control of productive resources and facilities. Such a policy, which would require technical assistance from partners such as UN Women and FAO, is expected to drastically reduce the vulnerability of women.

Recommendations

1. There should be enlightenment campaigns and training programmes for all stakeholders; workshop communiqués that capture the voice of the people should be submitted to key stakeholders such as policymakers and law-makers and followed up by high-level advocacy and lobbying to ensure that these are included in policy formulation or review.

2. Establishment of steering communities in the target LGAs/communities to guide and monitor the implementation of the project. This committee should comprise community leaders, ward heads, women leaders, and youth leaders.

3. Ensuring that the programme is designed to carry along minority and marginalized groups such as persons with disabilities, IDPs, youth,
5. Mitigation of risks of backlash and violence faced by women and girls due to their empowerment and involvement in programme implementation and governance

Borno State is a highly patriarchal society with rigid gender roles and specified domains. The conflict has seen a shift in gender roles: women are now breadwinners and also beneficiaries of livelihood schemes, cash transfers, and other social protection services provided by UN agencies – FAO, WFP, the Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs, as well as the National Emergency Management Agency, the State Emergency Management Agencies, and various international and local non-governmental organizations (NGOs). This shift in gender roles may result in a backlash against women and girls.

From the findings, the backlashes are already manifesting. Men are already complaining that their wives are becoming unruly and disrespectful, resulting in domestic violence, verbal and psychological abuse, divorce, exclusion, assault, negligence, and denial of education. Patriarchy is a cross-cutting factor in all the backlashes women will experience.

Findings have shown that gender-based violence (GBV) is a serious problem in all six LGAs. Pre-conflict GBV identified by the respondents included domestic violence; early marriage; verbal abuse; forced marriage; deprivation of education; rape; wife battering; and incest. GBV during the conflict included: abduction/kidnapping; rape; forced marriage; early/child marriage; sexual exploitation and abuse; domestic violence; psychological/verbal abuse; increasing vulnerability of women and girls arising from various deprivations; stigmatization and rejection of victims of GBV and survival sex.

Recommendations

1. Community sensitization and enlightenment campaigns, mass media and social media
platforms, and community-level extension services and employment of trained extension workers will help in creating awareness in communities. This could be done by NGOs, international NGOs (INGOs), religious and community leaders, MWASD and MPAYE, and UN Women.

2. Involving men ab initio in project implementation and sensitizing them on what the project is trying to achieve, as well as working with them for better understanding of and support for women.

3. Proper sensitization of community leaders, husbands (men), and women. Involvement of community leaders in such activities to establish trust among the men and women of the communities.

4. Educating women on their rights; empowering them both financially and in various skills that will help them to be independent.

5. Putting in place strong policies that will deal decisively with the perpetrators of GBV, to serve as a deterrent to others and assist the speedy prosecution of GBV cases, especially rape; setting up a helpdesk that will strictly respond to victims in a confidential and dignified manner, and provide all required support services. In this regard, UN Women should support MWASD, CSOs, and INGOs as they lobby for the domestication of the Violence against Persons Prohibition Act 2015 in the state.

6. Awareness creation to sensitize community members about the availability of GBV services and how to access them.

7. Development of community mobilization and campaign strategies using existing informal community groups and engaging women, men, boys, and girls to take action against gender-based violence.

8. Establishment of women-friendly spaces for survivors of sexual and gender-based violence and establishment of referral pathways at the local government level. The spaces would have multipurpose functions: skill acquisition centre; childcare centre; medical centre for women; meeting point for agriculture extension meetings; and place for information and experience sharing.

6. Other findings with implications for programming

Impact of Conflict on Agricultural Production
All the respondents in the FGDs and KIs agreed that the conflict has seriously destroyed agriculture through the killing or displacement of farmers, the destruction of assets, and reduced arable land (due to restricting farming to a few kilometres from homesteads). In addition, the restrictions on movement of people in and out of camps hinder access to fields, and restrictions on certain goods such as fertilizers by the military lower agricultural production. In Borno State, grains such as millet, sorghum, and maize are staple crops; however, growing them is prohibited in some communities, as members of non-state armed groups hide among the crops and from there attack both military personnel and civilians.

