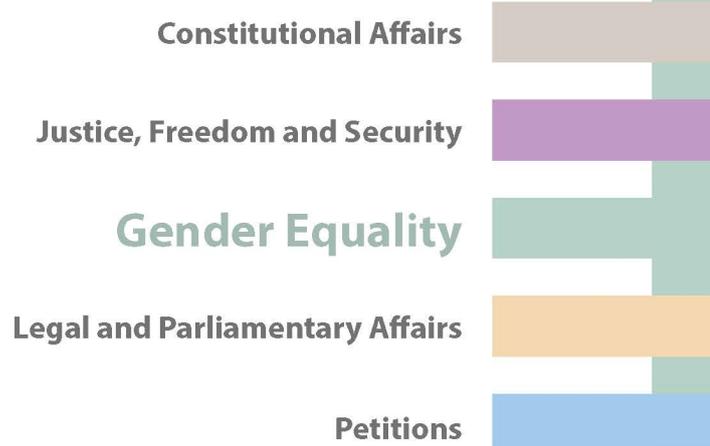


DIRECTORATE-GENERAL FOR INTERNAL POLICIES

POLICY DEPARTMENT **C**
CITIZENS' RIGHTS AND CONSTITUTIONAL AFFAIRS



International Day of Rural Women 2015

STUDY FOR THE FEMM COMMITTEE



DIRECTORATE GENERAL FOR INTERNAL POLICIES
POLICY DEPARTMENT C: CITIZENS' RIGHTS AND
CONSTITUTIONAL AFFAIRS

WOMEN'S RIGHTS & GENDER EQUALITY

INTERNATIONAL DAY OF
RURAL WOMEN 2015

COMPILATION OF AN IN-DEPTH ANALYSIS AND
A STUDY

WORKSHOP 15 October 2015

Abstract

The International Day of Rural Women was celebrated for the first time in 2008. Based on UN [resolution 62/136](#) it recognizes “the critical role and contribution of rural women, including indigenous women, in enhancing agricultural and rural development, improving food security and eradicating rural poverty.” In this sense, the Workshop provides an overview of the situation of rural women in Europe and their crucial role in sustainable rural development. It informs about women's engagement in employment, decision-making and rural lives more generally as well as on how to close the gap between men and women regarding equal access to resources and business opportunities. In this respect, the role of funding from the CAP for rural women is also analysed.

**DOCUMENT REQUESTED BY THE
COMMITTEE ON WOMEN'S RIGHTS AND GENDER EQUALITY**

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THE SITUATION OF WOMEN LIVING IN RURAL AREAS OF THE EUROPEAN UNION

Prof. Ramona Franić

Abstract

The analysis provides an overview of the situation of rural women in Europe, with an emphasis on Eastern and Southern European Member States. Results suggest that across the EU women are more likely to be concentrated in lower paid employment and less senior roles. They are often recognized as guardians of positive rural tradition, but still not as business and policy decision participants.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CAP	Common Agricultural Policy of the European Union
CEECs	Central and Eastern European Countries
EU	European Union
FSS	The Farm Structure Survey (Eurostat's)
LAG	Local Action Group
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
RDP	Rural Development Plan/Programme
UNDP	United Nations Development Program

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Background

Women play a **major role in civil society and in economic growth in rural areas** all over the world and their work is crucial for survival and provides means for household to escape the poverty or just live better. Rural women account for the production of half of the world's food, and up to 80% of production in most developing countries. Estimations show that **7 out of 10 of the world's hungry are women**. Also, women **own less than 15% of land** worldwide, and **less than 2% of property in the developing world**; they do two-thirds of the world's work, receive 10% of the world's income. That is why gender inequality is not just a problem of women, but it is a problem of agricultural productivity, of food security and rural development. Rural women are not a homogenous group. Their roles and contributions to the society differ, as well as their needs and interests, depending on their age, the size and composition of their family and age of their children. **A constant feature is nevertheless discrimination**, albeit varying in degree. Global policy put gender **equity as a strategic objective**, and rural development policy of the EU put the gender mainstreaming into the directive which governs the European Common Agricultural Policy (CAP) as well as the Rural Development Programme (RDP).

Aim

The analysis tries to identify and to provide an overview of the situation of rural women in Europe: (i) their position in the labour market, (ii) their role in food production, (iii) their position on the food market, (iv) their role in sustainable rural development, (v) their role in maintaining tradition and cultural heritage, and (vi) main characteristics of the leadership and participation of rural women in decision-making and policy shaping with consequences for food security and rural development. The basic measures created at the EU level are identified, created to close the gap between men and women living in rural areas, regarding equal access to the resources and business opportunities.

Main conclusions

- Women make up slightly more than 50% of the total EU population. Their share in the economically active population is considerably lower and in 2014 women represented only **46.4% of the total economically active population**;
- In rural areas of the EU, a similar gap between men and women exists in their degree of participation in economic activities. Women represent slightly less than 50% of the total working age population in the rural areas of the EU, but only about 45% of the total economically active population;
- Across the European Union generally, gender segregation of the labour market means that **women are more likely to be concentrated in lower paid employment**, and **less senior roles**. Education, age and life cycle stage are also factors affecting women's labour market situation. The share of self-employed women in the EU differs considerably across countries.
- About **one third of all people at risk of poverty are living in thinly populated (rural) areas** of the EU. The share of population at risk of poverty in these areas is particularly high in those Member States with a high poverty risk in general. According to Eurostat, in 2013, 16.6% of the EU-28 population was assessed to be at-risk-of-poverty after social transfers, particularly in Greece (23.1%), Romania (22.4%), Bulgaria (21.0%), Lithuania (20.6%), and Spain (20.4%).

- Only **29% of farm holders in EU-27 were women in 2007**, which is an increase of 2 percentage points since 2003. The share of female farm holders is generally higher in countries with an overall high presence of female farm labour (such as in the three Baltic countries).
- Women make a considerable contribution in food production: more than one-third directly employed in crop and animal production of the EU-28 are women, and about one **half of the total number employed in manufacturing and services linked with food and beverages**. Increasing numbers of women are becoming self-employed farm managers, and casual or seasonal wage-work is a growing feature of female employment in rural areas.
- Women are responsible for about 81% purchase of consumer goods and about 82% of all foods. Employed women are the **main decision makers in their households when it comes to costs** for food, clothing, telephone services, home appliances and furniture, costs of education, family insurance. In highly developed countries they contribute with more than 50% to the family income, which make them a powerful market force.
- Women in rural areas are the **guardians of traditional knowledge of indigenous plants**; they recognize and appreciate the importance of the fields and forests as sources of food and health for people and animals. However, despite the fact that women in rural areas significantly contribute to the income and food security for their families, they often remain **invisible and unrecognized**.
- Women's **contribution to local and community development is significant**, but rural women everywhere are in a **minority in decision-making and planning**, particularly at regional and national levels. This is in part due to women's multiple roles and workload, but is also due to the **persistence of traditional views** about women's and men's roles in society.
- Women are more extensively involved in care giving than men in both the home and the labour market. They have a **greater sense of responsibility toward the less privileged**. This implies that women display more tolerant attitudes due to a lower preference for inequality among different social groups than men.
- Women are involved in home care taking activities and are **less confronted with new ideas, habits attitudes etc., and remain more traditional in their views**. Although it may seem as a development constraint, it also may derive positive consequences: women **keeping traditional knowledge and maintaining positive traditions** in rural areas.
- It is still unusual for women to participate in discussions and decisions about the agricultural business. Bringing women into rural development also means ensuring participation in planning and decision-making, concerning development objectives, strategies and projects. It is **important that women take an equally active part as men in the formulation of policies and strategies** by development agencies and authorities.
- Improving the conditions for women in rural areas would enable them to achieve better productivity, access to markets and economic efficiency. Solutions are seen in better access to information, education and credit, as well as encouraging business association of women in rural areas.

1. INTRODUCTION

KEY FINDINGS

- Women play a major role in civil society and in **economic growth in rural areas all over the world and their work is crucial for survival and provides means for households to escape poverty or to improve living conditions.**
- **Gender inequality** is not just a problem of women, but it is a **problem of agricultural productivity, of food security and rural development.**
- **Gender roles are learned and perceptions of gender are deeply rooted.**
- Global policy put **gender equality as a strategic objective.**

Women play a major role in civil society and in **economic growth in rural areas all over the world and their work is crucial for survival and provides means for households to escape poverty or to improve living conditions.** This postulate is included in the Millennium Development Goals (MDG) adopted by 189 nations in 2000, at the United Nations Millennium Summit in New York. They support their households and communities in achieving food and nutrition security, generating income, and improving rural livelihoods and overall well-being. They contribute to agriculture and rural enterprises and fuel local and global economies. Yet, every day, around the world, rural women face **persistent structural constraints** that prevent them from fully enjoying their human rights and hamper their efforts to improve their lives as well those of others around them.

Rural women account for the production of half of the world's food, and up to 80% of production in most developing countries. However, estimations are that 7 out of 10 of the world's hungry are women and girls. Moreover, women own less than 15% of land worldwide, and less than 2% of property in the developing world. According to the United Nations Development Program's (UNDP) global study, 'women do two-thirds of the world's work, receive 10% of the world's income and own 1% of the means of production'. That is why **gender inequality** is not just a problem of women, but it is a **problem of agricultural productivity, of food security and rural development**; unequal access to inputs reduces yields and hinders agricultural productivity, which negatively affects the economy at national, but also the global level. So, while 'sex' is biological, 'gender' is social, and refers to the qualities or characteristics that society ascribes to each sex. **Gender roles are learned and perceptions of gender are deeply rooted.**

Women's status and role does not represent a monolithic bloc. As rural areas of the European Union are varied in terms of social and economic structure, geography and culture, **rural women are not a homogenous group** as well. Their roles and contributions to the society differ, as well as their needs and interests, depending on their age, the size and composition of their family and age of their children. A constant feature is nevertheless discrimination, albeit varying in degree. That is why global policy put the **gender equity as a strategic objective**, and rural development policy of the EU put the gender mainstreaming into the directive which governs the European Common Agricultural Policy (CAP) as well as the Rural Development Programme (RDP). Gender mainstreaming is specifically written into this regulation stating that 'Member States and the Commission shall promote equality between men and women'. The basic issues in the field of agriculture are **lack of ownership and control over the land, lower access to education and training, and inequalities in rural employment** (work-overload, gender pay gap and lack of access to decent work). Rural women are affected by all of these issues, so **gender mainstreaming** is usually understood to be addressing women's inequality.

Interpretations of the position of rural women differ considerably: from belief that tradition is a barrier to them, to the recognition that women are more visible in public spaces. Therefore, this analysis tries to identify and to provide an **overview of the situation of rural women** in Europe: (i) their position in labour market, (ii) their role in food production, (iii) their position on the food market; (iv) their role in sustainable rural development, (v) their role in maintaining tradition and cultural heritage, and (vi) main characteristics of the leadership and participation of rural women in decision-making and policy shaping with consequences for food security and rural development. Finally, the analysis covers the basic **measures put in place at EU level to close the gap between men and women living in rural areas**, regarding equal access to resources and business opportunities. Women's position and reasons for existing inequalities, particularly in rural areas of Eastern and Southern European Member States, have been emphasised. Main findings are therefore illustrated by examples from these selected Member States.

2. THE SITUATION OF RURAL WOMEN IN EUROPE

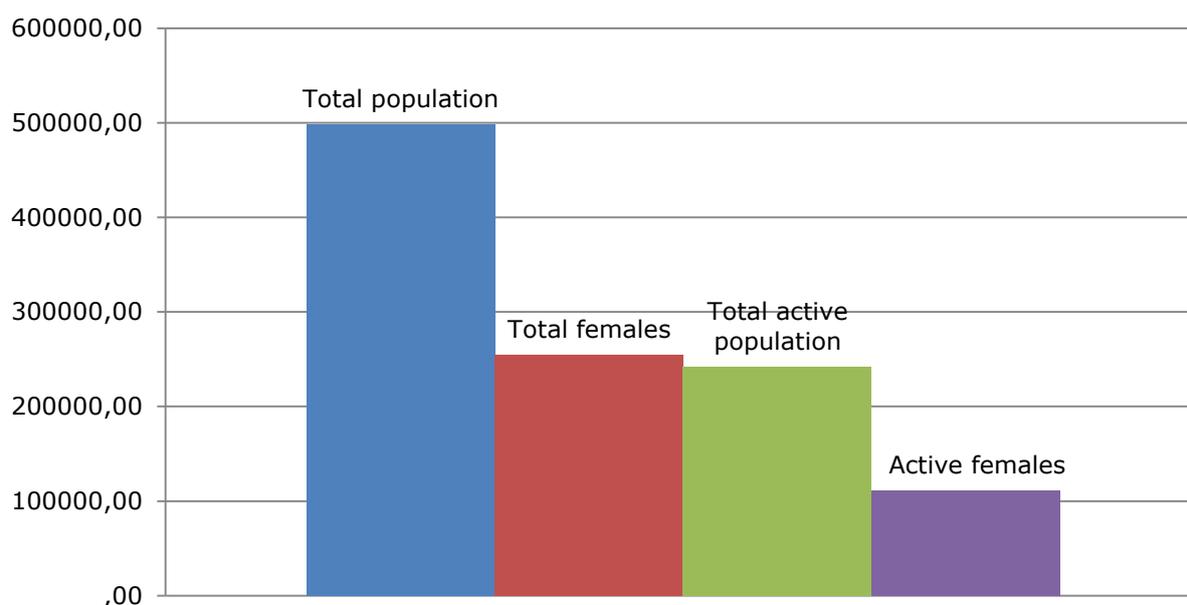
KEY FINDINGS

- Women make up more than 50% of the total EU population. In the economically active population women represented only 46.4% in 2014.
- The lowest employment rates among women in predominantly rural areas were found in Italy, Greece, Spain and Hungary. Increasing the rate of employment can help to **reduce poverty and thereby improve economic, social and territorial cohesion**.
- The share of population at **risk of poverty** in thinly populated areas is particularly high in those Member States with high poverty risk in general, particularly in Greece, Romania, Bulgaria, Lithuania and Spain.
- **Only 29% of farm holders in EU-27 were women in 2007**. The share of female farm holders is generally higher in countries with an overall high presence of female farm labour.

2.1. Women's share in the total and the economically active population

Data from Eurostat's Farm Structure Survey (FSS) show that women make up slightly more than 50% of the total EU population. Their share in the formally recognised economically active population¹ is considerably lower and in 2014 women represented only 46.4% of the total economically active population (figure 1). Economic activity rates are generally lower among women than among men, and the highest are registered in Malta, Greece and Italy.

¹ According to the Eurostat Glossary, 'economically active population' includes both employed (employees and self-employed) and unemployed people, but not the economically inactive, such as pre-school children, school children, students and pensioners.

Figure 1: Total and active population in the EU-28, 2014

Source: Eurostat

In rural areas of the EU, a similar gap between men and women exists in their degree of participation in economic activities (EC, 2012). Women represent slightly less than 50% of the total working age population in the rural areas of the EU, but only about 45% of the total economically active population (table 1).

Predominantly rural regions of Italy show the biggest difference between the share of women in the total population and in the economically active population (9.9 percentage points). Moreover, women make up about 40% of the economically active population of the predominantly rural regions of Italy and Greece, while in the predominantly rural regions of Finland, Estonia and Lithuania women represent around 48% of the economically active population (EC, 2012).

Table 1: Economically active population in rural regions, persons aged 25 and over, 2011

	Population of rural regions (thousand)	Share of women (%)	Women in the national active population (%)
EU-27	:	:	45.5
Belgium	:	:	45.4
Bulgaria	1128.2	47.6	47.0
Czech Republic	1586.5	44.0	43.9
Denmark	715.2	46.4	47.1
Germany	6156.7	45.3	45.9
Estonia	280.3	49.7	50.7
Ireland	1371.1	43.9	44.1
Greece	1917.5	40.5	42.0

Spain	1466.3	43.0	44.9
France	:	:	48.0
Italy	4722.9	41.1	41.3
Cyprus	0.0	-	47.2
Latvia	364.7	48.3	50.9
Lithuania	596.9	50.1	51.1
Luxembourg	0.0	-	43.8
Hungary	1806.0	45.8	46.2
Malta	0.0	-	33.0
Netherlands	44.5	43.8	45.5
Austria	1653.6	45.3	46.3
Poland	5328.6	45.0	45.7
Portugal	1750.8	46.0	47.0
Romania	3934.7	44.3	45.0
Slovenia	409.0	46.0	46.4
Slovakia	1252.0	45.1	45.0
Finland	902.6	46.9	47.7
Sweden	680.7	47.0	47.1
United Kingdom	689.8	48.2	45.9

Source: Eurostat, Eurostat regional yearbook 2013, Focus on rural development, p. 249

2.2. Employment

Employment is a key element of the EU's Europe 2020 strategy for smart, sustainable and inclusive growth. Increasing the rate of employment can help to **reduce poverty** and thereby **improve economic, social and territorial cohesion**. Reaching an employment rate of 75% of the population aged 20-64 is one of the five headline targets to be achieved over the coming decade, including through the greater involvement of women.

Rural areas are crucial for the attainment of the Europe 2020 headline target. Predominantly rural regions generate 22% of the total employment in the EU (17% in the EU-15 and 37% in the EU-12), but the employment rate in predominantly rural areas is lower than in other types of regions, especially among women, older and low-skilled workers. Generally, employment rates are lower in the EU-12 (65.6%) than in the EU-15 (70.1%). It should be noted that in some countries, e.g. the Netherlands, part-time work is more common, especially among women.

As the European Commission Brief shows (EC, 2011a), the **employment rate is generally higher for men than for women**. At EU-27 level, 76% of men and 62% of women were employed in 2009, showing a difference of 14 percentage points. In the predominantly rural areas of the EU-27, only 61% of the women of 20 to 64 years old were employed in 2009. This situation is worse in the EU-12 (58%) than in the EU-15 (63%). The lowest employment rates among women in predominantly rural areas were found in Italy (48.6%), Greece (50.9%), Spain (51.6%) and Hungary (52.2%). The highest employment rates (above 70%) were recorded in Austria, Germany, Denmark and Sweden. Generally, women present lower employment rates (on average 14 percentage points) than men, and only 61% of women in predominantly rural regions of the EU were employed in 2009. In the EU-12, this rate was even lower (58%). The activity rate among women is substantially lower than among men (68% and 83% respectively in the EU-27).