A. Impact of conflict on food security and nutrition
The conflict has greatly affected food security in the state. There is scarcity of food due to low food production; there is destruction of agricultural assets and infrastructure, including physical infrastructure, production equipment, animals, seed supplies, and food stocks. Combined with restrictions on the sale of nitrogen-based fertilizers (due to fears that they will be used to make explosive devices), food production has reduced drastically. The influx of IDPs has led to reduced access to food and limited food utilization due to the scarcity of firewood. Malnutrition is being reported across the target LGAs, but is being ameliorated by food supplements from WFP, government, INGOs, NGOs, and individuals. The respondents want the women to be trained in the modern production of nutritious meals from local food materials.
B. Impact of climate change on agricultural production

The farmers have experienced climate change in the form of rains arriving late and stopping early; drought; rising temperatures; failure of crops; and desertification. Farmers have used the following approaches to mitigate the impacts of climate change: intercropping/mixed cropping, which leads to more farm products on the same farmland; livelihood diversification; use of grasses and mulching to conserve soil moisture; and water harvesting for irrigation.

C. Gender analysis of crops grown in the study communities

A variety of crops are grown within the target communities: maize, millet, sorghum, okro (okra), roselle, sesame, cucumber, watermelon, tomato, onion, rice, groundnut, Bambara nut, cotton, and various beans and vegetables. The men grow crops for both home consumption and commercial purposes, while women grow mainly vegetables and beans for family consumption and a little for sale. There are no restrictions on what crops can be grown by either women or men, but growing crops such as cotton, rice, and grains, which require a lot of inputs and energy, is seen as the men’s domain. These crops are the main sources of agricultural income, and women are marginalized from them.

D. Livestock husbandry

Livestock are kept in all the target communities. These include cows, goats, sheep, poultry, and donkeys. All members of the community, from the youth to adults, are involved in livestock farming. Women do own livestock. The general consensus is that women have full control over their own animals, while milk from animals is always for the women, irrespective of whether the animal belongs to her or her husband.

7. Programming opportunities, strengths, gaps, lessons learned, and recommended strategies for designing a gender-responsive livelihood programme that caters for the needs and interests of women, men, boys, and girls to enhance programme effectiveness that maximizes impact for food security

This gender analysis has been carried out to inform gender-transformative programming within target communities that would challenge existing and longstanding gender norms, promote positive and transformative social and political change for women and girls, and address power inequities between men and women. For this, recommendations would be made from three perspectives: programming opportunities and entry points; strategies that can lead to results in the long, medium, and short term; and gaps/weaknesses in terms of what other programmes are not currently addressing and what needs to be addressed in the target communities.

A. Recommendations on programming opportunities and entry points

1. Advocacy to gatekeepers at state, LGA, and community levels to create awareness about the project and what it hopes to achieve.
2. Identifying partners and their areas of expertise to leverage these skills in the design and implementation of the programmes.

3. Gender-targeted interventions that promote the rights and empowerment of women farmers through eliminating discrimination and increasing their access to land ownership, agricultural inputs, technology (including LST, which frees women’s time for productive activities), credit, labour, and markets.

4. Promotion of agroforestry, which will not only improve the health of the land, but also be a source of much-needed firewood and reduce the GBV associated with searching for firewood.

5. Establishment of farmers’ groups/cooperatives and strengthening of existing ones.

6. Women should be assisted in those farming systems they dominate by training them on more modern farming techniques for increased production. Women should also be encouraged to go into irrigation farming for year-round production of home garden produce as well as cash crops.

7. Training on modern husbandry systems should be provided to both male and female farmers to increase livestock production. The government, FAO, and other NGOs should increase their provision of information to community-based farmers’ groups on livestock management, agromarketing, and the establishment of cooperatives.

B. Recommendations on strategies that can lead to results in the long, medium, and short term

1. Establishment of steering committees in the target LGAs/communities to guide and monitor the implementation of the project. These committees will comprise community leaders, ward heads, women leaders, and youth leaders. They will be chaired by the implementing organization.

2. Strengthening women’s capacities around leadership, decision making, and participation and ensuring that their voices are in the conversations around agriculture, food security, livelihoods, sexual and gender-based violence, advocacy, etc. Such capacity building would allow women to participate in mixed-sex groups and structures. Training schedules should accommodate the different schedules and needs of women, men, girls, and boys.