In 2011, agriculture provided 4% of all jobs held by women in the EU-27. The great **majority of women work in the service sector**, and for men, agriculture is slightly more important in terms of providing employment. Data for 2014 shows that in the sector Agriculture, forestry and fishing majority of women work as part-time employees (table 2)

Table 2: Share of women in employment in the sector Agriculture, forestry and fishing, 2014, %

	Total worktime	Full-time	Part-time
European Union (28 countries)	34.9	30.8	53.8
European Union (15 countries)	29.5	24.7	56.1
Belgium	36.9	32.7	:
Bulgaria	29.7	28.8	:
Czech Republic	24.9	24.0	50.0
Denmark	16.5	13.2	:
Germany	33.2	23.8	67.2
Estonia	33.2	31.8	:
Ireland	12.2	9.0	35.6
Greece	40.2	38.8	53.9
Spain	23.1	21.1	43.9
France	28.6	23.3	69.7
Croatia	35.3	27.8	52.8
Italy	28.0	23.7	60.2
Cyprus	24.0	20.9	38.5
Latvia	26.0	24.7	:
Lithuania	38.0	34.0	47.6
Luxembourg	:	:	:

Hungary	24.8	23.3	46.8
Malta	:	:	:
Netherlands	29.5	12.9	59.5
Austria	45.7	42.1	55.7
Poland	40.9	37.9	57.6
Portugal	33.5	32.0	35.8
Romania	43.4	40.7	50.6
Slovenia	46.3	43.6	52.6
Slovakia	20.2	19.3	:
Finland	26.9	26.4	30.0
Sweden	22.4	17.3	44.9
United Kingdom	26.4	18.4	68.0

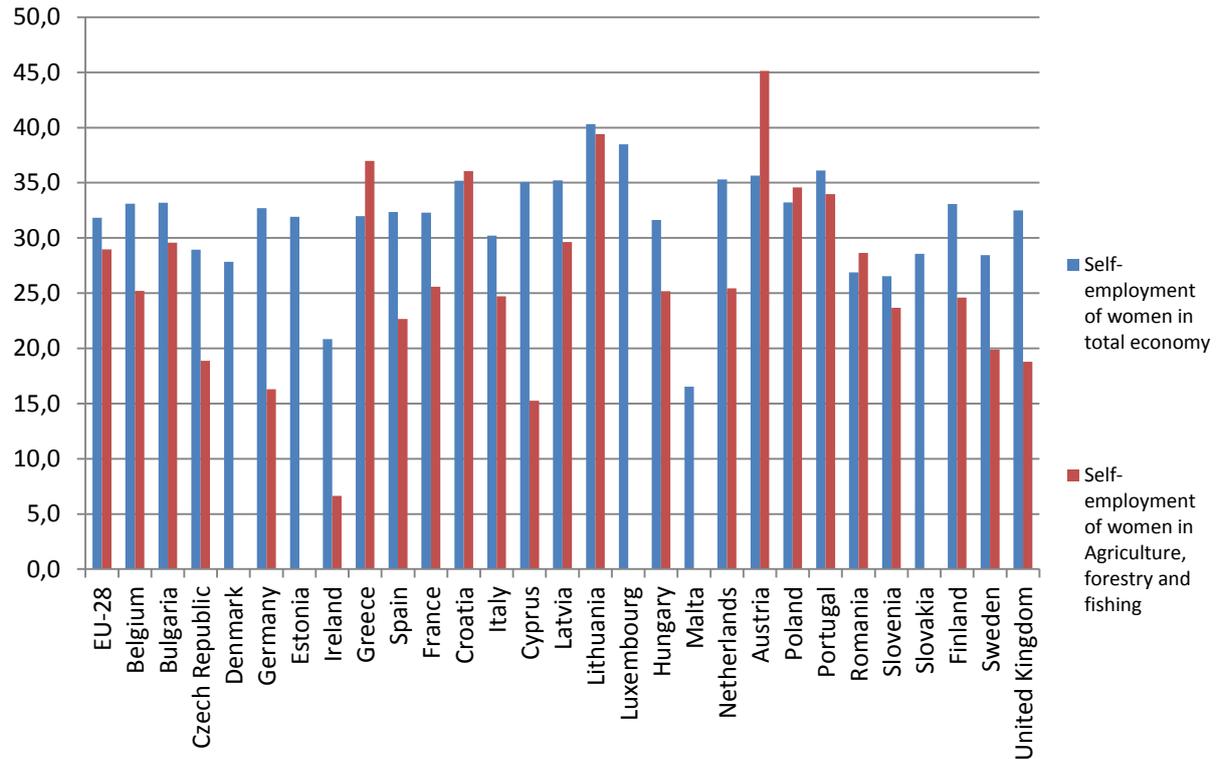
Source: Eurostat (<http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/lfs/data/database>)

Across the European Union generally, gender segregation of the labour market means that women are more likely to be concentrated in **lower paid employment**, and **less senior roles**. Education, age and life cycle stage are also factors affecting women's labour market situation. The employment position of women in the Nordic countries is better than that in Mediterranean countries where there are few structures supporting the combination of work and family roles². It suggests that **culture, place, space and location matter**.

The share of self-employed women in the EU differs considerably across member states. For the total economy, the highest share of self-employed women is registered in Lithuania, while for the sector agriculture, forestry and fishing, Austrian women are leaders with 45% (figure 2).

²See: <http://www.ohchr.org/Documents/HRBodies/CEDAW/RuralWomen/SallyShortall.pdf>

Figure 2: Self-employment of women in the EU-28, 2014, %

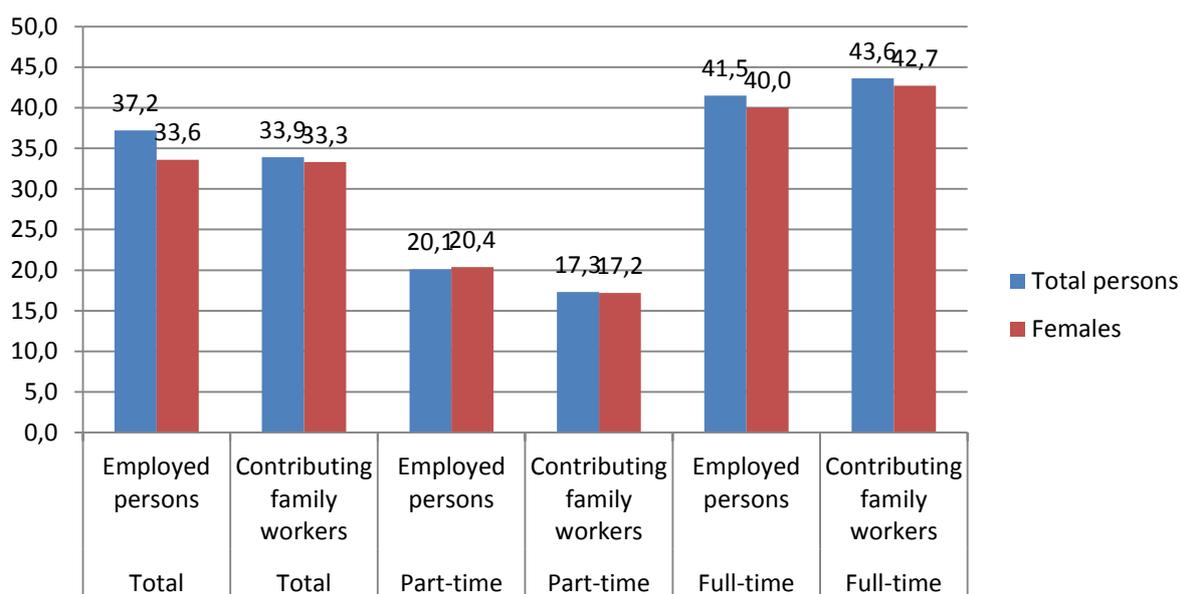


Source: Eurostat

By entering into self-employment and setting up small businesses women can be at the forefront of **innovation and diversification** in rural areas, for example by developing agri-tourism activities, artisanal food and drinks production, craft enterprises, telecommunication and caring services. Women often have the added advantage of an **awareness and knowledge of local needs**, and special interpersonal and communication skills³. However, according to Eurostat data, registered women’s work is still lower than men’s, even as in category of contributing family workers (figures 3 and 4).

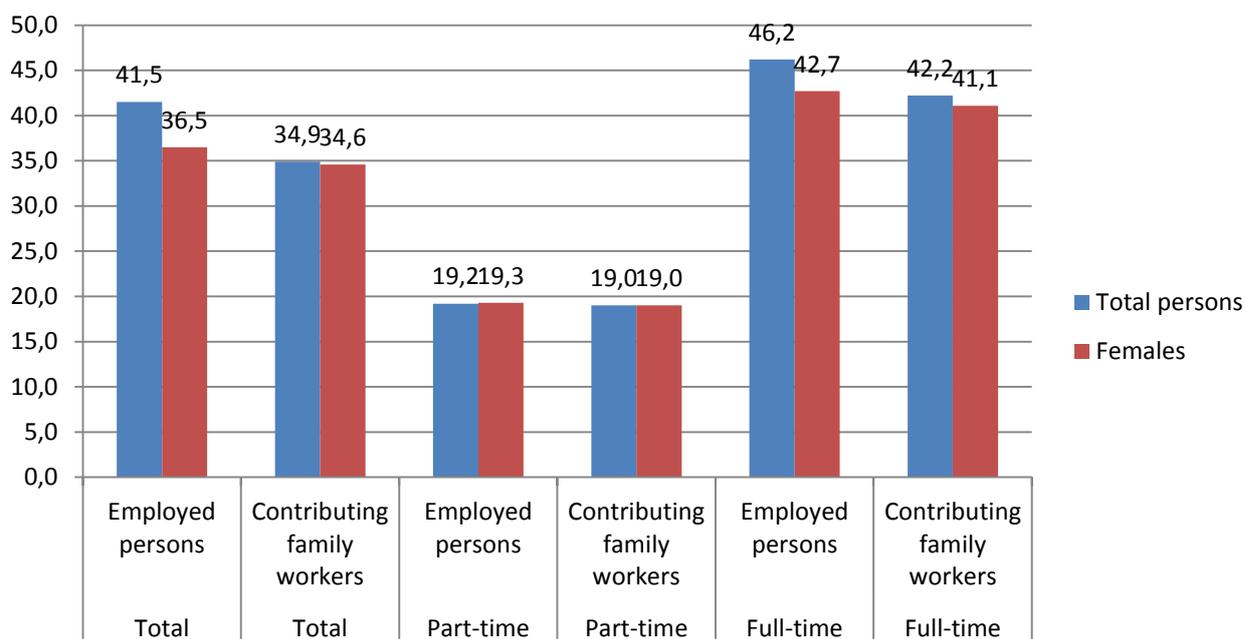
³ European Commission, 2000. http://ec.europa.eu/agriculture/publi/women/broch_en.pdf

Figure 3: Average number of usual weekly hours of work in the EU-28, 2014



Source: Eurostat

Figure 4: Average number of usual weekly hours of work in Agriculture, forestry and fishing in the EU-28, 2014



Source: Eurostat

2.3. Income distribution and poverty

Equal pay for men and women for work of equal value has been a concern of the European Union (EU) from the very beginning. The principle was laid down in the original EEC Treaty of 1957, in Article 119. Still, Eurostat data show a **persisting gender pay gap**, reportedly of 17% on average for the EU-27 in 2009. The gender gap exists for many assets, inputs and services, including **land, livestock, labour, education, extension and financial**

services, and technology. It imposes costs not only on women themselves, but on the agriculture sector, the broader economy and society as a whole. Female farmers produce less because they control less land, use fewer inputs and have less access to important services such as extension advice. **When women control additional income, they spend more of it than men do on food, health, clothing and education for their children.** This has positive implications for immediate well-being, long-run human capital formation and economic growth through improved health, nutrition and education outcomes.

Since 2000, the EU has provided a framework for the development of national strategies as well as for policy coordination between EU countries on issues relating to poverty and social exclusion. The European Commission Brief from 2011 (EC, 2011b) stresses that rural areas deserve special attention, especially after the recent enlargements of the EU, with the rural population and the **number of people at risk of poverty in rural areas having considerably increased** (from 75 million to 116 million and from 14 million to 26 million, respectively). People at risk of poverty are identified as all people in households with an income of less than 60% of the median household income of a Member State. About one third of all people at risk of poverty are living in thinly populated (rural) areas. The share of population at risk of poverty in thinly populated areas is particularly high in those Member States with a high poverty risk in general.

According to Eurostat data, **in 2013, 16.6% of the EU-28 population was assessed to be at-risk-of-poverty after social transfers**, particularly in Greece (23.1%), Romania (22.4%), Bulgaria (21.0%), Lithuania (20.6%), Spain (20.4%). Although there is no considerable difference between the two sexes in the EU-28 in the at-risk-of-poverty rate, this difference still exists in 2013: 16.1% for males compared with 17.2% for females, and women are still under greater risk of poverty in most of the European countries (table 3).

Table 3: At-risk-of-poverty rate after social transfers, 2013 (%).

	Total	Female
EU-28	16.6	17.2
Euro area (EA-18)	16.6	17.2
Belgium	15.1	15.5
Bulgaria	21.0	22.2
Czech Republic	8.6	9.4
Denmark	12.3	12.1
Germany	16.1	17.2
Estonia	18.6	19.9
Ireland	14.1	14.2
Greece	23.1	23.8
Spain	20.4	19.9
France	13.7	14.3

Italy	19.1	20.1
Cyprus	15.3	16.5
Latvia	19.4	19.8
Lithuania	20.6	21.6
Luxembourg	15.9	16.0
Hungary	14.3	14.0
Malta	15.7	16.1
Netherlands	10.4	10.6
Austria	14.4	15.2
Poland	17.3	17.3
Portugal	18.7	18.7
Romania	22.4	22.5
Slovenia	14.5	15.4
Slovakia	12.8	12.9
Finland	11.8	12.3
Sweden	14.8	16.1
United Kingdom	15.9	16.4
Croatia	19.5	20.3

Source: Eurostat, Statistics Explained (<http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/>)

2.4. The gender gap in agricultural decision making

An important indicator of gender equality in rural areas is the number of **male and female owners of farms**. However, since the definitions of “owners of farms” vary greatly in different countries, only general analysis is available. Some trends resulted from the comparative study prepared by a transnational partnership⁴ and show that in Austria, 33.0% of employed owners of farms are women, and 67% are men. In Romania, among all self-employed persons (without employees) in agriculture, 29.9% are women and 70.1% are men. Bulgaria, Czech Republic and Lithuania have gender-segregated statistics about owners of farms. Bulgaria and Lithuania have very similar data: 45.0% of owners of farms in Bulgaria and 46.0% in Lithuania are women, while in Czech Republic only 16.1%.

Regarding the gender gap in agricultural decision making, a European Commission Brief (EC, 2012) indicates that only 29% of farm holders in EU-27 were women in 2007⁵, which

⁴ Survey Report on Indicators of Gender Equality. Socrates Grundtvig. Education and Culture. EU Socrates project “Wo-men: Gender Equality Creates Democracy” (www.gener-equality.webinfo.it)

⁵ According to the last available official European Commission Brief report; the most recent Eurostat data for 2013 indicate that 30.15% of farm holders in EU-28 were women.

is an increase of 2 percentage points since 2003. For those countries which were members of the European Community in 1990, this share increased from 19% to 27% till 2007. Among the different categories of farm labour (family and non family labour, according to FSS, where family labour includes the farm holder, the spouse of the farm holder and other family members), **most women are classified as the holder's spouse**, corresponding to 80.1% of all spouses (table 4). The share of female farm holders is generally higher in countries with an overall high presence of female farm labour (such as in the three Baltic countries).

Table 4: The agricultural labour force in the EU-27, 2007

Family labour force						Non family labour force	
Sole holder		Spouse		Other family members			
No of people	Female share	No of people	Female share	No of people	Female share	No of people	Female share
13.4 million	28.7%	6.1 million	80.1%	5.3 million	36.7%	1.8 million	27.9%

Note: labour force working regularly in agriculture: 26.7 million; share of women: 42%

Source: European Commission, 2012 EU Agricultural Economic Briefs. Women in EU agriculture and rural areas: hard work, low profile. Brief No 7 – June 2012.

As the latest member of the EU, Croatia presented in its Rural Development Program 2014-2020 the following data: the share of women in the structure of permanently employed agricultural workers in Croatia is 40.2 %, higher than the corresponding EU-27 average (37.5 %). However, the share of female holders of agricultural holdings was lower in Croatia than in the EU-27 (20.9 % compared to 23.2 %).

3. THE ROLE OF WOMEN

KEY FINDINGS

- In highly developed countries employed women contribute with more than 50% to the **family income**, which make them a powerful market force.
- Despite the fact that women in rural areas significantly contribute to the **income and food security** for their families, they often remain invisible and unrecognized.
- Women display more tolerant attitudes due to a **lower preference for inequality among different social** groups than men.
- Women are often recognized as **guardians of positive rural tradition**, but still **not as business and policy decision participants**.

3.1. Ensuring food production

In global terms, **women in rural areas produce more than half of the total amount of food** (in developing regions even up to 80%). In many parts of the world their home gardens represent some of the most **complex ecosystems**.

Table 5: Share of women in the EU-28 employment by economic activity in 2014, thous.

Economic activity	Total (15-64 years)	Female (15-64 years)	Share of women (%)
Crop and animal production, hunting and related service activities	8,611.0	3,168.3	36.8
Forestry and logging	525.7	66.6	12.7
Fishing and aquaculture	153.9	19.8	12.9
Manufacture of food products	4,420.0	1,978.5	44.8
Manufacture of beverages	439.5	121.5	27.6
Manufacture of tobacco products	53.3	17.8	33.4
Manufacture of textiles	666.3	347.8	52.2
Food and beverage service activities	7,377.4	3,856.2	52.3
Services to buildings and landscape activities	4,111.4	2,242.3	54.5
Creative, arts and entertainment activities	1,044.8	456.9	43.7
TOTAL	27,403.3	12,275.7	44.8

Source: Eurostat (<http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/lfs/data/database>)

As shown in table 5, a considerable number of registered persons between 15 and 64 years, employed in "rural" or "rural-linked" economic activities are women: more than one-third directly in crop and animal production, and about one half of the total number in manufacturing and services linked with food and beverages. Moreover, according to the same data source, with 1,376.3 thousand of self-employed women in the sector of agriculture, forestry and fishing⁶, they significantly contribute to the economic activities in rural areas.

The most extreme changes are being experienced by women in the Southern Member States, where the labour market has undergone the biggest **transformation. Formal employment** (as full or part-time factory work in the food processing industry or home-working for textile industries) **is replacing unpaid family farm labour**. In Italy and Portugal increasing numbers of women are becoming self-employed farm managers. In Spain, casual or seasonal wage-work is a growing feature of female employment in rural areas.

3.1.1. Spain: Women as food providers

Based on the experience of interviewed women, we can elucidate the link between women and artisan food transformation. Most of the interviewed women agreed in pointing out that **family feeding has always been in the hands of women**, thus they have developed the traditional knowledge involved in farm food processing. Furthermore, this relationship is also due to the fact that women are in charge of family care and this activity allows combining different works. Food processing allows women to have a paid work or to complement agrarian rents in a context where most of agricultural works are not accessible to them. Thus, **small-scale food processing is an important sector** outside the established agri-food model, with diversified productions and direct sale oriented, because the objective is to **produce quality food with criteria that include proximity, sustainability, creativity and creation of support networks**. Interviewed women agree that this model is more human and less "productivist". Thus, participant women define artisan food production and processing as a **concept linked to feeding, not to business**. Although this activity had been devalued inside and outside the farm, food crafting is being enhanced in the last few years and industrial projects related with craft products are emerging. This fact generates mistrust among interviewed women because they think they are misrepresented by this trend, which is mainly focused on industrial projects that often do not take into account existing local resources, the origin of raw material or traditional knowledge. Instead, they felt being used as a "folkloric element for marketing" (Martinez et al., 2014: 9-10).

3.1.2. Romania: Position of women in agriculture and rural areas

The share of agricultural jobs in female employment in Romania is 34.5% in 2011 (EC, 2012), indicating their important role in Romanian food production. However, there are many differences between the general status of women in Romania and the status of rural women. In part, this is a reflection of the general **disparities between urban and rural areas**, in what concerns, for instance, the educational level, employment opportunities, and sources of income. Many women in rural areas do not have a stable and safe income source such as a wage or a pension. This makes (or could make) them dependent on the

⁶ This makes 29% of the total self-employed persons (15-64 years) in the EU-28 at the end of 2014.

bread-winner of the family or on social security services. The **level of women's income is lower than that of men** for almost all income categories, because of their lower qualifications and lower occupational status. Women who are unpaid domestic workers or agricultural workers on their own land are very **vulnerable to social risks** because they are not covered by any insurance scheme (Gherghinescu, 2008: 377).

3.2. Participation in the food market and in rural development

Numerous researches conducted in developed countries show that women in general (not only rural women) buy more than 80% of the total goods and services; they are responsible for about **81% purchase of consumer goods and about 82% of all foods**. Due to increase in purchasing power and economic strength of the increasing number of employed women, these values are expected to rise till 90%.

Employed women, either in firms or on family farms, are a powerful consumer force. They are, directly or indirectly, the **main decision makers** in their households when it comes to costs for food, but also clothing, telephone services, home appliances and furniture, costs of education, but recently also for family insurance (pension, health, life insurance). In highly developed countries they contribute with more than 50% to the family income, which contributes to their powerful market force. Some interesting findings emerged about the role of women in the market (Miley and Mack, 2009; Thu Ha and Gizaw, 2014)⁷:

- Women, due to their specific way of **communication**, adopt new products most likely when they learn about them from other women,
- Because more women are employed, more household income is spent on **food services** (catering, meals outside the home),
- Women are more active in **opinion shaping** on goods and services (like in restaurants),
- Women are more sensitive on **product quality and price**, so they have stronger influence on product development,
- Women are more "**faithful**" consumers of agro-food products, because they don't use them only for food, but also for cosmetics.

Women in rural areas are the guardians of **traditional knowledge of indigenous plants**; they recognize and appreciate the importance of the fields and forests as sources of food and health for people and animals. However, despite the fact that women in rural areas significantly contribute to the income and food security for their families, they often remain **invisible and unrecognized**. They are still perceived as inactive and dependent. Their work is not recorded in the statistics, and rarely mentioned in economic reports and often remains unrewarded.

According to the words of Franz Fischler, who said in 2002 on behalf of the European Commission⁸ that **women are the backbone of rural development** world-wide and deserve a more exclusive place in the new development policy. He called for changes for

⁷For illustration see also: <http://faculty.maxwell.syr.edu/mestev02/estevez-abe-hethey.pdf>; <http://www.fastcodesign.com/1663594/women-dominate-the-global-market-place-here-are-5-keys-to-reaching-them>; <https://www.qsrmagazine.com/consumer-trends/what-women-want>

⁸ Dr. Franz Fischler, Member of the European Commission responsible for Agriculture, Rural Development and Fisheries. Assuring the future of rural women. SPEECH/02/457. III World Congress of Rural Women, Madrid, 04 October 2002.

more intensive inclusion of women into development policy, their stronger participation in decision-making, in a way that suits their more pragmatic methods and with more solidarity. Fischler emphasized employment, education and services as the three most important issues for improvements of the situation of women, market conditions and rural development. Today, while women are involved in all aspects of rural activities and employment, including agriculture, many of them still have not achieved professional status or private social security. They are still not encouraged to participate in educational and training programs to acquire additional or different professional skills.

In developed societies, women with stronger self-awareness have also much broader and even formal opportunities to fulfil their rights, needs and desires. They find many ways to impose themselves to the society through their activities and actions through **educational institutions, cooperatives** with the intention to improve the market of agricultural products and active participation in **projects** of development and sale of products produced by rural women. They join in **associations** for the promotion of arts and/or the rural way of life and nowadays create **web pages** to promote their activities in encouraging sustainable agriculture and rural development, building local communities, providing opportunities for education on economic, environmental and current market trends etc. Women's contribution to local and community development is significant, but rural women everywhere are in a **minority in decision-making and planning**, particularly at regional and national levels. This is in part due to women's multiple roles and workload, but is also due to the persistence of traditional views about women's and men's roles in society.

3.2.1. Croatia: What is sustainable rural development?

In 2003, there was a project conducted in the rural Virovitica-Podravina County with the aim to establish how farmers understand the concept of sustainable development. The results showed that the most important aspect of sustainability were business economics. They cared much less about other sustainability criteria (social, environmental). The results of the survey turned out to be directly related to the gender structure of the respondents. Two-thirds of them were male, who answered questions with the active cooperation of women. Women filled in one-third of the questionnaires, with a slight participation of men, mostly regarding the issues of cooperation with state institutions, production technology and subsidies. Regarding the term "sustainable development", male respondents generally understand its economic dimension, as "sustaining financial stability" of the farm. Women as interpret "sustainable" rather regarding the social and spatial dimension: how to keep ("sustain") the family together, to stay in the village, to have a successor. Women were also far more sensitive to environmental issues, perceiving them as benefits to the health of the family (Franić and Kumrić, 2008).

3.2.2. Portugal: Women's entrepreneurship and local sustainability

A successful example of women entrepreneurship in rural areas is located in one of the peripheral areas of Portugal – Serra de Montemuro (municipality of Castro Verde), where subsistence agriculture and cattle raising continue to be the main economic activities. The constitution of a craftsman's cooperative in 1985, in the village of Campo Benfeito, was a result of the effort of the Institute for Cultural Affairs, which, through a series of training courses, was able to organize some women to work together in the production of fashion and home textile products as a way to promote local crafts and to fight desertification and unemployment in the mountain area. They learnt the art from their elders, attended vocational training courses, agreed with the local entities to use the old elementary school and created contemporary pieces made of flax and wool, using the loom. This local

craftsman's cooperative was one of 14 winners of the WWSF Prize for Women's Creativity in Rural Life 2007, an international award granted for the first time in Portugal. This project contributed to the village revitalisation through residential tourism; the leverage for population settling; the creation of new tourism businesses; and the preservation of the architectural and cultural heritage of the village (Pato et al., 2014).

3.3. Maintaining tradition and cultural heritage

The relationship between gender on the one hand and 'modern' or 'traditional' values on the other hand is not clear-cut. Many scholars observe that women are more religious and more obedient to authority than men, which would imply that, on average, they hold more 'traditional' values. On the other hand, women appear to be more solidary, trustful and tolerant than men, orientations which are related to more 'modern' values. Explanations for these latter gender differences in values are sought in socialization patterns and biological sex differences, such as personality. What analysis⁹ show is that **women are more extensively involved in care giving** than men in both the home and the labour market. Women appear to score higher on helpfulness, compassion, and the ability to devote one's efforts completely to others. They also are more likely than are men to overlook differences between themselves and others and to have a greater sense of responsibility toward the less privileged. This implies that women display more tolerant attitudes due to a **lower preference for inequality** among different social groups than men¹⁰. Some explanation of the gender gap focuses on the differences in labour participation. More men than women are engaged in paid employment, while women are involved in homecare taking activities and are less confronted with new ideas, habits attitudes etc., and remain more traditional in their views. Although it may seem as a development constraint, it also may have positive consequences in that women take care of preserving traditional knowledge and maintain positive traditions in rural areas.

3.3.1. Greece: Local agri-food products of women's cooperatives

Anthopoulos and Koutsou (2010) describe how the creation of small women's enterprises for the production of local agro-foods answers to a twofold necessity: the **demand for special quality foods** by an increasing number of selective consumers, and **creation of additional income** for rural households. The involvement of women in production of local foods through initiation of entrepreneurial activity highlights the "feminine aspect of quality", and takes advantage of it by commercializing the idyllic image of the female nurturer, mother and housekeeper. In recent years, on the other hand, a noteworthy level of activity is observable in local communities in relation both to promotion of their natural and cultural riches and to their specific products and cuisines. Local authorities and rural societies have come together around **programmes for reviving and promoting traditional agro-food products and cuisines** as a way of drawing attention to their area and its attractions and ultimately attracting tourists, in the expectation of development. In this favourable context, numerous small businesses were established with assistance from EU developmental programmes (e.g. Leader) and economic activity was generated both in agritourism and in food production. Country women, as specialists in hospitality and food preparation, responded positively to these new trends, displaying particular dynamism and

⁹<http://www.atlasofeuropeanvalues.eu/new/docsfin/en/Impact%20of%20age%20gender%20religion%20income%20urbanisation%20EN%20-%20Logo%20-%20LOGO-Jori.docx>; <https://caregiver.org/women-and-caregiving-facts-and-figures>; www.whc.ie

¹⁰<http://www.atlasofeuropeanvalues.eu/new/docsfin/en/Impact%20of%20age%20gender%20religion%20income%20urbanisation%20EN%20-%20Logo%20-%20LOGO-Jori.docx>

creativity in the establishment of small businesses on both an individual and a co-operative basis.

3.3.2. Croatia: Guardians of tradition

Croatia is a nice example of women's efforts to preserve positive rural traditions, which are numerous, due to Croatian geographical, historical and cultural diversity. Women organised in associations, NGOs, or informal groups, organize and participate in exhibitions, cultural and tourist events, with various activities, such as:

- „Women Guardians of Tradition“– women's association from Međimurje (Northern Croatia) – keeping rural traditions and cultural heritage– exhibitions of handicrafts;
- “Gačanka” – association from Lika (Central Croatia) – revitalisation of tradition and activities for reuse, processing and finishing of wool;
- LAG “Central Istria”, from Istria – for maintaining autochthonous crop and animal species and food processed products (olive oil, truffles, home-made bread, wine, flowers, honey and honey products);
- “Orljava” – folklore society from Slavonia (Eastern Croatia) – making “forgotten” household and decorative items;
- Eco-ethnic Association Golden Hands (Slavonia, Eastern Croatia) – the coronation of the “Queen of the harvest”;
- Krapanj – Dalmatia (Southern Croatia) – regatta grown tradition of women's rowing, just like centuries ago, when they held the whole house under control;
- Makarska – Dalmatia (Southern Croatia) – guardians of tradition of baking Makarana cake.

It can be concluded that the professionalization of rural women's traditional female skills essentially **reproduces gendered social stereotypes of female roles** (nurturers, cooks and guardians of traditional values), in the final analysis **undermining the same social and economic emancipation** that emerges from active employment and a financial contribution to the family budget.

3.4. Participation of rural women in policy shaping

Highly developed consciousness tells us that there are no “male” and “female” occupations; however, practice still confirms differently. Although data shows that in a majority of countries agriculture is characterised by feminization processes, it is still unusual for women to participate in discussions and decisions about the agricultural business. Bringing women into rural development also means **ensuring participation** in planning and decision-making, concerning development objectives, strategies and projects. Providing information to women about rural development and demonstrating that it is open to their ideas and their participation can be an important step. It is also important that women take an equally active part as men in the formulation of policies and strategies by development agencies and authorities, and also that these agencies and authorities commit themselves to ensuring that their activities are equally accessible and beneficial to women and men. **Training and promoting** women development planners, and improving the representation of women and women's associations on committees and boards (through setting targets, or changing the timing, location and style of meetings...) would have a positive impact.

3.4.1. **Poland:** Female Activists in Rural Poland

The role of rural women in the development of civil society in socialist and post-socialist context was researched by Pasięka (2013: 123). Observations presented in the paper not only **question the image of passive women**, but demonstrate that home, private sphere and everyday concerns are a source of civic activities, forge solidarity and constitute a base for collective actions. The author describes the functioning of a circle of rural housewives, an agritouristic association and a state school, all of them headed by women. An insight into the relationship between the public and private sphere that women's activities display suggests that not only is civic activity a product of the entanglement of the private and public sphere, but that women's activities in the public may challenge a sharp distinction between the two. Women are preoccupied with basic concerns and everyday matters – "details" which were of immense importance for the local community's well-being. Finally, the author indicated the importance of the focus on both individual and collective endeavours – on the ways women interact and share skills and experiences – for it is the mutual influence of the two to shape the local civil society.

3.4.2. **Slovakia:** (In)visible women in political life

Although there are no gender-based data at the regional level of public administration in Slovakia, the list of elected candidates shows the number of women in top positions to still be very low, but the percentage of women mayors and lord mayors in municipalities has been slowly, but steadily, growing, especially in small villages and small towns. The **main barriers to entry into the world of politics are family and children**, highly valued issues in Slovakia. Most women that actively participate in local politics consider their work as a service to others. They feel more familiar with the **problems of the community** and the people, and more useful in finding direct solutions. The main motivation of women mayors is to help their village. However, the position of mayor in small municipalities is less attractive in terms of **power and money**, so men prefer bigger municipalities, where they have the support of a large staff, bigger budgets, bigger projects and higher salaries (Bitušíková, A., 2005).

4. POLICY MEASURES TO CLOSE THE GAP

KEY FINDINGS

- Since the 1990s, policy makers in Europe have incorporated the elements of **successful community based, participatory development** into official rural development policies, trying to find solutions for gender inequalities, especially in rural areas.
- During the past two decades, **major efforts have been made to translate the commitment to gender mainstreaming in the European Structural Funds into practice.**
- The analysis of women's role in RDPs shows that in national Rural Development Programmes gender equality has been recognised as a horizontal issue. **Little has been done to address the systemic features of gender inequality and to realise inclusive developments** that address the needs of all social groups.
- Although the issues of equality of women, and especially rural women, have been included in official policy documents for decades, **women are still not equal** in matters of employment, earnings and wages, and in recognition of their engagement in general.

4.1. EU legislation on gender equality issues

The success of an integrated approach to rural development is crucial for the future of European rural areas. Such an approach aims to **enhance local development and unlock local resources through empowerment and participation** of rural inhabitants. Rural women have a crucial role for this approach, because they represent not only community values, family and cultural traditions, but innovation, entrepreneurship and a large proportion of human resources in general (Nemes, 2002). In addition to women's capabilities, official European rural policy recognizes the necessary conditions that have to be fulfilled for **successful community based, participatory development**, such as social networks, co-operation and a common vision of the future. Since 1990s, policy makers in Europe have incorporated these elements into official rural development policies, trying to find solutions for gender inequalities, especially in rural areas.

Preventing discrimination and gender equality are the issues covered by EU legislation since the 1970s, when the Directive on the progressive implementation of the principle of equal treatment for men and women in matters of social security¹¹ was published. After that, the gender equality issues were regulated by numerous Directives, Communications and Recommendations and elaborated in a number of Reports and Council Conclusions¹². Questions of special concern within Directives are:

- Equal treatment between men and women engaged in activity, including agriculture, in a self-employed capacity, and on the protection of self-employed women during pregnancy and motherhood (Directive 2010/41/EU),
- Equal treatment between men and women in the access to and supply of goods and services (Directive 2004/113/EC),

¹¹ Directive 79/7 of 19 December 1978

¹² See: http://ec.europa.eu/justice/gender-equality/law/index_en.htm

- Equal opportunities and equal treatment of men and women in matters of employment and occupation (Directive 2006/54/EC),

Communication documents suggest how to achieve better work–life balance and decrease the gender pay gap, and the **Strategy for equality between women and men 2010-2015** (from 2010) deal with problems of equal economic independence, equal pay for equal work, equality in decision-making, dignity, integrity and an end to gender-based violence.

One of the key documents for closing the gap is also the Report on the situation of women in rural areas of the EU, provided by the European Parliament in 2008.¹³ In this document, the European Parliament calls on the Commission to undertake a number of measures for elimination of inequalities and the promotion of equal opportunities for men and women, prime objectives of Council Regulation (EC) No 1260/1999.

In addition, in 2011, the Parliamentary Assembly of the Council of Europe¹⁴ provided main conclusions about the role of the rural women in Resolution 1806¹⁵, main issues of concern that should be identified and solved, as well as recommendations for the Council of Europe member states. Main findings indicate that:

- Women are a driving force for the maintenance, conservation and development of rural areas, both in cultural and economic terms,
- Due to the predominance of certain conditions in rural areas, women in rural areas are confronted with major challenges in the achievement of gender equality and the enjoyment of their rights,
- Gender mainstreaming is inadequately ensured in the development and implementation of legislative and policy measures relating to agriculture and rural areas, especially in countries that passed through the process of privatisation during the 1990s (CEECs),
- Despite market regional differences, common issues of concern are: rural women are not adequately accounted for in national statistics; their opportunities for finding employment are limited, as is their access to credit, social security cover, health care and social services; they face obstacles in access to property and inheritance rights, they have difficulties reconciling work and family life and have limited decision-making power within the family business, etc.

Policy measures suggested to close the gap between genders in rural areas are directed to:

- Devise specific legal measures and policies focusing on improving the situation of rural women,
- Provide for the involvement of rural women in agricultural policy development at national, regional and local levels,
- Promote greater participation by rural women in decision making and their presence in local political life,
- Monitor the proper implementation of the law in the fields of justice, anti-discrimination, labour law and criminal law,
- Set up or support visibility and awareness-raising campaigns for women's rights,

¹³ European Parliament 2004-2009. Session document, A6-0031/2008. Report on the situation of women in rural areas of the EU (2007/2117(INI)). Committee on Women's Rights and Gender Equality.