3. Increasing women’s literacy level through adult education. The partners should link up with SAME, who have structures on ground in most LGAs; this will increase their access to agricultural information, credit, and financial management services.

4. Strengthening of linkages with ministries, departments, and agencies and other programmes that are working on gender issues and women’s empowerment with a view to addressing gender inequality.

5. Building capacity of programme staff and partner staff to recognize gender inequalities and design programmes to reduce them.

6. Capacity building for programme implementers for consistent and effective gender mainstreaming.

7. Programmes around sexual and gender-based violence, sexual exploitation and abuse, psychosocial support, and trauma healing; also increasing access to basic services.

8. Establishment and operation of women-only Farmer Field Schools. The rationale behind this recommendation is that some women in northern Nigeria, especially in Borno, are still not bold because of the age-old socialization process that has excluded women and girls. Thus, the Farmer Field Schools will be spaces that will prepare women to take on leadership roles in extension schemes.

9. Strengthening rural institutions, increasing their gender awareness, and having gender champions within both rural institutions and the target communities.

10. Putting in place a robust monitoring, evaluation, accountability, and learning framework that is flexible enough to incorporate changes.
The project partners should develop gender-sensitive indicators for monitoring, evaluation, accountability, and learning.

Awareness creation on human rights, laws, and policies for protection and redress. This could be through community and media interventions, using public awareness campaigns to challenge gender norms, stereotypes, discrimination, and gender inequality; capacity should be built on the human rights–based approach to demand service delivery.

C. Recommendations on gaps and weaknesses

The past six years have witnessed an unprecedented humanitarian crisis in Borno State, manifested in the massive displacement of persons. Humanitarian actors have responded with food and non-food aid. Some organizations are beginning to combine humanitarian responses with early recovery initiatives, but there seems to be a gap in these projects related to human rights, literacy, and livelihoods. The project thus will be using a two-pronged approach that meets both the practical gender needs of the farmers and the strategic gender needs. To achieve this, the following recommendations are made.


2. Incorporating into the project an adult education component to bridge the gap in education between women and girls and men and boys. The expected increase in the level of education will increase women’s and girls’ capacity to benefit from this and other projects.

3. Livelihood support for women through capacity building in financial literacy, as well as mandatory weekly savings by beneficiaries that would provide capital for them to invest at the end of a specified period.

4. Put in place gender-transformative programming that seeks to challenge longstanding gender norms, promote positive and transformative social and political change for women and girls, and address power inequities between men and women.

38% of Nigerian women have no formal education

LITERACY IMPROVES ACCESS TO AGRICULTURAL INPUTS, INSTITUTIONAL SUPPORT, CREDIT, LOANS, BUSINESS OPPORTUNITIES, AND INFORMATION
A market scene in Borno State


GLOSSARY

Access to resources
Access gives a person the use of a resource, e.g. land to grow crops.

Control
Control allows a person to make decisions about who uses the resource or to dispose of the resource, e.g. sell land.

Food insecurity
A situation that exists when people lack secure access to sufficient amounts of safe and nutritious food for normal growth and development and an active and healthy life.

Food security
This exists when all people at all times have physical, social, and economic access to sufficient, safe, and nutritious food that meets their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life.

Gender
Social attributes learned or acquired during socialization by members of a given community. They can and do change over time and they vary across cultures.

Gender analysis
A systematic methodology for examining the differences in roles and norms for women and men, girls and boys; the different levels of power they hold; their differing needs, constraints, and opportunities; and the impact of these differences on their lives.

Gender awareness
An awareness of the differences in roles and relations between women and men. It recognizes that the life experiences, expectations, and needs of women and men are different.

Gender-based violence
Any violent act or threat of violence that targets an individual due to their sex. It affects both men and women.

Gender discrimination
Any distinction, exclusion, or restriction made on the basis of sex that has the effect or purpose of impairing or nullifying the recognition, enjoyment, or exercise by women, irrespective of their marital status, on the basis of equality of men and women, of human rights and fundamental freedoms in the political, economic, social, cultural, civil, or any other field.

Gender division of labour
This relates to the different types of work that men and women do as a consequence of their socialization and accepted patterns of work within a given context.
Gender equality
When women and men enjoy the same rights and opportunities across all sectors of society, including economic participation and decision making, and when the different behaviours, aspirations, and needs of women and men are equally valued and favoured.