¹⁴ Although not an EU body, it contributes to European values of human rights.

¹⁵ See: <http://assembly.coe.int/nw/xml/XRef/Xref-XML2HTML-en.asp?fileid=17985&lang=en>

- Draw up and improve statistics aimed at providing a clear overview and information about the women and their life in rural areas.

In the European Union, the key concept of change through the regulations is “gender mainstreaming” which is a legal obligation of programmes supported by the **Structural Funds**. Equal opportunities for men and women has been raised as an issue within European Structural Funds since the late 1980s, initially as a concern within the European Social Fund, than extended to all the European Structural Funds. During the past two decades, **major efforts have been made to translate the commitment to gender mainstreaming in the European Structural Funds into practice**. This approach aims to ensure sustained and integrated efforts to overcome the persistent inequalities between women and men that exist in all member states. It refers to inequalities in relation to rates of inactivity and unemployment, participation in full-time, part-time and atypical work, pay and conditions of employment, rates of enterprise creation and growth, sharing of unpaid domestic and family care work etc. Women living in remote or marginalized communities may meet this difficulties concentrated (Braithwaite, 2000; Nemes, 2002).

4.2. Rural women in Rural Development Plans

Increasing attention has been paid to the problem of the role of women in rural development, resulting in the insertion of special measures in the Agenda 2000. Rural development programs aimed at identifying the constraints on women’s full participation in local public and economic life and at developing specific initiatives in favour of women.

European Union programs have already provided significant backing to developments in rural areas with a benefit for women. The most significant actions included: (i) Regulations. 1257/99 and 1260/99, which defined the strategies and objectives of rural development policy (multi-functionality, multi-sector approach, efficiency and coordination of action, application of new measures, etc.) and aimed, among other things, at creating new jobs, so as to guarantee better use of existing human resources and promote equal opportunities for men and women; (ii) The Leader+ initiative for rural development, in which an improvement in job opportunities and/or the creation of jobs for the young and women had been a EU priority and contributed towards improving the conditions of women in rural areas by providing incentives for the development of new activities and sources of employment; (iii) The NOW (New Opportunities for Women) EU employment initiative that had been widely used to support training, employment creation and enterprise support projects for rural women. (Navarra, 2009: 65).

The Rural Development Regulation (EC) No 1698/2005 (EAFRD) stated in Article 8 that “Member States and the Commission shall promote equality between men and women...” Therefore, the equality principles and needs of women were suggested to be taken into account in design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of the programmes. The EU programs for rural development aimed at singling out the factors handicapping the full participation of women in public and economic life at local level and at developing specific initiatives for this category.

The analysis of women’s role in RDPs shows that in national Rural Development Programmes gender equality has been recognised as a horizontal issue. Scanning of policy documents demonstrates, however, that few rural development plans have addressed gender issues and generally only by including some separate projects for women. **Little has been done to address the systemic features of gender inequality and to realise inclusive developments** that address the needs of all social groups. The de-politicisation of rural gender issues has resulted in policy makers ticking the obligatory gender box without envisioning any real change in the agenda or process of rural development policy making (Bock, 2015).

However, there are examples on **specific actions** to encourage female participation in the programme (Finland) or priority is given to women in the selection criteria (Spain). A positive trend was recorded in the number of women applying for support, indicating a move towards a more equal gender distribution, and the representatives of Local Action Groups (LAGs) were gender equal or dominated by women (Bock, 2015).

4.2.1. **Italy:** Tools in support of women in Italian agriculture

According to Navarra (2009), **rural women entrepreneurs** in Italy, as well as women workers in other productive sectors have been benefiting from the subsidies allocated by the Law No 215/92 ("positive actions for female entrepreneurship"), especially for business start-up and innovation projects. This Law has promoted substantial **equality and equal opportunities for men and women in economic and entrepreneurial activities**. Its main objectives were (i) decrease of gender inequalities, mainly by granting capital account funds in order to make fixed investments and acquire real services aimed at the creation and development of women's enterprises, (ii) access to the labour market, with the special reference to self-employment of women, (iii) networks and cooperation, so the Committee for Women's Entrepreneurship was established at all Italian Chambers of Commerce in order to promote and implement measures to favour women's enterprises on the territory, and (iv) development of theoretical approaches, which means promoting women's involvement in professional sectors, especially in the technologically-advanced sectors and on levels of responsible positions. Within the Regional Programmes for women's entrepreneurship, interventions are implemented that are aimed at entrepreneurial training in favour of women, information guidance and support to promote a more entrepreneurial culture among women, technical and managerial assistance and advice in favour of women's entrepreneurship, reconciliation of work and family life for women and opening of centres for women's employment.

4.2.2. **Slovenia:** promotion of gender equality on farms through the RDP

Recent research by Istenic (2015) tried to find out the actual contribution of rural development policy actions to the everyday life of farm women, by focussing on the situation of gender equality on farms in Slovenia. Pertaining to two measures of the Rural Development Programme 2004-2006 - the Setting Up of Young Farmers and the Early Retirement of Farmers. The aim of the analysis was to compare the beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries of these two measures at family farms in terms of their development capacities and their inclination towards gender equality. Results revealed that those measures resulted in better development capacities in terms of economic and demographic conditions. However, **the farms did not show significant development in terms of gender equality** as examined on the basis of the division of work and decision-making on family farms. The rigidity in gender statuses and roles on family farms is explained and discussed through the issue of **unequal access of women to farmland ownership and agricultural education**, and through persistently **weak institutional support** to increase political participation and power for farm women.

5. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

KEY FINDINGS

- Rural women play a key role in supporting their households and communities in accessing food, nutrition security, income and rural livelihoods, but they still face **persistent structural constraints** that prevent them from fully enjoying their human rights and full participation in economic and public life.
- Solutions for achieving women's better productivity, access to markets and economic efficiency are seen in better access to **information, education and credit** and **encouraging business association**.
- **Criteria and indicators of gender equality are clearer and serve as guidelines** for (gender-based) rural policy creation and implementation.
- The policy should continuously strive for **opportunities and equal evaluation of women's and men's different qualities** within the same level of engagement.

5.1. Conclusions

Rural women play a **key role** in supporting their households and communities in achieving food and nutrition security, generating income, and improving rural livelihoods and overall well-being. They contribute to agriculture and rural enterprises and fuel local and global economies. Yet, they still face **persistent structural constraints** that prevent them from fully enjoying their human rights and hamper their efforts to improve their lives as well as those of others around them.

Although the issues of equality of women, and especially rural women, have been implanted in official policy documents for decades, women are still not equal in matters of employment, earnings and wages, and in recognition of their engagement in general. Women's employment in low-paid and low-status jobs, where they work below their skills and abilities, is frequent. Increasingly, only temporary or part-time jobs are available. Part-time jobs may suit some women, particularly those with young children, but in general there is a call for employment with better conditions and longer hours. The challenge for rural development programs is to **identify the constraints on women's full participation in economic and public life at local level**, and to **develop specific initiatives** in their favour. Analysis of policy documents demonstrates that few rural development plans address gender issues and generally only by including some separate projects for women.

Previous topics of the International Day of Rural Women were focused on improving the conditions for women in rural areas that would enable them **better productivity, access to markets and economic efficiency**. Solutions are seen in better access to information, education and credit, as well as encouraging business association of women in rural areas (their participation in farm organizations, cooperatives, financial and governmental institutions, etc.).

To conclude, positive trends were recorded during the past 20 years. They were enhanced by formal legislation on the European and national level and are confirmed by numerous

examples and cases from different European countries. **Criteria and indicators of gender equality are clearer and serve as guidelines** for (gender-based) rural policy creation and implementation. However, the main goal still remains the same: better recognition and evaluation of women's role in the society, especially the rural society. What determines the role of women in (rural) society can be summarized in ten key words: (1) Family, (2) Employment, (3) Income, (4) Sustainability, (5) Education, (6) Tradition, (7) Society, (8) Cooperation, (9) Leadership, and (10) Decision-making.

5.2. Recommendations

Based on the results of this analysis, it is possible to suggest a few basic recommendations for opinion and policy makers regarding the treatment of women in general and especially in rural areas.

The **European Parliament** should continue and **intensify international discussions** and workshops on the role of rural women in different socio-economic and cultural circumstances, primarily at the level of ideas and ideologies. Rural tradition and even traditional gender relationships are not opposed to the realisation of women's rights; suggestion is to look for the elements of **recognition, validation and respect for women** in their traditional roles in the rural economy and rural society. In order to realize the vision of gender equality in all EU member states, especially in more traditional, marginal rural areas, it is necessary to spread the positive experience of countries in which a higher degree of equality of women in rural areas is achieved to 'less developed' areas (at least due to the official data on gender equality). How to use traditional patterns to achieve gender equality for rural women should be the main task.

One of the most required action with regard to the **European Commission** is to **improve statistical data collection** about women's 'invisible' work and engagement in family and social life, and so not only at the registration, but also at the evaluation level. These data should be available and comparable among all Member States. There is also a lot of space to **improve the legislation** regarding gender equality on the labour market, in particular regarding wages, ownership rights and decision making. Rural development plans and programs should intensify and **concretize support to female entrepreneurial ideas** and facilitate their implementation.

National governments and especially local authorities should know best the situation in their rural areas. Therefore, they have the largest responsibility in achieving a more equal role of women in rural areas. Considering the fact that an increasing number of women are engaged in local development activities, the priority should be put on concrete **local development projects run by women** and/or **aimed at improving the socio-economic position of women** in rural areas. Regional and local development strategies, as well as formal and informal educational and consultancy programs should include elements that promote awareness on the equal role of women in rural areas.

The final conclusion is that one should not strive for gender equality per se. It should look for equal **opportunities and equal evaluation of women's and men's different qualities** within the same level of engagement. Only such efforts for achieving gender equality will ultimately result in sustainable rural, but also general, socio-economic development.

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THE ROLE OF FUNDING UNDER THE COMMON AGRICULTURAL POLICY FOR RURAL WOMEN

Prof. Janet Dwyer

Abstract

Upon request by the FEMM Committee, this paper reviews the role of funding under the Common Agricultural Policy, in influencing the situation of rural women. In most cases, the CAP is not promoting the important yet undervalued role of women in agriculture and rural development, largely due to indirect (non-deliberate) discrimination. Nonetheless, CAP measures and delivery approaches offer significant potential, alongside broader instruments, to promote greater recognition and positive outcomes for rural women, if designed appropriately. This should be encouraged.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AGRI	Agriculture and Rural Development Committee
CAP	Common Agricultural Policy
EC	European Commission
ENRD	European Network for Rural Development
MS	Member State(s)
MTE	Mid-Term Evaluation
OGA	Other gainful activities
RDP	Rural Development Programme(s) under CAP Pillar 2

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Background

This paper examines the role of funding from the Common Agricultural Policy (CAP) for the situation of rural women in EU Member States (MS) and their contribution to sustainable rural development. It reviews literature, analyses data on the uptake of CAP measures in both pillars, and discusses the results in the light of comments and experience from experts with knowledge of the situation in various different Member States. It has been prepared over 4 weeks, in September 2015.

Findings

Although the principle of gender mainstreaming is applied to EU agricultural policy, the evidence of its impact has been limited, to date. Current expert opinion is largely pessimistic and some analysts conclude that it is little more than empty rhetoric.

There is robust evidence concerning the **multiple and valuable roles** played by women in EU agriculture and sustainable rural development. The same body of research identifies a significant mismatch between this value, and formal recognition of women in respect of the ownership, control or management of farms, as well as women's related access to policy funding and support structures for agriculture and rural development.

Whilst traditional gendered roles and disempowerment in the sector are seen as typical for the EU as a whole, **positive examples** exist in a range of MS. In these, women's status and visibility in farming has risen in recent years. Often this appears to be a result of both targeted interventions within agri-rural policy, as well as wider economic, legal and cultural change, by which women's position and status as entrepreneurial agents is increasingly acknowledged and accommodated. Examples include northern and southern, as well as old and new, MS: this pattern is not the preserve of a homogeneous group.

The available EU data on CAP funding and gender suggest that women-operated farms are **less likely to be beneficiaries** of CAP funding than male-operated or corporate farms. Because of farm structural differences by gender, the Pillar 1 CAP receipts of women farmers will be lower, in aggregate, than those of male farmers. Also, a lower proportion of women farmers is accessing Pillar 2 RDP aids than would be expected on the basis of the overall share of women-operated farms in the EU. This pattern is repeated at MS level for most types of measure, and most MS. However, a small number of MS emerge as less likely to exhibit this apparent 'gender gap'. There appears some correlation here with those MS identified in the literature review as taking particular steps to support women's roles in agriculture and rural development (e.g. including Greece, Finland and others).

Analysis of farm size, farmer education and farmer age by gender across the EU suggests strongly that the gender disparity in beneficiaries of RDP funding is most likely caused by the fact that female-operated farms tend to be significantly smaller, and female farmers less well-educated and older, than their male or corporate counterparts. Thus the evidence suggests that there may be **indirect discrimination** against women farm operators, in respect of CAP funding. Disparities appear particularly in those MS which have been criticised by experts for a lack of explicit targeting in RDP design and delivery.

The European Union has a stated commitment to encourage the use of CAP instruments and measures to promote so-called 'cross-cutting' EU goals including gender equality. In principle, the general aids of Pillar 1 of CAP should be gender-neutral. However, within the second pillar of CAP – the RDPs – there is considerable scope to use aids specifically to

tackle and overcome gender bias. Some recommendations are offered, including promotion of positive action by ENRD and stronger EC guidance and implementing rules.

GENERAL INFORMATION

KEY FINDINGS

- This paper examines the role of funding from the Common Agricultural Policy (CAP) for the situation of rural women in EU Member States and their contribution to sustainable rural development.
- It reviews literature, analyses data on the uptake of CAP measures in both pillars, and discusses the results in the light of comments and experience from experts with knowledge of the situation in various different Member States. It has been prepared over 4 weeks, in September 2015.

Terms of reference and approach to the study

This paper was commissioned by the European Parliament to support a workshop to be held on 15 October in Brussels. The scope of the paper was defined as to:

'provide an overview of the role of funding from the CAP for the subsistence of rural women in the Member States and their crucial role in sustainable rural development. It should detail: to what extent women and men have equal access to European funds; how the funding influences if or how rural women develop or abandon their businesses in agriculture in favour of other sources of income; and to what extent funding under the CAP contributes or not to the leadership and participation of rural women in decision-making and policy shaping with positive consequences for food security and poverty eradication. It should refer to the main EU policies in this field and include illustrating examples from the Member States.'

This paper makes an **analysis of the role played by CAP funding** in influencing the situation of rural women in Europe and their role in sustainable rural development. It draws information from a variety of sources, in order to assemble relevant evidence. In part 1, the recent literature is reviewed, gathering information and opinions on rural women's situation in respect of agriculture and rural development, across the EU. Some recent literature was specifically aimed to critique the effectiveness of 'gender mainstreaming' in EU policy and in particular, in policies for agriculture and rural development.

In part 2, the paper makes a simple analysis of the extant evidence in respect of women and the **uptake of funding measures** under the CAP. It examines both pillars of the policy, and interprets the significance of these findings in the context of the literature review.

Finally in part 3, there is a discussion of the role of the CAP in different Member States (MS) and the possible ways in which CAP **funding could promote or hinder** the achievement of more equal status and treatment of women in rural and agricultural situations. This discussion synthesises the findings of the earlier sections of the paper and adds qualitative insights from an exchange of information and ideas between the author and a number of academic researchers, during the preparation of this paper.

1. CONTEXT AND LITERATURE REVIEW

KEY FINDINGS

- Although the principle of gender mainstreaming is supposed to have been applied to EU agricultural policy, the evidence for this has been limited, to date. Current expert opinion is largely pessimistic about its impact on the ground, and some analysts conclude that it is little more than **empty rhetoric**.
- There is robust evidence concerning the multiple and valuable roles played by women in EU agriculture and sustainable rural development. The same body of research identifies a **significant mismatch** between this value, and formal recognition of women in respect of the ownership, control or management of farms, and related access to policy funding and support structures for agriculture and rural development.
- Whilst traditional gendered roles and disempowerment in the sector are seen as typical for the EU as a whole, more positive examples from a range of Member States can be identified. In these, women's status and visibility in farming has risen in recent years. In most cases this appears to be a result of both **targeted interventions** within agri-rural policy to encourage women to engage and to offer support to strengthen their roles; as well as **wider economic, legal and cultural change** in which women's position and status as entrepreneurial agents is acknowledged and accommodated more fully within and across society. Examples include northern and southern, as well as old and new, Member States: this pattern is not the preserve of a particular group of cultures.

1.1. Gender mainstreaming and the CAP

The topic of gender balance in agriculture, in rural development and in respect of CAP policy, has been an issue of policy concern for some years. The Treaty of Amsterdam established equality between women and men as a specific task and activity of the Community, and a **horizontal objective** to be incorporated into all Community policies and programmes. This goal should be realised by applying the principle of "mainstreaming", which consists of taking systematic account of the differences between the conditions, situations and needs of women and men, in all Community policies and actions.

In 2000, the European Commission stated: 'the challenge for rural development programmes is to identify the constraints on women's full participation in economic and public life at local level, and to develop specific initiatives in their favour' (EC, 2000). That same report contained a wide variety of examples of such **specific initiatives**, as well as considerable data helping to support the view that women were a critically important, yet under-represented, group in agricultural and rural policy.

Since 2000, the EU has reformed its support under the Common Agricultural Policy (CAP) to create comprehensive rural development programmes for all MS and to decouple other farm aids from production and increasingly focus them around goals including income support, cohesion and environmental protection. Fifteen years later, it is timely to analyse the extent to which, through this process of reform and alongside a considerable

enlargement of the geographic scale of the EU, the combined resources of the CAP in both pillars have supported gender mainstreaming and the role of rural women in particular. The topic of women and the CAP has been the focus of a special section of the journal 'gender, place and identity' published in May 2015¹⁶. This section, edited by Professors Sally Shortall (UK) and Bettina Bock (NL) includes contributions from the editors and three other authors, concerning **different aspects of CAP policy and their impact** or implications for the status, position and role of rural women.