Gender equity
Fairness of treatment for women and men, according to their respective needs. This may include equal treatment or treatment that is different, but which is considered equivalent in terms of rights, benefits, obligations, and opportunities.

Gender issues
Any issues or concerns determined by gender-based and/or sex-based differences between women and men. They refer to differences in roles and relationships between men and women that result in unequal or differential treatment of an individual or group. The most common involve unequal distribution of resources, benefits, opportunities, or decision-making powers.

Gender mainstreaming
The integration of gender perspectives into every stage of policy processes – design, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation – with a view to promoting equality between women and men. It means assessing how policies impact on the life and position of both women and men, and taking responsibility to readdress them if necessary.

Gender sensitivity
The ability to acknowledge and highlight existing gender differences, issues, and inequalities and incorporate these into strategies and actions.

Gender stereotypes
Sets of beliefs about the personal attributes, behaviours, and roles of a specific social group. Gender stereotypes are biased and often exaggerated images of women and men that are used repeatedly in everyday life. They are deep-rooted beliefs in something that has not been logically/empirically proven and follows a mode of generalization.

Participation
The informed, autonomous, and meaningful involvement of a community in influencing decision making and action.

Practical gender needs
These are needs often associated with material conditions related to daily needs. Meeting these needs will only improve the lives of women without changing existing gender division of labour or challenging women’s subordinate position in society.

Security
Freedom from actual or potential danger in both private and public spheres.
Sex-disaggregated data
Collection and use of qualitative and quantitative data by sex (i.e. categorized according to sex, not gender) is critical as a basis for gender-sensitive research, analysis, strategic planning, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation of programmes and projects. The use of this data reveals and clarifies gender-related issues in areas such as access to and control over resources, division of labour, violence, mobility, and decision making.

Strategic gender needs
These needs represent changes in gender roles, division of labour, power, and control, or new opportunities related to disadvantaged positions in society. If these are met, the existing relations of unequal power between men and women would be transformed.

Violence against women and girls
Any act of gender-based violence that results in, or is likely to result in, physical, sexual, or psychological harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion, or arbitrary deprivations of liberty, whether occurring in public or in private life.

Women's empowerment
A process through which women and girls acquire knowledge, skills, and a willingness to critically analyse their situation and take appropriate action to change the status quo. Women’s empowerment means developing their ability to collectively and individually take control of their own lives, identify their needs, set their own agendas, and demand support from their communities and the state to see that their interests are responded to. Empowerment is often described as the ability to make choices. However, empowerment also involves being able to determine what the choices themselves will be.
### Work plan for the gender analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key actions</th>
<th>Timeline (2018)</th>
<th>Expected outcome</th>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>Responsibility</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Develop Implementation plan for the gender analysis</td>
<td>18 May</td>
<td>Briefs and clear understanding of expectations from consultants</td>
<td>One Skype meeting held; minutes of meeting produced</td>
<td>Consultants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Review questions and tools in line with the study objectives</td>
<td>18 May</td>
<td>Questions and tools revised and aligned with the study objectives</td>
<td>One Skype meeting held</td>
<td>Consultants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Produce and submit an inception report (with clear target profile, logistics, and interview schedule/arrangement)</td>
<td>24 May</td>
<td>UN Women received inception report</td>
<td>Inception report produced</td>
<td>Consultants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use feedback from UN Women to review the inception report and re-submit</td>
<td>25 May</td>
<td>UN Women received inception report</td>
<td>Inception report produced</td>
<td>Consultants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Establish linkages with relevant UN agencies (FAO, WFP, UN Women, etc.) and address issues of security, logistics, and stakeholder mapping</td>
<td>30 May to 1 June</td>
<td>Relevant documents from the UN agencies obtained</td>
<td>Contacts established with relevant UN agencies</td>
<td>Consultants, UN Women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conduct training for research assistants and test the tools</td>
<td>2 June</td>
<td>Training of research assistants and others completed</td>
<td>Training report produced</td>
<td>Consultants, UN Women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finalization of the logistics plan for communities and interviews of government and non-governmental agencies (drafting and distribution of introductory letters and schedules)</td>
<td>3 June</td>
<td>Interview plans and schedules communicated to communities, state officials, and development agencies</td>
<td>Logistics and travel plans arranged</td>
<td>Consultants, UN Women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Calls and visits to communities in the six Local Government Areas of Borno State to mobilize communities/target audiences with support from the project team (UN Women and Borno)</td>
<td>3 June</td>
<td>Selected communities and stakeholders mobilized for the study</td>
<td>One awareness/trip report produced</td>
<td>Consultants, UN Women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visits to communities in the six LGAs to conduct the interviews/collect data</td>
<td>4 to 9 June</td>
<td>Administer questionnaires and collect data from the selected communities</td>
<td>Field data collected from the six LGAs</td>
<td>Consultants, UN Women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task Description</td>
<td>Dates</td>
<td>Details</td>
<td>Responsible parties</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
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<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interviews of government and non-governmental agencies</td>
<td>10 to 15 June</td>
<td>UN agencies (FAO, WFP, etc.) and relevant government and non-governmental organizations working in Borno interviewed</td>
<td>Consultants, UN Women</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finalization of the field work (development of case studies/stories) and data clean-up</td>
<td>18 to 22 June</td>
<td>Consultants entered data into computer and analyzed the data</td>
<td>Consultants, UN Women</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Submit summary of key and preliminary findings</td>
<td>25 June</td>
<td>Summary of key and preliminary findings submitted</td>
<td>Consultants, UN Women</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Develop analysis framework and share for inputs</td>
<td>26 June</td>
<td>Analysis framework developed and submitted</td>
<td>Consultants, UN Women</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analyse data qualitatively and write up case studies</td>
<td>27 June to 5 July</td>
<td>Data analysis completed</td>
<td>Consultants</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Submit a draft report to UN Women</td>
<td>6 July</td>
<td>Draft report submitted for peer review and comments incorporated accordingly</td>
<td>Consultants</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coordinate and get feedback from peer reviewers</td>
<td>9 to 13 July</td>
<td>Feedback received from peer reviewers</td>
<td>Consultants, UN Women</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comments on the report from UN Women and other partners used to revise report</td>
<td>17 July</td>
<td>Consultants received comments on report</td>
<td>Consultants, UN Women</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participate and support the validating exercise/process</td>
<td>19 July</td>
<td>Consultants supported validation exercise/ workshop to test ideas and interpretations of results at stakeholder level</td>
<td>Consultants, UN Women</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Final review, proofreading, layout/design of report</td>
<td>18 to 24 July</td>
<td>Consultants prepared final report in line with comments on report</td>
<td>Consultants</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Submission of final report to UN Women</td>
<td>25 July</td>
<td>Standard technical report finalized and submitted</td>
<td>Consultants</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ANNEX 2

Household activity profile of community members in the six LGAs before and during the conflict

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Household tasks</th>
<th>LGAs</th>
<th>Before the conflict: % of the task done by each category</th>
<th>During the conflict: % of the task done by each category</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Women</td>
<td>Men</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cleaning</td>
<td>Jere</td>
<td>57.5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Konduga</td>
<td>57.5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kaga</td>
<td>35.0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Monguno</td>
<td>60.0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gwoza</td>
<td>52.5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Biu</td>
<td>57.5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fetching firewood</td>
<td>Jere</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Konduga</td>
<td>32.5</td>
<td>57.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kaga</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Monguno</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>47.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gwoza</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Biu</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>50.0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Fetching water</td>
<td>Jere</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Konduga</td>
<td>32.5</td>
<td>35.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kaga</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Monguno</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gwoza</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Biu</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>17.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preparing food</td>
<td>Jere</td>
<td>82.5</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Konduga</td>
<td>75.0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kaga</td>
<td>57.5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Monguno</td>
<td>82.5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gwoza</td>
<td>77.5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Biu</td>
<td>75.0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taking care of children</td>
<td>Jere</td>
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<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Konduga</td>
<td>82.5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kaga</td>
<td>82.5</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Monguno</td>
<td>65.0</td>
<td>17.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gwoza</td>
<td>85.0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Biu</td>
<td>82.5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Jere</td>
<td>70.0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Washing clothes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jere</td>
<td>70.0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>17.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Konduga</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>30.0</td>
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<td>Kaga</td>
<td>55.0</td>
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<td>17.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Monguno</td>
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<tr>
<td>Gwoza</td>
<td>57.5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biu</td>
<td>55.0</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heading household</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jere</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>85.0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Konduga</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>87.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kaga</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>92.5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monguno</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>92.5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gwoza</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>75.0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biu</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>87.5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decision making</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jere</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>75.0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Konduga</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>95.0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kaga</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>75.0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monguno</td>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>77.5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gwoza</td>
<td>32.5</td>
<td>67.5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biu</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>85.0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## ANNEX 3