The **editors' papers review** published evidence concerning gender inequality in the farm sector across contemporary Europe. Their conclusions are summarised briefly as follows:

- **In most EU MS there are many more male principal farmers than female principal farmers**, signifying that it is more common for men to be in control of the agricultural production process and/or the resources deployed within it (land, capital and labour), at least insofar as formal recording is concerned.
- In most cases, there are a significant number of female workers in agriculture, sometimes as numerous or more numerous than males, and these are most often working in a family farm as a family member. Thus, combined with the first point, **there is an implication that women's labour is exploited by men**, because they make a significant labour contribution but rarely benefit from principal farmer status, unlike males in family farming. This implication is supported by a range of qualitative research evidence gathered from a variety of different countries (from interviews, surveys and other empirical social science research), suggesting that women's role in agriculture is relatively under-valued in the sense of formal (legal) recognition or empowerment.
- Further evidence suggests that **in most MS, contributory roles in family farming are heavily gendered**, with women typically performing less physically-demanding tasks but often those which require precision and a good understanding of the business (e.g. book-keeping, managing finances and keeping records) and/or which require specific skills of rearing or care (e.g. taking charge of young stock, calves or lambs), while male roles tend to encompass the management and use of machinery and the external buying and selling of farm inputs and outputs. While this does not necessarily link to male roles being somehow more important than female roles, it might make the former more externally visible.

From this, Shortall and Bock (2015) argue that **women's status in EU agriculture is unequal to that of men** and that the main reason for this is women's relatively low level of formally-recognised control in respect of either land-holding or business responsibility. This is notwithstanding the findings of other researchers (e.g. Dwyer et al, 2007; Sireni, 2015; Forsberg and Stenbacka, 2013), suggesting that farm decision-making in a variety of family-farm situations may involve several members of a family, in which case whilst roles differ, men and women may have equal status in the *management* of the business. Nevertheless, formal *ownership* appears more often bestowed upon the oldest male family member, in most EU countries.

Moving on to policy, the EU aspiration of gender mainstreaming is considered by Shortall and Bock (2015) with respect to the principles and tools of the Common Agricultural Policy and its two pillars governing market regimes and decoupled income support, and rural

¹⁶ *Gender, place and identity: a journal of feminist geography*. Volume 22 no.5. Pages 662-705

development aid, respectively. At a general level, the authors find no evidence that these policies seek actively or significantly to overcome imbalances in gender status within the farm sector or the wider rural economy. Thus, **their conclusion is that the gender mainstreaming agenda is not really being promoted** or supported, in this context. Their assessment of examples of specific gender-targeted projects and initiatives under various RDPs, as reported in other literature, is that these are hardly more than tokenism. Shortall (2015) takes the view that these initiatives seek to address a symptom of the unequal status of women in farming, rather than seriously to challenge it. Bock (2015) notes how they may add some element of increased status, productivity or capacity to womens' roles within farm businesses, but without fundamentally altering their inferior position vis-à-vis men.

Other contributory authors to the journal add some detail and some nuances to these arguments. An interesting discussion on **changing gender roles** within Polish rural society is presented by Matysiak (2015), in which the author identifies a process whereby women are increasingly taking on a formerly high-status role in village leadership and management, as a consequence of the shifting responsibilities of that role and thus a declining interest by men, in taking it on. In such a context, relevant forms of CAP rural development decision-making or funding could increasingly be taken by women, reflecting this shift in roles and responsibilities.

In another assessment of the situation in rural Slovenia, Cernic Istenic (2015) finds **significant gender imbalance** in some areas of rural development funding, linked to the fact that beneficiaries are most often younger, better educated and in charge of larger farm businesses than those who do not receive aids. As women in charge of farms are on average older, less well-educated and managing a smaller business than men, this means that fewer women benefit from RDP aids. The study also examined gender roles among beneficiary and non-beneficiary farms, reporting:

'To a large extent, various matters relating to the production on the farm are governed by men. This is particularly true in beneficiaries' households... women in non-beneficiaries' households have slightly more say, especially when it comes to succession. Results also show beneficiaries' and non-beneficiaries' families do not differ in decision-making between the genders. However, differences are found in relation to gender, partner's working status and attitudes towards gender roles: irrespective of receipt of RDP aids, decisions on farms are largely made by men who support views on 'traditional' gender roles and whose partners work on the farm. In this case, shared decision-making among genders is a [more common] practice on farms where the farm owner (holder) is a woman.'

Cernic-Istenic, 2015

Some information on gendered aspects of RDP performance is given in the meta-evaluation of the mid-term reviews of 2007-2013 RDPs in 2010 (Schuh *et al*, 2010); also the ex-post evaluation of RDPs in 2008 (Kantor, 2012). From the 2012 ex-post meta-evaluation of 2000-2006 RDPs, there are few references to positive gender impacts from the Programmes, and **the overall conclusion of the evaluators is that most measures are gender neutral, so do not affect the pre-existing gender bias in farming**. Some extracts illustrate the available evidence influencing this position:

- In the Regions of Catalonia and Madrid in Spain, the RDP apparently integrated specific gender objectives into certain measures (training, basic services). Training measures included eligibility and selection criteria that gave priority to women, while gender monitoring was undertaken to assess compliance with Equal Opportunities.

- 'Where data by gender exists [in RDP evaluations], it stresses the importance of the tourism measures for female employment. However, the data needs to be interpreted with caution as the low share of female employment in all rural areas reveals that current imbalances have only been slightly corrected'.
- 'The start-up assistance measure... did not change the gender structure of the sector which remains still male dominated.'

The report makes the following recommendation:

'For measures with high but unrealised potential for contributing to objectives (e.g. training, start-up assistance to young farmers): include **simple, compulsory schemes**, for instance a scheme for young small farmers – potentially with a strong gender component (e.g. requiring that X% of start-ups are undertaken by women).' (Kantor, 2012).

From the mid-term meta-evaluation (Schuh et al, 2010), we find the following discussions:

- Brandenburg-Berlin (D) – over a third of business start-ups (axis 3) were women.
- Bulgaria – the RDP increases territorial imbalances, it helps those who are already best-placed to succeed and fails to help those who need it most. Resources are becoming concentrated in fewer hands. There is no information on gender balance.
- Czech – the RDP had no discernible impact upon social cohesion. One measure appears to have a negative impact upon gender balance. There is clear evidence of serial grant adoption among beneficiaries, suggesting negative distributional impact.
- Ireland- the RDP has had a modest positive impact upon gender equality.
- Luxembourg - no noticeable effects upon gender balance.
- In Sweden - Pillar 2 payments favoured low income municipalities. A convergence of incomes seems to have occurred but not necessarily causally linked to the RDP. Applicants for support from Axis 1 and 3 are almost all men, although an increased proportion of women is applying and receiving support (e.g. for business start-up aid), in the new programming period, compared to the former.
- Wales (UK) – the RDP reduced income disparities between farms. There is no evidence to suggest that the RDP does not provide equal gender opportunities in terms of the direct receipt of support, although there is some evidence that, in terms of employment creation /protection, males benefit more than females. The pattern is complex and no conclusion of systematic bias can be drawn.
- Northern Ireland (UK) - laws ensure balance and representativeness in respect of gender, age, sexual orientation, racial group, religion and political opinion: all are analysed and reported on positively (i.e. the RDP was fair to all these groups).

There are further brief, qualitative discussions of gender in a minority of mid-term evaluations (MTE) of individual RDPs. In most, the MTE seeks briefly to ascertain whether there is evidence of a negative bias in respect of certain groups or territories, and concludes not, on the basis of relatively little in-depth analysis. In a small number of MTE especially those from new MS, there is reported evidence that **support has been**

concentrated upon more prosperous, male, established, agricultural beneficiaries (the implication is that targeting is weak, so funds flow to where they are least needed/most readily applied for). Poland is a notable example. This problem has been raised as a serious concern by other authors (Erjavec, 2012). It is likely that, given the structure of the agricultural sector in many MS, the majority of RDP beneficiaries will be men. Some MTE judge that aid is more often awarded to those who can afford to develop their enterprises without public aid, than to those who cannot. As discussed also in ENRD's Thematic Working Group 4 report on the Delivery of RDPs (ENRD, 2010), such poor targeting of investment aids may be caused by a range of factors. These include low capacity and insufficient training or experience among the staff working in RDP implementing bodies, as well as barriers to accessing aid among the most "needy" (such as problems raising private match-funding). There may also be institutional unwillingness to award aid to beneficiaries who appear to represent greater risk. (Schuh et al, 2010).

1.2. The changing role of rural women: implications for farming and rural development policies

A valuable Council of Europe paper (Quintanilla Barba, Spain, EPP/CD, 2010)¹⁷ offered four examples of the changing status of rural women within EU MS, and of policies designed to promote the role of women in rural development, in each context. The following edited extracts provide an overview of these examples, each provided by expert witnesses from the countries concerned:

In **Spain**, 24% of the population lives in rural areas, including 5 million women. The average Spanish woman living in rural areas is married, over 50 years old, has 2.3 children and devotes eight hours daily to domestic tasks and five to activities outside the house. Fewer than 9% of farms are run by women; in the majority of cases, these are small (less than one hectare) which is below subsistence level; only 3% above 50 hectares are run by women. The level of responsibility of women in running agricultural businesses does not correspond to their real decision-making power, because a patriarchal mentality continues. A growing number of women farmers are engaged in innovative entrepreneurial activities, such as rural tourism, production of organic food, transformation and trade of agricultural products, traditional handcrafts, etc. 82% of women living in the countryside are helping spouses or family members; their status is not clearly defined in legislation, they do not earn a wage and only 59% are covered by social insurance. In recent years there has been a sharp increase in the number of migrant female workers in the agri-food industry, employed as temporary farmhands. In 2007, the government approved a plan to promote gender equality in the countryside and Law 45/2007 on sustainable rural development encouraged the active participation of women in positions of responsibility, and positive action. It also aimed to raise the profile of women's work and participation as owners or co-owners of farms, retaining women or incorporating women in agriculture, female employment and diversification of activities, training and access to new technologies. The Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food (MAPA) sponsors activities aimed at promoting the development of women's entrepreneurial capacity as well as their leadership. In 2010, the Ministry granted the first Award of Excellence in Innovation for Rural Women.

Italy has one of the lowest employment rates for women (42%) compared to the EU average (55.6%). As a result of progressive deregulation of the labour market and willingness to tackle the high unemployment rate in the 1990s, a number of policies and

¹⁷ Quintanilla Barba, C. (2010), Rural Women in Europe. Council of Europe paper. At: <http://www.assembly.coe.int/CommitteeDocs/2010/aegadoc422010.pdf>

legislative measures were introduced to support entrepreneurship, and some measures addressing exclusively young people and women, e.g. Law 215/92 on **Positive Actions for Female Entrepreneurship**. This sought to remove socio-economic constraints which limit or prevent women's access to the labour market and enterprise, such as lack of training or information. From 1999 to 2003 there was a slight increase in the number of farms run by women (from 26.3 to 27.3%), and it is still rising. In Italy, a high percentage of women in farming are aged 35-54 (59.4%), a small percentage are 15-34 (22.9%), while women over 50 total 33.9%, which contrasts with their age profile in other sectors. In general, the level of education of women occupied in the agricultural sector is lower than the national average. Rural women work longer hours than other female workers and 27.5% work part-time. The majority of farms run by women are efficient, innovative and oriented to diversification, e.g. involving direct marketing of farm products and agro-tourism. In 1997, the Italian government set up a **National Observatory for Female Enterprise and Labour in Agriculture (ONILFA)**, headed by the Minister of Agriculture and comprised of representatives of a number of other relevant ministries. It aimed to assess the employment opportunities of rural women and formulate the strategy to enhance these.

In **Poland**, rural settlement is fragmented, with 53,000 localities, 75% of which are inhabited by under 500 residents. An increasing proportion of urban Poles – mainly entrepreneurs, affluent and with a good level of education – settle in rural areas close to cities. At the same time, the outflow of rural people to urban areas in search for jobs has halted and there is a marked return to rural areas. Ageing has become a serious problem for rural Poland, where the percentage of older inhabitants is higher than in towns. Men outnumber women in the age category below 54, whereas above 54, women outnumber men. A higher percentage of rural women than men and urban women are unemployed. The Agricultural Social Insurance Fund (KRUS) insures 4.5 million farmers and is equally accessible for women and men. Social security benefits and rules are the same for both sexes, with the exception of lower retirement age for women. In addition, rural women can benefit from birth allowances (three basic pensions) and maternity allowances. Poland has been a member of the EU since 2004, but **surveys show that rural women do not feel confident in taking advantage of EU structural funds**, due to lack of knowledge of the administrative procedures. They are also reluctant to change the farming model for more innovative forms that have proven successful in other EU MS, such as agro-tourism; similarly, not many rural women would consider working from home. There are, however, positive signs of change: **women who contribute to the family income are now more frequently treated as equal partners in decision-making**, and women's authority in the family is rising.

Finland is one of the best countries in terms of gender equality, is relatively rich, has a large agricultural sector and a very low population density per square kilometre especially in rural areas. In this country, for years there has been an awareness of the importance of incorporating the gender dimension in agricultural policies and specific bodies and action plans have been set up. In 2003, a working group on women set up under the national action plan (called Rural Policy Programme) drew up an **Action Plan for Rural Women**. Finland's Rural Development Strategy for 2007-2010 includes a number of measures aimed at improving the situation of rural women. The number of women land-owners and entrepreneurs is relatively high, though statistics are not accurate as regards co-ownership: when spouses are co-owners, statistics take account only of one of them – usually the man. Training aimed at enhancing women's entrepreneurial skills is organised or promoted by government agencies, such as the **Women's Enterprise Agency**. A consolidated system of distance-learning and, more recently, substantial investments in

communication and information technology made it possible to raise the education level of rural women, even in remote areas.

Recent studies in rural **Finland** (Sireni, 2015; Kallioniemi and Kymäläinen, 2012) have indicated that in this country, the role and contribution of women to farming and rural development has been transformed away from its traditional role of offering unrecognised but essential support to men's managerial position on farms. The transformation is linked to wider gender equality processes within Finnish society, including individualised taxation systems for men and women working together in small businesses, and a real effort to promote equality in education and life opportunities, in urban and rural contexts. Today, **evidence suggests that women in farming most commonly see themselves as farmer entrepreneurs, that they take an equal role with men in farm family decision-making and that they are separately remunerated for their contribution to farm businesses**, although average earnings of females on farms lag slightly behind those of men on farms. Their contributions to farm work also appear less 'gendered' than researchers have found in other EU countries, as mentioned earlier.

For many years, Olga Iakovidou and colleagues at Thessaloniki University have analysed the phenomenon of successful women's agro-tourism co-operatives in **Greece**. These institutions were originally stimulated by Greek and EU policies as a way to increase rural women's participation in the workforce and their capacity for rural development. However, as state-initiated co-operatives became active across Greece they spawned co-operatives initiated by rural women themselves, and there are now 140 active co-operatives in total. Most of them involve relatively older women coming together to develop diversification in a family farm situation, and the most common options are adding value to farm products, direct sales of these products and agro-tourism. In a recent review, the situation has been summarised as follows:

*'A cursory glance at the history of the women's agricultural co-operatives in Greece and a review of the literature highlights the uniqueness of this type of entrepreneurship (a rarity in Europe) and their significant role for rural society cohesion, mainly in geographically and economically isolated rural areas... Either bottom-up or top-down created **women's co-operatives are currently a social innovation**. Their strengths mainly concern economic independence and social inclusion of women in rural areas, while their weaknesses are mainly associated with funding, organization, administration, know how, culture, product promotion and marketing problems. Nevertheless, they are called upon to survive in a competitive environment; although difficult, it is one that provides opportunities that most likely can outweigh threats'.*

(Sergaki et al, 2015)

The authors note that while **these co-operatives have undoubtedly made a positive contribution to rural gender equality**, they do so precisely by encouraging women to take on roles which have been characterised as stereotypically 'feminine' in an agricultural context. This is to say, that they bring in additional income to the farm household without fundamentally changing or challenging the central (usually) male role of the farm manager, who retains the principal decision-making responsibility in respect of the business of farming and main goals for the farm.

Analysis of women's role in farming in **Sweden** (Forsberg and Stenbacka, 2012) indicates that farming women adopt a wider range of approaches to their farming than the stereotypical picture of relative exploitation that is apparent elsewhere. Nevertheless, they

note much variability between areas and still many inequalities in either status or incomes, between genders.

Writing elsewhere about women's role in farm entrepreneurial activity, Seuneke and Bock (2013) discussed similar issues. They reviewed a range of evidence and noted **an emerging pattern whereby women are becoming central in fostering multifunctional entrepreneurship, in that they 'introduce new identities, access new networks and stimulate negotiation within a farm family decision-making context'**. Their work suggests that men are perhaps more 'tied' to agriculture as a core business, whilst women generally have more 'room for manoeuvre' in thinking about future business development models and opportunities. In this context, they argue that farm women's more 'peripheral' position in respect of core farming activity can be an advantage and strength for entrepreneurial success.

1.3. Summary and opportunity for further analysis

The literature indicates that the 'general' picture for rural EU is one where women's roles in farming and rural development are valuable, but they are generally **under-recognised and undervalued in a legal and a policy sense**. However, there is evidence of movement away from this typical situation in a range of countries and contexts, including Finland, Greece, Sweden and some regions within Italy, Spain and the UK. In some places, women are developing and exploiting new roles with greater status and entrepreneurial freedom and in others, wider policies have promoted situations which enable women in farming to improve their situation and status, relative to men. In all these situations it seems that policy has been important in creating more gender equality, mainly using fundamental legislation on women's rights, coupled to funding and facilitation to incentivise action by or for rural women; sometimes also with fiscal benefits from participation.

It could be expected, therefore, that an analysis of EU level data on CAP funding and rural women would highlight some differences between the MS, thereby indicating where policy makers can look for good practice examples in gender mainstreaming, in this context. It is only recently that the European Commission has tracked and published data concerning the gender of beneficiaries of CAP funding. Reporting on gendered uptake of rural development measures was introduced under the 2007-13 programmes for the first time, for all Managing Authorities. This data is therefore analysed, in section 2 of this report.

2. CAP DATA ANALYSIS

KEY FINDINGS

- The data suggest that women farm operators are **less likely to be beneficiaries** of CAP funding, under both pillars of the policy, than are male-operated or corporate farms. Because of farm structural differences by gender, Pillar 1 CAP receipts by women farmers will be lower, in aggregate, than those of male farmers. Also, a lower proportion of women farmers appears to be accessing Pillar 2 RDP aids than would be expected on the basis of the share of women-operated farms in the EU. This pattern is repeated at MS level for most types of measure and most MS.
- A number of MS emerge as less likely to exhibit a strong degree of relative low uptake of measures by women farmers – they appear to correlate with those MS identified in the literature review as taking particular steps to **support women's roles** in agriculture and rural development.
- Analysis of farm size, farmer education and farmer age by gender across the EU suggests strongly that the gender disparity in beneficiaries of RDP funding is most likely caused by the fact that female-operated farms tend to be **significantly smaller**, and female farmers **less well-educated** and **older**, than their male or corporate counterparts. Thus it seems possible that there may be indirect discrimination against women farm operators, in respect of CAP funding.