### Productive activity profile of community members in the six LGAs before and during the conflict

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Farming tasks</th>
<th>LGAs</th>
<th>Before the conflict: % of the task done by each category</th>
<th>During the conflict: % of the task done by each category</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Women</td>
<td>Men</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Land clearing</td>
<td>Jere</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>72.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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## ANNEX 4

Informal sources of credit/loans identified by respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Local Government Areas</th>
<th>Informal sources of credit</th>
<th>Who has access</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Jere</strong></td>
<td>Politicians, organizations, neighbours, family, friends, moneylenders, influential people in the community (who give loans to relatives for the farming season), collection on credit</td>
<td>Men have the most access. Women have less access to the informal sources of credit because they only cultivate small pieces of land (less than one acre), and women do not have any guarantees because they do not have savings.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Konduga</strong></td>
<td>Voluntary contributions <em>(adashe)</em>, family and friends, moneylenders, other farmers</td>
<td>Anyone can borrow from family and friends, if they are able.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Kaga</strong></td>
<td>Family, friends, businessmen, politicians, organizations, cooperative unions</td>
<td>Anybody can borrow from his/her family and friends and from businessmen if the lender is sure the borrower will return the money on the agreed date.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Monguno</strong></td>
<td>Family, friends, voluntary contributions <em>(before the conflict)</em></td>
<td>All categories, whether men, women, girls, or boys, who are engaged in business can do voluntary contributions and have access, and anyone can borrow from family and friends.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gwoza</strong></td>
<td>Politicians, organizations, <em>(adashe)</em>, family, friends, moneylenders</td>
<td>The first level of borrowing is family and friends, and when that is not possible, they borrow from moneylenders, as they consider them as bad as the banks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Biu</strong></td>
<td>Family, friends, voluntary contributions, moneylenders, collection on credit</td>
<td>Everyone has access, as long as the person has the means to refund the money at the agreed time. There is no difference in access between men and women, but the women often do not take loans because they are not sure if they can pay them back at the right time.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## ANNEX 5