Since 2007 it has been possible to analyse data on RDP beneficiaries by gender, due to the **monitoring and reporting system** implemented by the Commission. However, datasets are not comprehensive nor fully up to date, as they rely on information gathered by the Managing Authorities in each MS. At the same time, Eurostat holds information from EU farm surveys concerning the gender balance in respect of all farms, in each MS. It is therefore possible to examine these two sources together, to investigate to what extent CAP funding may be promoting gender equality in EU agriculture and rural development.

Data used in this summary was obtained from Eurostat, compiled from three datasets: [*ef ogadsexage - Support for rural development: number of farms, agricultural area, standard output \(SO\) and livestock \(LSU\) by age and sex of holder*](#) –this contains data for 2010 and 2013. 2010 data is the most comprehensive in terms of MS coverage, and is therefore used.

[*ef ogadsexage - Other gainful activities directly related to the holding: number of farms, agricultural area, standard output \(SO\) and livestock \(LSU\) by age and sex of holder*](#) – contains data for 2005, 2007, 2010 and 2013 and allows for a historical overview of MS farm composition, by gender. Data coverage for 2013 is incomplete- missing data for 13 MS, so 2010 data is used.

[*ef mptrainman - Agricultural training of farm managers: number of farms, agricultural area, labour force and standard output \(SO\) by age and sex of the manager*](#) – contains data for years 2005, 2010 and 2013 but 2013 data is incomplete so 2010 data is used.

All figures in the database `are rounded to the closer multiple of 10', and therefore where percentages have been calculated, they may not always total 100%.

2.1. Overview of Farm Structure and Gender

2.1.1. Gender balance of farm operators

The majority of EU farms are operated by males, though figures vary widely across MS. Just under 30% are female-operated. Others operate as a 'limited company' or equivalent(s), in this analysis they are referred to as corporate farms (abbreviated **Corp**, in tables and figures). Table 1 gives MS data in 2005, 2007 and 2010.

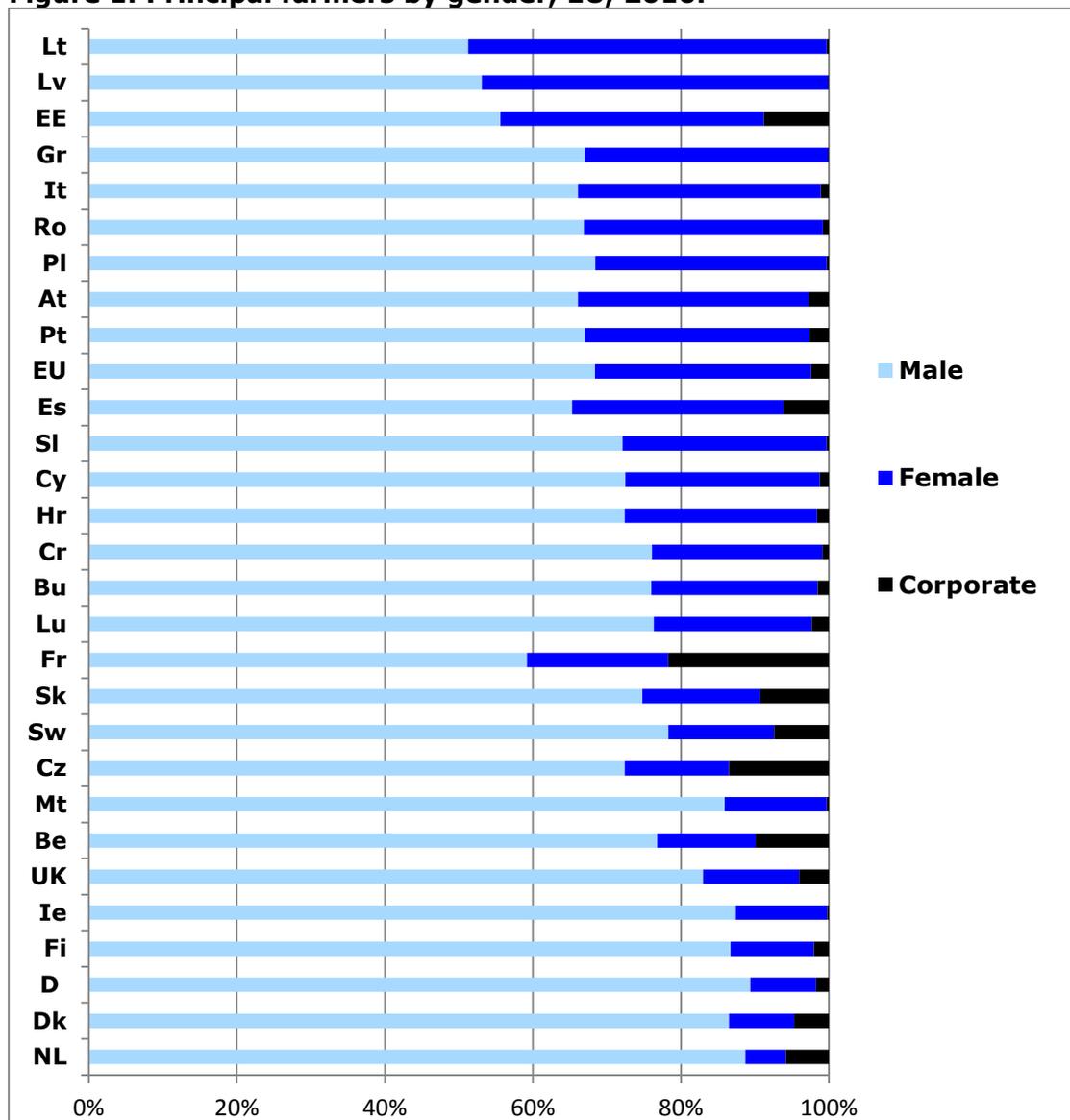
Table 1: Gender balance of EU farm operators

Member State	2005			2007			2010		
	Male	Female	Corp	Male	Female	Corp	Male	Female	Corp
LT	57.3	42.4	0.2	53.5	46.2	0.2	51.2	48.4	0.3
LV	53.2	46.7	0.1	52.9	47.0	0.1	53.1	46.8	0.1
EE	59.7	37.0	3.2	54.9	38.9	6.2	55.6	35.6	8.8
EL	69.9	30.0	0.1	69.7	30.3	0.1	67.0	32.9	0.1
IT	68.3	30.0	1.7	67.2	31.9	0.9	66.1	32.8	1.1
RO	70.4	29.2	0.4	69.7	29.8	0.5	66.9	32.3	0.8
PL	67.5	32.4	0.1	66.9	32.9	0.2	68.5	31.3	0.3
AT	65.6	32.2	2.3	66.2	31.3	2.5	66.1	31.2	2.7
PT	72.7	25.2	2.1	71.7	25.9	2.4	67.0	30.4	2.6
ES	68.1	27.1	4.8	67.4	27.3	5.4	65.3	28.6	6.1
SI	73.7	26.2	0.2	73.6	26.2	0.2	72.1	27.6	0.3
CY	74.3	24.8	1.0	73.7	25.2	1.1	72.5	26.3	1.2
HU	75.5	23.4	1.1	75.7	23.1	1.2	72.4	26.0	1.6
HR	N/A	N/A	N/A	78.7	20.6	0.6	76.1	23.0	0.9
BG	81.9	17.5	0.6	79.6	19.7	0.7	76.0	22.5	1.5
LU	78.8	19.6	1.6	77.4	20.9	1.7	76.4	21.4	2.3
FR	64.8	18.8	16.4	62.3	18.7	18.9	59.2	19.1	21.7
SK	78.6	18.7	2.6	79.0	18.1	3.0	74.8	15.9	9.3
SW	81.7	11.5	6.8	79.5	14.1	6.5	78.4	14.3	7.4
CZ	76.7	16.6	6.7	76.1	16.4	7.5	72.4	14.1	13.5
MT	89.3	10.5	0.4	87.9	11.7	0.3	85.9	13.8	0.3
BE	79.3	13.8	6.9	78.5	13.6	7.9	76.8	13.3	9.9
UK	79.2	16.4	4.4	79.8	14.9	5.4	83.0	13.0	4.0
IE	89.9	10.0	0.1	89.4	10.4	0.1	87.4	12.4	0.2
FI	88.2	10.4	1.4	87.9	10.6	1.5	86.7	11.3	2.0
DE	89.9	8.9	1.3	89.1	9.5	1.4	89.4	8.9	1.7
DK	87.8	11.5	0.8	86.3	11.5	2.1	86.5	8.8	4.7
NL	88.6	6.4	4.9	89.7	5.1	5.2	88.7	5.5	5.8
EU	70.8	27.4	1.8	70.1	28.0	1.9	68.4	29.2	2.4

Source: Eurostat, 2015

Proportions of male operated farms have dropped slightly over the time period, whereas proportions for female and corporate farms have increased slightly. Examining the 2010 data, we can see patterns of interest, as in figure 1. **Female-operated farms** accounted for 29.2% of all farms within the EU. However there was a range from 5.5% in the Netherlands to 48.4% in Lithuania. Relatively high figures for female-operated farms were present in other Baltic states – Latvia, 46.8%; Estonia, 35.5% - as well as Poland, 31.3%. These MS also have a low share of corporate farms, below the EU average of 2.4%.

Figure 1. Principal farmers by gender, EU, 2010.



Source: Eurostat, 2015

Other MS with proportions of female-operated farms above the EU average in 2010 were Greece, Italy, Austria, Portugal and Romania. The Netherlands had the lowest proportion of female-operated farms. MS with particularly low percentages in 2010 were Denmark 8.8% and Germany 8.9%. MS with between 10 and 20% of female-operated farms were Belgium, Czech Republic, Ireland, France, Malta, Slovakia, Sweden, Finland and UK.

A small number of MS had particularly high proportions of **corporate farms** compared to the EU figure of 2.4%: Slovakia – 9.3%, Belgium – 9.9%, Czech Republic – 13.5% and

France – 21.7%. Investigation of trends is revealing: in France, the proportion of farm holdings held by corporate entities of various kinds has grown from 6.4% in 1988 to 29.9% in 2010. The largest groups of these are GAECs – *Groupements Agricoles d'Exploitation en Commun*, which are usually **family farms** where ownership is shared by several family members rather than only by a 'principal farmer' – and EARLs, which are limited companies set up by farmers which may or may not be family-run. In the new MS, some very large farming companies resulted from the choices made during privatisation of former collective farms in the years prior to EU accession. In these cases, there has also been significant growth in the relative share of corporate farms, 2005-2010.

2.1.2. Farms with other gainful activities

A relationship is commonly hypothesised between women in farming and diversification in the sector. It may therefore be relevant to consider evidence concerning the extent of diversification of farms in different MS and how this relates to the proportions of male and female principal farmers. Figures for proportions of farms with 'Other Gainful Activities' (OGA) directly related to the holding are shown in table 2 for 2005, 2007 and 2010.

It can be noted that there has been, at the EU level, a significant decline in the share of farms with OGA over the period, although this is not evident in all MS. Figures vary notably between MS: in 2010, Denmark, Sweden and Austria had OGA figures in excess of 33% and in each case the share increased since 2005.

When considering MS level information by gender for the year 2010 (Table 3), there is considerable variability between countries, but in *all* instances, the proportion *within* MS of female-led farms with OGA is *lower* than the proportion of female-led farms within that MS. In contrast, for corporate farms in all but two instances (Malta; Slovenia) the proportion of farms with OGA is higher than the proportion of corporate farms within that MS, sometimes considerably so (Slovakia; Bulgaria; Hungary). This suggests that farms run by women are **less likely to be pluri-active** as measured by the OGA classification, while farms run by companies are more likely to be so, than the average.

2.1.3. Farm sizes as a proxy for Pillar 1 CAP aids

Since 2003, the process of decoupling of aids in the first pillar of the CAP has meant that progressively more aid to farms has been paid on the basis of a fixed payment per hectare of land farmed. Thus within each Member State, we can reasonably assume that farmers with larger farms (as measured in hectares) will tend to receive larger CAP direct payments. Furthermore, eligibility for CAP pillar 1 aids may be restricted to very small farms – this decision rests with MS. However, it is also the case that payment rates per hectare vary considerably between MS for historical and political reasons, so farms of a similar size in different countries are unlikely to receive similar levels of support.

The mean farm size in hectares across MS varies considerably, with Czech Republic having the largest mean total farm size. However, across the full range of countries, corporate farms typically have the largest mean size within any given MS, and **female operated farms the smallest** (Figure 2: note 'N/A' here means corporate farms).

These figures suggest it is highly likely that farms operated by women will receive **lower levels of CAP pillar 1 aid** than farms operated by men. However, the conclusion only holds in relation to the all-EU average, and in any specific MS taken on its own. It will not hold for male-operated farms in one MS compared to female-operated farms in a different MS, particularly if comparing women in a northern EU-15 MS, with men in a newer MS.

The exclusion from Pillar 1 aids of all farms below 1 hectare in many MS, and as much as 5 hectares in a few MS, may also disproportionately affect female-operated farms.

TABLE 2: proportion of farms with Other Gainful Activity, EU

	2005	2007	2010
Be	4.15	3.98	7.84
Bu	2.05	2.09	1.13
Cz	10.65	12.21	15.05
Dk	18.34	23.44	52.02
De	22.54	21.75	30.8
EE	6.77	8.27	13.51
Ir	4.42	5.14	9.21
Gr	1.69	1.48	1.45
Es	3.25	3.59	2.1
Fr	24.98	23.64	9.37
Cr	0	6.78	5.95
It	6.1	7.19	4.7
Cy	5.65	6.66	1
Lv	8.49	9.13	5
Lt	1	0.65	0.76
Lu	14.69	17.39	24.09
Hu	5.06	5.08	8.2
Mt	4.34	3.9	2.15
NL	22.49	18.45	24.56
Au	21.39	21.51	37.34
Pl	5.4	4.82	3.3
Pt	8.96	7.44	4.98
Ro	22.13	15.71	1.11
Sl	4.08	4.14	16.77
Sk	2.35	4.57	5.93
Fi	28.97	27.66	26.49
Sw	13.12	23.18	33.83
UK	23.97	24.38	17.53
EU	11.98	9.93	5.17

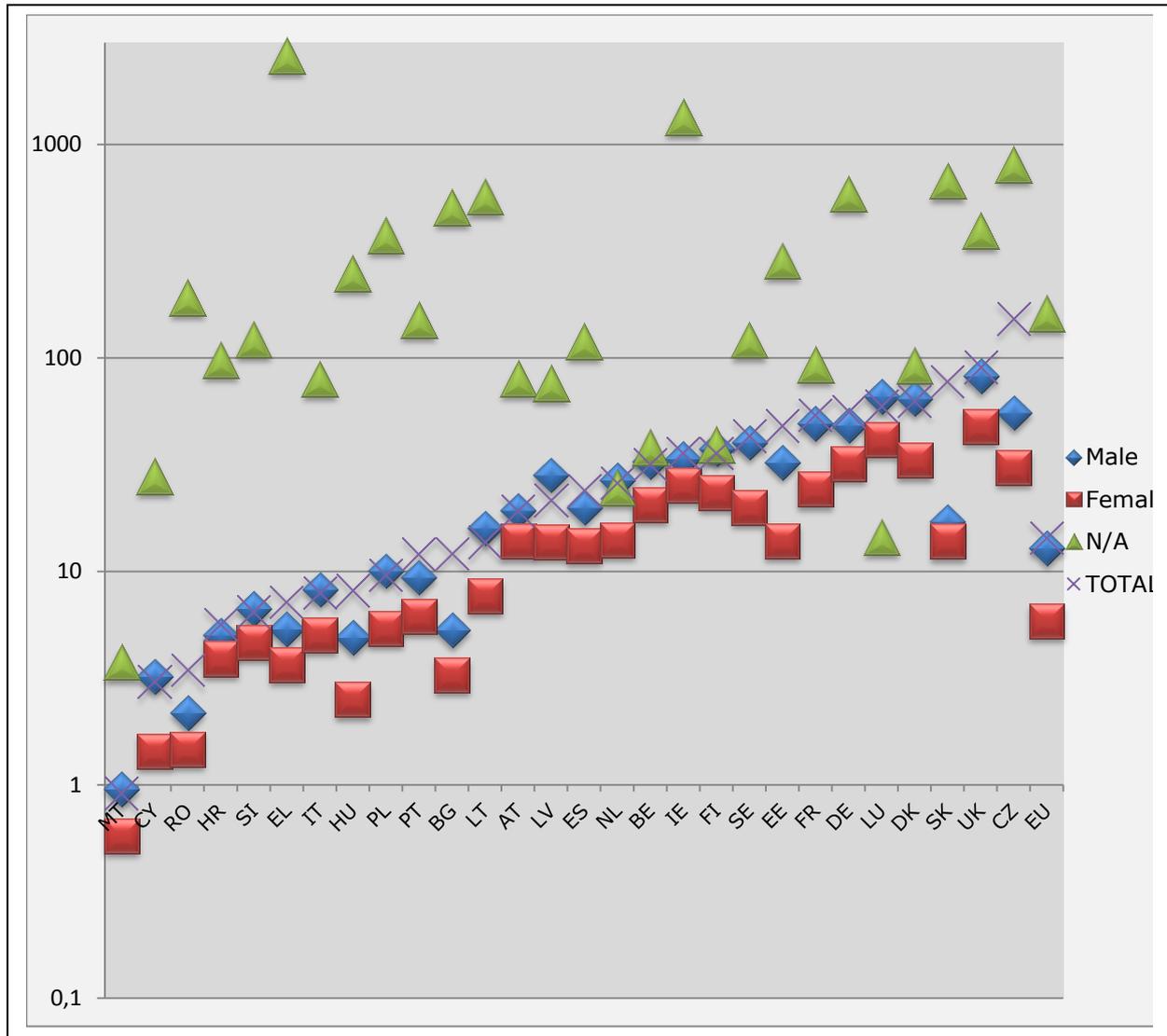
Source: Eurostat, 2015

TABLE 3: comparing gender balance of diversified farms and all farms, 2010

Farms with OGA - Sex of Holder 2010			Member State	Farm Population Composition by Sex of Holder 2010		
Male	Female	Corp.		Male	Female	Corp
74.1	8.3	17.3	BE	76.8	13.3	9.9
70.3	9.3	20.3	BG	76.0	22.5	1.5
57.0	7.6	35.8	CZ	72.4	14.1	13.5
87.4	7.9	4.7	DK	86.5	8.8	4.7
90.3	7.8	1.9	DE	89.4	8.9	1.7
52.8	15.8	31.3	EE	55.6	35.6	8.8
87.9	11.6	0.5	IE	87.4	12.4	0.2
80.4	19.6	0.0	EL	67.0	32.9	0.1
61.8	19.9	18.3	ES	65.3	28.6	6.1
55.1	15.6	29.3	FR	59.2	19.1	21.7
78.0	19.8	2.2	HR	76.1	23.0	0.9
72.9	21.8	5.3	IT	66.1	32.8	1.1
79.5	15.4	5.1	CY	72.5	26.3	1.2
71.2	28.5	0.2	LV	53.1	46.8	0.1
63.6	26.5	9.3	LT	51.2	48.4	0.3
79.2	18.9	1.9	LU	76.4	21.4	2.3
73.3	16.0	10.7	HU	72.4	26.0	1.6
92.6	11.1	0.0	MT	85.9	13.8	0.3
90.2	5.2	4.7	NL	88.7	5.5	5.8
70.4	25.8	3.8	AT	66.1	31.2	2.7
73.9	24.7	1.4	PL	68.5	31.3	0.3
63.8	28.2	8.0	PT	67.0	30.4	2.6
81.1	16.2	2.8	RO	66.9	32.3	0.8
80.2	19.8	0.0	SI	72.1	27.6	0.3
43.4	7.6	49.0	SK	74.8	15.9	9.3
89.2	8.7	2.2	FI	86.7	11.3	2.0
78.4	10.7	10.9	SE	78.4	14.3	7.4
85.3	9.6	5.1	UK	83.0	13.0	4.0
76.6	16.2	7.1	EU	68.4	29.2	2.4

Source: Eurostat, 2015

Figure 2. Farm sizes in Ha by gender, EU 2010 (logarithmic scale used, for clarity)



Source: Eurostat, 2015

2.2. Gender balance and farms receiving RD Support

Within the EU-level dataset, support received by 2010 for eleven different RDP measures is detailed, with varying levels of uptake across the EU. The eleven measures are:

Modernisation - Advisory services - Community standards - Food quality schemes - Animal welfare payments - Natura 2000 payments - Agri-environment payments - Agri-environment payments for organic farming - Adding value to products - Diversification into non-agricultural activities - Encouragement of tourism activities

Due to the low level of recorded uptake of some of these measures, 'Modernisation' and 'advisory services' were analysed separately, however 'Natura 2000' and both types of 'agri-environment payments' were combined to look at gendered data for these 'Environmental management' measures. Initially, 'Adding value', 'Diversification' and 'Tourism' were also combined to create an 'Other Capital Investment' category of funding, but then further analysis was made at the individual measure level to look for any

discernible differences between individual measures, bearing in mind the suggestion from the 2000-2006 ex-post RDP evaluation (Kantor, 2008), that tourism measures were particularly important for women in the previous programme period.

2.2.1. Overview

At the MS level in all instances for which there are figures, a **lower proportion of female-operated farms has benefited** from rural development measures than might be expected, given the proportion of female-led farms within each Member State as a whole. Conversely, for corporate farms, in all but five instances (Denmark; Ireland; Luxembourg; Austria; Finland) the proportion of these farms benefiting from RD funds is greater than their share of total farms within that MS, and for the five MS in parenthesis, the differences are no more than 0.5 of a percentage point. Table 4 presents the uptake for all measures combined, by MS, with most notable figures highlighted. Note that because RDP beneficiaries represent a small share of total population in many cases, small differences by gender may not be significant.

2.2.2. Modernisation measures

Farms operated by females are **considerably less likely to have benefited** from measures directed towards modernisation than would be expected, in 2010, based upon the proportion of female-led farms within the EU at that time. Although just under 30% of farms are operated by females, only 12.9% of those benefiting from modernisation measures were farms run by women. This difference is found also at the level of each individual MS, though Greece came close to supporting a representative proportion of female-led farms through modernisation aids. In contrast, corporate farms benefited disproportionately within this measure, accounting for 12.5% of all beneficiaries though they only accounted for 2.4% of all farms across the EU. The precise figures are given in the table in the annex.

2.2.3. Advisory Services

Although there was limited coverage across MS concerning data on the uptake of this measure, with eleven MS not recorded as utilising the funding, a similar picture to that of the Modernisation measure can be observed. The proportion of **female operated farms is relatively under-represented** within the farms benefiting from the measures. The difference between the population (at 29.2%) and those benefiting (which were 13.3%) is similar to that for Modernisation (at 12.9%).

In only one instance (Portugal) is there a higher percentage of female-led farms benefiting from support than there is of female-led farms as a whole, whilst the proportions are similar for both Greece and Denmark. **Corporate farms again benefit disproportionately.** Detailed figures are in the annex to this paper.

TABLE 4: Gender balance and RDP measure uptake, 2010, EU

Proportion of Farms Benefiting from RD by Sex of Holder			Member State	Farm Population Composition by Sex of Holder 2010		
Male	Female	Corp		Male	Female	Corp
N/A	N/A	N/A	BE	76.8	13.3	9.9
52.1	12.9	35.3	BG	76.0	22.5	1.5
66.7	13.2	20.1	CZ	72.4	14.1	13.5
87.7	7.9	4.4	DK	86.5	8.8	4.7
90.5	7.6	1.9	DE	89.4	8.9	1.7
54.4	29.9	15.7	EE	55.6	35.6	8.8
87.9	12.0	0.1	IE	87.4	12.4	0.2
70.3	29.6	0.2	EL	67.0	32.9	0.1
65.3	23.6	11.1	ES	65.3	28.6	6.1
62.6	11.8	25.6	FR	59.2	19.1	21.7
N/A	N/A	N/A	HR	76.1	23.0	0.9
73.0	24.4	2.6	IT	66.1	32.8	1.1
78.6	18.1	3.8	CY	72.5	26.3	1.2
58.5	41.2	0.3	LV	53.1	46.8	0.1
61.4	36.4	2.2	LT	51.2	48.4	0.3
77.6	20.8	1.6	LU	76.4	21.4	2.3
66.6	12.9	20.5	HU	72.4	26.0	1.6
90.2	8.8	1.0	MT	85.9	13.8	0.3
90.0	4.1	5.9	NL	88.7	5.5	5.8
66.9	30.9	2.2	AT	66.1	31.2	2.7
81.8	18.0	0.3	PL	68.5	31.3	0.3
57.3	36.7	6.0	PT	67.0	30.4	2.6
75.2	23.3	1.5	RO	66.9	32.3	0.8
76.8	22.9	0.3	SI	72.1	27.6	0.3
33.3	6.3	60.8	SK	74.8	15.9	9.3
87.8	10.6	1.6	FI	86.7	11.3	2.0
75.6	12.1	12.2	SE	78.4	14.3	7.4
87.9	9.0	3.1	UK	83.0	13.0	4.0
76.6	18.3	5.1	EU	68.4	29.2	2.4

Source: EC, 2015; Eurostat, 2015

2.2.4 Other Capital Investment aids

For an initial analysis, the three measures of adding value, diversification and tourism aids were combined. It should be noted that due to this combination of separate measures, the sum of proportions of farms benefiting may not equal 100% due to rounding. As with other measures, the **proportion of female operated farms benefiting from these measures is lower** than would be expected given the proportion of female operated farms within the EU. However, while MS values for female operated farms benefiting were lower than the proportion of these farms within many MS, they were larger for Ireland, Finland and Sweden, and the difference is small for Germany, Greece, Spain, Italy, and Slovakia. Corporate farms were particularly over-represented amongst farms benefiting – Table 5 presents the full breakdown, with the largest differences highlighted.

Adding Value is the most popular component of the other Capital Investment group of measures, with 0.1% (11,880) of farms within the EU taking advantage of the measure in 2010. Czech Republic 0.8% and Denmark 2.8% were the MS with highest proportional uptake. Many MS had uptakes <0.1% and many did not engage at all. In general, uptake by gender is somewhat similar to MS composition, but care should be taken as issues of rounding will have affected the values. Detailed figures are given in the annex.

Diversification is the second most popular component of these other capital Investment measures with 0.09% (11,060) of farms within the EU taking advantage of the measure in 2010. Czech Republic 0.9% and Denmark 2.1% were the MS with highest proportional uptake. Many MS had uptakes <0.1% and many did not engage at all. Uptake by women would appear to be somewhat lower than would be expected on the basis of overall gender balance among farmers, although due to rounding these figures should be treated with caution. Detailed figures are given in the annex.

Tourism was the lowest-recorded uptake component of the other capital investment measures with only 0.05% (5,710) of farms within the EU taking advantage of the measure. United Kingdom, 2.1%; Czech Republic 0.5% and Ireland 0.4% were the MS with highest proportional uptake. The United Kingdom accounted for nearly 70% of the total EU recorded uptake of this measure. Many MS had uptakes <0.1% and many did not engage at all. Though the average EU uptake rates suggest lower proportionate uptake by women this is merely reflecting the UK situation, due to its dominance of the overall data; while shares in other MS vary widely by gender. Due to small sample size, all figures should be treated with caution - details are given in the annex.

2.2.5 Environmental management support

This category of funding was created by combining Natura 2000 payments, agri-environment payments and agri-environment payments for organic farms, as the uptake figures for these individual measures were small in some MS. Due to this, the sum of proportions of farms benefiting may not total 100%, due to rounding. As with modernisation and advisory services, the **proportion of female-operated farms benefiting from Environmental measures is lower** than the share of female-operated farms as a whole but the implied 'gender gap' is smaller, with 19% females benefiting from this type of funding whereas their population share is 29% (the gap is similar to that for other capital investments taken as a whole). Again, corporate farms benefit relatively more. However, figures for Greece, Denmark, Ireland and Germany are broadly in line with the MS shares for different gender categories. Table 6 gives the data by MS.

TABLE 5: gender balance and uptake of other capital investment items (diversification, adding value, tourism), EU 2010

Proportion of Farms			Member State	Farm Population Composition by		
Male	Female	Corp		Male	Female	Corp
N/A	N/A	N/A	BE	76.8	13.3	9.9
14.3	0.0	78.6	BG	76.0	22.5	1.5
35.3	5.9	56.9	CZ	72.4	14.1	13.5
89.3	6.3	4.4	DK	86.5	8.8	4.7
79.6	8.2	12.2	DE	89.4	8.9	1.7
42.9	14.3	42.9	EE	55.6	35.6	8.8
83.9	14.3	0.0	IE	87.4	12.4	0.2
68.2	30.9	0.0	EL	67.0	32.9	0.1
64.1	27.2	8.1	ES	65.3	28.6	6.1
50.0	11.5	30.8	FR	59.2	19.1	21.7
N/A	N/A	N/A	HR	76.1	23.0	0.9
64.7	29.6	5.7	IT	66.1	32.8	1.1
0.0	0.0	0.0	CY	72.5	26.3	1.2
66.7	16.7	0.0	LV	53.1	46.8	0.1
50.0	16.7	16.7	LT	51.2	48.4	0.3
N/A	N/A	N/A	LU	76.4	21.4	2.3
20.0	10.0	65.0	HU	72.4	26.0	1.6
N/A	N/A	N/A	MT	85.9	13.8	0.3
100.0	0.0	0.0	NL	88.7	5.5	5.8
71.6	24.7	2.5	AT	66.1	31.2	2.7
84.7	15.3	0.0	PL	68.5	31.3	0.3
70.1	20.9	10.4	PT	67.0	30.4	2.6
67.4	23.3	14.0	RO	66.9	32.3	0.8
81.8	22.7	0.0	SI	72.1	27.6	0.3
14.3	14.3	57.1	SK	74.8	15.9	9.3
83.3	13.9	2.8	FI	86.7	11.3	2.0
63.9	14.8	23.0	SE	78.4	14.3	7.4
87.1	8.3	4.8	UK	83.0	13.0	4.0
73.5	18.9	7.3	EU	68.4	29.2	2.4

Source: EC, 2015

TABLE 6: gender balance and uptake of environmental measures in RDPs

Proportion of Farms Benefiting from Environmental Measures by Sex of Holder			Member State	Farm Population Composition by Sex of Holder 2010		
Male	Female	N/A		Male	Female	N/A
N/A	N/A	N/A	BE	76.8	13.3	9.9
64.2	19.2	15.8	BG	76.0	22.5	1.5
65.9	14.3	19.9	CZ	72.4	14.1	13.5
83.8	11.0	5.2	DK	86.5	8.8	4.7
90.1	7.9	1.9	DE	89.4	8.9	1.7
54.3	29.3	16.4	EE	55.6	35.6	8.8
87.7	12.2	0.1	IE	87.4	12.4	0.2
64.9	35.0	0.2	EL	67.0	32.9	0.1
66.3	24.4	9.2	ES	65.3	28.6	6.1
63.5	12.9	23.6	FR	59.2	19.1	21.7
N/A	N/A	N/A	HR	76.1	23.0	0.9
71.2	26.2	2.6	IT	66.1	32.8	1.1
80.4	19.0	0.7	CY	72.5	26.3	1.2
57.7	42.0	0.4	LV	53.1	46.8	0.1
60.2	37.8	2.0	LT	51.2	48.4	0.3
77.7	20.9	1.4	LU	76.4	21.4	2.3
67.9	13.6	18.5	HU	72.4	26.0	1.6
90.2	9.3	0.5	MT	85.9	13.8	0.3
88.2	5.9	5.9	NL	88.7	5.5	5.8
67.1	30.8	2.0	AT	66.1	31.2	2.7
79.3	20.4	0.3	PL	68.5	31.3	0.3
56.4	37.2	6.4	PT	67.0	30.4	2.6
75.6	23.5	0.9	RO	66.9	32.3	0.8
77.8	21.8	0.5	SI	72.1	27.6	0.3
35.1	6.8	56.8	SK	74.8	15.9	9.3
87.7	10.9	1.5	FI	86.7	11.3	2.0
77.0	13.7	9.2	SE	78.4	14.3	7.4
87.9	9.0	3.1	UK	83.0	13.0	4.0
76.3	19.2	4.4	EU	68.4	29.2	2.4

Source: EC, 2015; Eurostat, 2015

2.2.6 Summary of RDP uptake patterns by gender

The data suggest that for the EU as a whole, female-operated farms are comparatively under-represented among beneficiaries of RDP aids, while corporate farms are over-represented. The implied 'gender gap' may be larger for farm modernisation and advice than for other capital investments and environmental management aids; and the gap is less apparent for some individual measures but this could merely be a consequence of small sample size. However, the picture is variable: gaps are modest or negligible for a small group of MS, in several cases, but very large for others.

Considering the differential uptake of RD aids by gender, it is possible that the figures arise not simply because female-led farms are less likely than male-led farms and considerably less likely than corporate farms, to receive aid, *ceteris paribus*; but that the difference is a by-product of the differential nature of farms led by men, women and corporate bodies, in respect of farm size or of the situation of the principal farmer as indicated by their age or levels of education. For instance, **if women are more likely to lead farms which are less able to qualify or less targeted by RDP funding by virtue of their farm characteristics or the characteristics of the principal farmer, then this could explain why the apparent gendered pattern of uptake is found.** The data is therefore further analysed, to examine the extent to which this seems to be the case.

2.3. Influences upon gender imbalance in RDP uptake

2.3.1. Farm size as an influence upon gendered uptake of RDP aids

As examined earlier, it is clear that male-operated and corporate farms tend to be significantly larger in scale, as measured by hectares of land, than female-operated farms. This suggests that female-led farms will be smaller businesses. Data on RDP beneficiaries analysed by farm size in hectares indicates that **beneficiaries manage larger farms, on average, than non-beneficiaries**, in most MS. Studies have suggested that larger businesses are more readily able to fulfil the eligibility criteria for some aids (e.g. being able to raise co-financing for investment aids, or being large enough not to be excluded from aid on grounds of their very small scale – see Davidova et al, 2012). Thus the gender difference in respect of RDP uptake for various measures could be the **indirect result of unequal farm sizes**, between male-led and female-led farms.

2.3.2. Farm output, productivity per hectare and farmer training influences

What is noticeable regarding the information on farm scale as measured by business output (see table in the annex) is that output value per holding is particularly low for farms operated by females, compared to all farms. However, when considering output per hectare, it is apparent that in many cases, female operated farms are more productive than male operated or corporate farms and overall for the EU, productivity measures for male, female and corporate farms are similar. This highlights the influence of small farm scale upon the generally lower standard output value of female-operated farms.

Another potential reason for differential uptake of RDP measures could be in the level of education of farmers – it may be that farmers with a **lower level of education** are less likely to access RDP funding. If there is gender imbalance in this respect, it could help explain differentials in uptake.

Levels of education among EU farmers are relatively low. The majority of farm managers (70.9%) across the EU have only practical experience, with a further 22.2% only possessing basic training. **Just 6.9% of farmers have received full agricultural training.** These figures however vary immensely between individual MS (See table in the annex). In general, the training levels of male farm managers are broadly similar to those of farmers as a whole, but training levels among Female farm managers diverge much further from the total MS figures. Whilst there are generally lower levels of female managers with basic training, there are also lower levels with full agricultural training, meaning that a higher proportion of female managers have practical experience only. What is also particularly noticeable is **greater variability between MS**, in respect of women. The Netherlands for example have 20.8% of females with basic training, compared to 64.6% for the figure for all farmers in the NL. Finland is the only MS where full training levels are higher among females than the MS level. The data thus suggests that another contributory factor to women farmers' generally lower level of receipts of RDP aid could be related to their lower level of formal agricultural training than male or corporate farm counterparts.

2.3.3. The influence of age

A final potential contributory factor to differential RDP uptake by gender could be age, if it is the case that generally, aid is more targeted to, or accessible to, younger farmers. The figures for age profile in farming (see annex) show that in general, the **farming population is elderly**, with over 50% of farmers aged 55 years or more. Just over 75% of the EU farming population is aged 45 or more, and only 7% of the EU farming population is under 35 years. It should be noted that corporate farms classified as 'not applicable' according to gender, are excluded from these shares, as they are also not classified regarding age. Some countries have a significant proportion of such holdings (France; Czech Republic).