### Identified farmers’ groups within the Local Government Areas

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Local Government Areas</th>
<th>Identified farmers’ groups</th>
<th>Membership and control</th>
<th>Identified women farmers’ groups</th>
<th>Challenges</th>
<th>Other identified groups</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Jere**               |   • Dry and Rainy Season Farmers’ Association  
   • Fadama Farmers’ Association  
   • Rice Farmers’ Association  
   • Cassava Farmers’ Association  
   • Jere Farmers’ Association  
   • Livestock Association  
   • Poultry Farmers’ Association  
   • Women Poultry Farmers’ Association  
   • Cattle Fattening Association  
   • Tractor Hiring Association | Women are part of the groups. Elected members of the groups, be they male or female, have control. | Women Poultry Farmers’ Association | Their challenges are lack of funds and inadequate training and skills. |   • Women and Vulnerable People Association  
   • Jere Youth Coalition  
   • Old Maiduguri Development Association  
   • Widows’ Association Jere  
   • Youth Progressive Forum  
   • Blind People Association of Nigeria |
| **Konduga**            |   • Bulamari Farmers’ Union  
   • Auno Fadama Farmers  
   • Auno Women Poultry Association  
   • Auno Widows Farmers’ Association  
   • Fadama 3 Women’s Association  
   • Cattle Fattening Association  
   • Livestock Association | Women are part of the groups. Elected members of the groups, be they male or female, have control. | Auno Women Poultry Association, Auno Widows Farmers’ Association, Fadama 3 Women’s Association | The challenges they face are those of capital, capacity, land, and agricultural inputs. |   • Auno Youth Progressive Union  
   • Association of People with Disabilities  
   • Auno Petty Traders’ Association  
   • Auno Bukarti Multipurpose  
   • Auno Bulamari Multipurpose  
   • Youth Microfinance Group |
| **Kaga**               |   • Fadama Farmers’ Association  
   • Women Groundnut Farmers’ Association  
   • Women Soya Bean Farmers’ Association  
   • Cattle Breeders’ Association  
   • Groundnut Farmers’ Association  
   • Cattle Fattening Association  
   • Women Groundnut Processing Association  
   • Women Animal Fattening Association | Women are part of the group. Those who control the groups are the elected members, be they male or female. Men are mainly the chairmen and women are often the treasurers. | Women Groundnut Farmers’ Association, Women Soya Bean Farmers’ Association, Women Groundnut Processing Association, Women Animal Fattening Association | The challenges they face are mainly financial. Financial assistance and support with pesticides, fertilizers, tools, and improved seeds are needed. |   • National Council For Women Society  
   • Youth Development Forum  
   • Association of People with Disabilities |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Monguno</th>
<th>Women are part of the group. Elected members of the group have control, be they male or female. Both men and women control the leadership.</th>
<th>Women are part of the group. Elected members of the group have control, be they male or female. Both men and women control the leadership.</th>
<th>Women are part of the group. Elected members of the group have control, be they male or female. Both men and women control the leadership.</th>
<th>Women FADAMA Farmers’ Association A, B, and C</th>
<th>Women Cattle Farmers’ Association, Monguno FADAMA Farmers’ Association A, B, and C</th>
<th>Their challenges include lack of funds. They need leadership training on finance and resource management.</th>
<th>Monguno Youth Progressive Forum</th>
<th>Association of People with Disabilities</th>
<th>Monguno Youth Development Association</th>
<th>Kuya Association</th>
<th>Women Christian Fellowship</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Men control the associations, but in Yakase, the secretary is a female; in the other associations, women are the cashiers and treasurers.</td>
<td>Myririna Women Farmers’ Association, Bwala Women Farmers’ Association, Waza Waza Women Farmers’ Association</td>
<td>The challenges they face are lack of capital, training, land, and agricultural inputs.</td>
<td>Myririna Women Farmers’ Association, Bwala Women Farmers’ Association, Waza Waza Women Farmers’ Association</td>
<td>The challenges they face are lack of capital, training, land, and agricultural inputs.</td>
<td>Myririna Women Farmers’ Association, Bwala Women Farmers’ Association, Waza Waza Women Farmers’ Association</td>
<td>The challenges they face are lack of capital, training, land, and agricultural inputs.</td>
<td>NCWS, Gwoza</td>
<td>Gwoza Youth Development Forum</td>
<td>Association of People with Disabilities</td>
<td>NCWS, Gwoza</td>
<td>Gwoza Youth Development Forum</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Gwoza | Women are part of the group. Elected members of the group, be they male or female, are in control. | Zalidva Farmers’ Association, Thawale Farmers’ Association | The challenges include lack of funding, a poor road network, and inadequate government policies. | Zalidva Farmers’ Association, Thawale Farmers’ Association | Zalidva Farmers’ Association, Thawale Farmers’ Association | The challenges include lack of funding, a poor road network, and inadequate government policies. | NCWS, Gwoza | Gwoza Youth Development Forum | Association of People with Disabilities | NCWS, Gwoza | Gwoza Youth Development Forum | Association of People with Disabilities |

| Biu | Men control the associations, but in Yakase, the secretary is a female; in the other associations, women are the cashiers and treasurers. | Myririna Women Farmers’ Association, Bwala Women Farmers’ Association, Waza Waza Women Farmers’ Association | The challenges they face are lack of capital, training, land, and agricultural inputs. | Myririna Women Farmers’ Association, Bwala Women Farmers’ Association, Waza Waza Women Farmers’ Association | Myririna Women Farmers’ Association, Bwala Women Farmers’ Association, Waza Waza Women Farmers’ Association | The challenges they face are lack of capital, training, land, and agricultural inputs. | Miringa Youth Association | Mitinga Youth Development Association | Miringa Youth Association | Miringa Youth Association | Mitinga Youth Development Association | Miringa Youth Association | Mitinga Youth Development Association |
GENDER ANALYSIS FOR A SUSTAINABLE AGRICULTURE AND LIVELIHOOD IMPROVEMENT PROJECT