Considering the proportion of farms, based upon age, that have benefited from rural development support, younger farm holders appear more likely to benefit. Although 7.3% of holders are aged under 35, they account for 9.9% of benefiting holdings. This trend continues for the 35-44 (16.1% proportion; 21.1% benefiting) and 45-54 (22.1% proportion; 30.1% benefiting) age groups. The over 64 age groups account for 31% of the farming population, but only 15% of those benefiting from RDP aids. Again, some figures are contrary to the general trend, although in these instances (for example Romania, Portugal, Cyprus) the RDP beneficiary figures match the composition of the farming population as a whole.

Considering the composition of holdings operated by females within MS based upon age (see annex), the figures show that females operating farms are older than farmer operators as a whole, at EU level. Again there are exceptions, and some MS have particularly high or low proportions of young or old female farmers. Nevertheless, this would indicate that women farmers are less well-represented in the age cohorts which appear most likely to benefit from RDP aids, and the available uptake data supports this.

Taken as a whole, the figures suggest strongly that the apparent gender imbalance in RDP uptake across the EU can be explained largely by the unequal status of females in agriculture, rather than by any explicit gender bias in the RDP measures themselves (a potential for indirect discrimination, rather than direct discrimination, particularly if measure design and delivery are not explicitly targeted). Nevertheless, it seems clear that at an aggregate level, females operating farms are much

less likely to be supported by EU rural development funding than male farmers, in most MS, and in respect of most types of RDP aids for which collated data is available.

3. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

KEY FINDINGS

- From the data analysis it can be concluded that, at the level of farm management, women receive proportionately less support from both pillars of the CAP than men. This is largely because **women manage smaller farm businesses, have less land and lower levels of formal education, and tend to be older**, than their male counterparts. However, the pattern is less evident in some MS, notably Denmark, Finland and Greece, where indicators suggest that female-led farms have a more equal status. For corporate farms, for which management is not gender-transparent, access to CAP aids generally appears better than for either male or female-led farms, in most MS.
- There appears to be some correlation between those MS identified in the literature review as making **specific efforts** to address gender imbalances in agriculture, and those MS in which women appear to have **more equal access** to CAP pillar 2 funding. This suggests that positive action on both fronts is possible.
- The European Union has a stated commitment to encouraging the use of CAP instruments and measures to promote so-called 'cross-cutting' EU goals including gender equality. In principle, the general aids of Pillar 1 of CAP should be designed to be gender-neutral. However, within the second pillar of CAP – the rural development policy – there is considerable scope to **use aids specifically to tackle and overcome gender bias**. Whilst evidence on this topic is limited, it appears that in combination with wider policy frameworks promoting gender equality, the tools of RDPs could be very important mechanisms to encourage, promote and support the vital roles of rural women in Europe.
- It is recommended that the Council sponsors specific initiatives through the ENRD to promote more **positive targeting of transformative RDP aids** towards rural women, and that steps are taken in implementing rules and guidance to avoid both indirect discrimination and untargeted CAP measure design and delivery, leading to low additionality and compounding gender bias in agriculture.

3.1. Data analysis conclusions

From the data analysis it can be concluded that, at least at the level of farm leadership or management, women receive proportionately **less support from both pillars of the CAP** than men do. In large part, this is because women tend to manage smaller farm businesses, have less land and lower levels of formal education, and tend to be older, than their male counterparts. However, data indicate that this general pattern is less evident in a few MS, notably Denmark, Portugal and Greece where indicators suggest that female-led farms have a more equal status to male-led farms. Finally, for corporate farms, for which the management and leadership of farm businesses is non gender-transparent, access to CAP aids generally appears much better than for either male or female-led farms, in most MS.

These findings tend to support several of the conclusions and observations in the literature reviewed in part 1 of this paper. Most notably, they suggest that it is basic inequality in women's status in respect of farming and farm ownership or management that is reflected in relatively lower levels of RDP and CAP Pillar 1 receipts, rather than deliberate gender

bias in those support measures themselves. Nonetheless, the result is that the measures apparently do little to positively promote increased status or capacity among women who manage farms, relative to males, and thus gender imbalance persists, and may even be compounded by the policy.

It should be noted that this analysis has only been able to distinguish gendered data in respect of formal farm management/operation, rather than in respect of male and female roles within farming families. In a family farming situation, typically only one farmer – usually the male – is recorded as the principal operator but several family members may work on the farm and share the benefits. Also, the data is not able to analyse the roles of women within the corporate farming sector. Thus it cannot be assumed that women in agriculture as a whole receive lower levels of support from the CAP than men do.

The analysis is also unable fully to test or shed more light on some patterns reported elsewhere, such as the statement that in some MS, women tend more often to be the members of a farming family that manage certain forms of diversification or adding value – for example, women leading in agro-tourism in Italy and Greece. This is because if the data records only the gender of the principal farmer for a holding which is in receipt of RDP aid, this may not be the same family member that actually leads in the development of the diversified enterprise for which the aid is intended.

3.2. Additional insights from experts

Correspondence with experts in different MS suggests some important elements of variation in respect of how RDP measures and other policies have been used to promote **increased recognition for women's role in agriculture and rural development**. In Greece, as well as the already-mentioned example of women's cooperatives, women are often involved in LEADER projects, also the CAP RDP Young Farmer's Scheme, which tends to be attractive for young women, and another initiative of allocating public land to young farmers, where women were notable among the beneficiaries. In the UK, women are known often to be critical to farm business survival through their off-farm work as well as through various types of diversification such as tourist accommodation, and some RDP initiatives have specifically supported women's groups in these endeavours. In Romania, gender roles in agriculture are known to be relatively traditional but valuable links between women and rural craft businesses and LEADER funding have been made. In France, a recent sociological review (Hervieu and Purseigle, 2015) notes a growing trend for women to take on the head of farm role, alongside a trend towards increasingly pluriactive farm business models. This is encouraged by RDP measures increasingly designed and delivered at a local level within the French regions, which allows for some targeting towards specific groups in rural society. These contemporary examples echo the discussion by Seuneke and Bock summarised in part 1 of this paper.

Moving from a stock-take of the status quo to a consideration of the scope for the CAP to promote gender mainstreaming, the data would suggest that **very little of this potential has yet been realised**. Whilst opportunities to actively promote increased status or to reward the valuable roles of women in farming and rural areas are likely to be more limited under Pillar 1 of the CAP, there is clearly considerable scope for this to occur through targeting, design and delivery approaches within RDPs.

3.3. The potential for CAP funding to promote women's role and educe gender bias in agriculture and rural development

The role of CAP policy in supporting or promoting rural women per se is rarely analysed in depth. However, the European Commission has a stated commitment to encouraging the use of CAP instruments and measures to promote so-called 'cross-cutting' EU goals including gender equality. In principle, the general aids of **Pillar 1 of CAP**; including decoupled direct payments for most farmed land as well as support for producer organisations and various development plans in the fruit and vegetable, olive oil and wine regimes, should be largely gender-neutral as they are generally available to all holders of rural land and/or all relevant producers of the specified outputs. However, it is within the **second pillar of CAP** – the rural development policy – that most scope to use aids specifically to tackle and overcome gender bias exists.

Measures for knowledge transfer, advice and training and co-operation can be used to **build capacity among rural or farming women** to plan ahead and perhaps to collaborate to improve their returns from the market. Investment aids for various kinds of farm diversification, including tourism, can offer women in agricultural households the chance to identify and develop new business opportunities. Support for specific new or less orthodox forms of production, notably including organic farming, may offer women farm entrepreneurs a chance to move into areas where institutional structures and norms are less established and thus more open to gender equality or even feminine predominance.

In a recent econometric analysis of some of these issues in respect of rural women in Italy, Tocco et al (2015) concluded the following:

'it would seem necessary to reflect on the provision of services in rural areas, especially under three main directions: childcare, specific education and training, and credit. Childcare facilities and better infrastructure would reduce the time devoted to domestic and household related duties, leading to a more active engagement of women in the labour market. Specific agricultural education and training would enhance women's skills and their competitiveness in agriculture. In particular, entrepreneurial and managerial skills would support women in running the farm business and performing at decision-making positions. Last but not least, the socio-economic status of women can be improved through better access to credit.'

The accumulated evidence suggests that, as yet, few MS or regions have really taken opportunities to use measures or delivery approaches to give particular prominence to, or promotion of, the needs of women within agriculture and rural areas and their potential to support sustainable rural development across the EU.

However, the evidence also indicates that in those few cases where by design, positive gender-bias in favour of women has been applied to CAP policies and measures, it has resulted in a **more gender-neutral outcome** which is more fully in the spirit of gender mainstreaming. A handful of MS and regions appear to have led in this respect; including Finland, Greece, Denmark, some parts of Germany, Spain and Italy, and some regions of the UK. In other MS and notably some new MS, significant shifts in gender balance and status are occurring as a result of wider socio-economic changes in these countries and these may in turn lead to more gender-balanced or gender-neutral outcomes for rural areas and sustainable rural development.

Looking ahead, there is still a great deal more that could usefully be done, to live up to the commitment to gender mainstreaming in EU policies and practice, in the case of agriculture

and rural development. In respect of research, there are considerable gaps in our understanding of the potential for rural women to come together to exploit more effectively the opportunities offered by RDPs and the tailored elements of Pillar 1 support. However, by analogy with other work on increasing disadvantaged groups' access to funding resources, it can be expected that **skilled facilitation, group formation** for specific problem-solving or new business challenges, and approaches which increase women's **access to credit and other rural services**, will improve the wider impacts of these programmes upon rural women and their roles and status, in particular. Thinking more broadly, there is scope for more work to consider and promote wider policy changes such as in **taxation and inheritance systems** in different MS, with a view to creating a more positive climate in which women **feel more empowered** to develop their roles in rural business and entrepreneurial activities.

From the few examples gathered in the review in part 1, it seems that where countries have taken the challenge of gender equality seriously in rural as well as urban contexts, then real progress has been made in increasing the economic value and status of rural women, acknowledging their contribution to rural society, economy and environment. This has been achieved through **a shift in general policies as well as positive discrimination**, or at least differential targeting and promotion, in respect of particularly useful CAP Pillar 2 measures for skills acquisition and business diversification and development, as well as community action at the local level. In all these ways, the evidence from the most enlightened MS demonstrates the **significant potential of rural women** to make a more explicit and valued contribution to sustainable rural development, in future.

As recommendations from this analysis, the following are tentatively suggested:

- **that the Council sponsors specific initiatives** through the European Network for Rural Development to promote more positive targeting of transformative RDP aids towards rural women, particularly in MS with no previous experience of these approaches;
- that steps are taken within the Pillar 1 and RDP implementing rules and guidance to **avoid both indirect discrimination and untargeted CAP measure design and delivery** leading to low additionality and compounding gender bias in agriculture. This might, for example, include a requirement to gender-proof the eligibility criteria for aids and to consult specifically with women's groups or women representatives among sector and stakeholder groups, when designing CAP measures and delivery arrangements;
- that **broader policy initiatives** are needed to promote greater gender equity in respect of the underlying processes of farm and business management and control, in many MS.

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ANNEX

Tables for individual RDP measure uptake by gender, 2010

Proportion of Farms Benefiting from Modernization by Sex of Holder			Member State	Farm Population Composition by Sex of Holder 2010		
Male	Female	N/A		Male	Female	N/A
N/A	N/A	N/A	BE	76.8	13.3	9.9
46.2	9.5	44.7	BG	76.0	22.5	1.5
36.1	5.6	58.3	CZ	72.4	14.1	13.5
93.3	2.9	3.8	DK	86.5	8.8	4.7
88.3	3.6	8.1	DE	89.4	8.9	1.7
59.3	11.9	28.1	EE	55.6	35.6	8.8
90.9	8.9	0.1	IE	87.4	12.4	0.2
70.5	29.2	0.3	EL	67.0	32.9	0.1
63.2	15.2	21.5	ES	65.3	28.6	6.1
60.9	6.6	32.5	FR	59.2	19.1	21.7
N/A	N/A	N/A	HR	76.1	23.0	0.9
75.5	20.2	4.2	IT	66.1	32.8	1.1
75.0	10.7	14.3	CY	72.5	26.3	1.2
73.5	26.5	0.0	LV	53.1	46.8	0.1
74.6	17.7	7.8	LT	51.2	48.4	0.3
84.5	15.5	1.0	LU	76.4	21.4	2.3
48.4	6.5	45.3	HU	72.4	26.0	1.6
94.1	5.9	5.9	MT	85.9	13.8	0.3
96.2	0.0	3.8	NL	88.7	5.5	5.8
73.1	25.7	1.2	AT	66.1	31.2	2.7
89.7	9.8	0.5	PL	68.5	31.3	0.3
58.8	17.6	23.5	PT	67.0	30.4	2.6
50.4	12.4	37.2	RO	66.9	32.3	0.8
83.8	13.2	2.9	SI	72.1	27.6	0.3
18.1	3.2	79.8	SK	74.8	15.9	9.3
85.4	7.7	6.9	FI	86.7	11.3	2.0
72.4	6.2	21.4	SE	78.4	14.3	7.4
91.2	4.7	3.4	UK	83.0	13.0	4.0
74.6	12.9	12.5	EU	68.4	29.2	2.4

ADVISORY SERVICES						
Proportion of Farms Benefiting from Advisory Services by Sex of Holder			Member State	Farm Population Composition by Sex of Holder 2010		
Male	Female	N/A		Male	Female	N/A
N/A	N/A	N/A	BE	76.8	13.3	9.9
N/A	N/A	N/A	BG	76.0	22.5	1.5
50.0	7.5	42.5	CZ	72.4	14.1	13.5
87.9	7.7	4.4	DK	86.5	8.8	4.7
92.4	4.1	3.5	DE	89.4	8.9	1.7
56.7	13.4	29.9	EE	55.6	35.6	8.8
N/A	N/A	N/A	IE	87.4	12.4	0.2
69.5	30.2	0.3	EL	67.0	32.9	0.1
69.7	19.6	10.8	ES	65.3	28.6	6.1
N/A	N/A	N/A	FR	59.2	19.1	21.7
N/A	N/A	N/A	HR	76.1	23.0	0.9
70.7	25.1	4.3	IT	66.1	32.8	1.1
N/A	N/A	N/A	CY	72.5	26.3	1.2
N/A	N/A	N/A	LV	53.1	46.8	0.1
79.1	20.3	0.6	LT	51.2	48.4	0.3
N/A	N/A	N/A	LU	76.4	21.4	2.3
64.1	11.2	24.8	HU	72.4	26.0	1.6
N/A	N/A	N/A	MT	85.9	13.8	0.3
92.5	3.2	3.2	NL	88.7	5.5	5.8
N/A	N/A	N/A	AT	66.1	31.2	2.7
88.9	10.6	0.5	PL	68.5	31.3	0.3
52.8	41.7	5.6	PT	67.0	30.4	2.6
N/A	N/A	N/A	RO	66.9	32.3	0.8
83.7	13.5	2.9	SI	72.1	27.6	0.3
16.3	4.7	79.1	SK	74.8	15.9	9.3
90.1	8.6	1.3	FI	86.7	11.3	2.0
0.0	0.0	100.0	SE	78.4	14.3	7.4
92.2	7.8	1.0	UK	83.0	13.0	4.0
79.3	13.3	7.4	EU	68.4	29.2	2.4

ADDING VALUE						
Proportion of Farms Benefiting from Adding Value by Sex of Holder			Member State	Farm Population Composition by Sex of Holder 2010		
Male	Female	N/A		Male	Female	N/A
N/A	N/A	N/A	BE	76.8	13.3	9.9
0.0	0.0	100.0	BG	76.0	22.5	1.5
44.4	5.6	50.0	CZ	72.4	14.1	13.5
94.0	3.4	2.6	DK	86.5	8.8	4.7
100.0	0.0	0.0	DE	89.4	8.9	1.7
0.0	0.0	0.0	EE	55.6	35.6	8.8
N/A	N/A	N/A	IE	87.4	12.4	0.2
67.5	31.3	0.0	EL	67.0	32.9	0.1
64.0	27.3	8.3	ES	65.3	28.6	6.1
50.0	0.0	25.0	FR	59.2	19.1	21.7
N/A	N/A	N/A	HR	76.1	23.0	0.9
66.2	29.5	4.3	IT	66.1	32.8	1.1
0.0	0.0	0.0	CY	72.5	26.3	1.2
N/A	N/A	N/A	LV	53.1	46.8	0.1
0.0	0.0	100.0	LT	51.2	48.4	0.3
N/A	N/A	N/A	LU	76.4	21.4	2.3
8.3	8.3	83.3	HU	72.4	26.0	1.6
N/A	N/A	N/A	MT	85.9	13.8	0.3
N/A	N/A	N/A	NL	88.7	5.5	5.8
76.9	15.4	7.7	AT	66.1	31.2	2.7
83.3	16.7	0.0	PL	68.5	31.3	0.3
70.8	21.5	7.7	PT	67.0	30.4	2.6
57.9	26.3	15.8	RO	66.9	32.3	0.8
N/A	N/A	N/A	SI	72.1	27.6	0.3
0.0	0.0	75.0	SK	74.8	15.9	9.3
100.0	0.0	0.0	FI	86.7	11.3	2.0
60.0	10.0	30.0	SE	78.4	14.3	7.4
90.0	10.0	0.0	UK	83.0	13.0	4.0
67.5	24.1	7.9	EU	68.4	29.2	2.4

DIVERSIFICATION						
Proportion of Farms Benefiting from Diversification by Sex of Holder			Member State	Farm Population Composition by Sex of Holder 2010		
Male	Female	N/A		Male	Female	N/A
N/A	N/A	N/A	BE	76.8	13.3	9.9
22.2	0.0	66.7	BG	76.0	22.5	1.5
23.8	0.0	76.2	CZ	72.4	14.1	13.5
83.0	10.2	6.8	DK	86.5	8.8	4.7
80.6	8.6	11.8	DE	89.4	8.9	1.7
50.0	12.5	50.0	EE	55.6	35.6	8.8
85.7	12.5	0.0	IE	87.4	12.4	0.2
68.4	31.6	0.0	EL	67.0	32.9	0.1
60.0	20.0	0.0	ES	65.3	28.6	6.1
52.4	14.3	33.3	FR	59.2	19.1	21.7
N/A	N/A	N/A	HR	76.1	23.0	0.9
61.8	30.6	7.6	IT	66.1	32.8	1.1
N/A	N/A	N/A	CY	72.5	26.3	1.2
75.0	25.0	0.0	LV	53.1	46.8	0.1
0.0	0.0	0.0	LT	51.2	48.4	0.3
N/A	N/A	N/A	LU	76.4	21.4	2.3
N/A	N/A	N/A	HU	72.4	26.0	1.6
N/A	N/A	N/A	MT	85.9	13.8	0.3
N/A	N/A	N/A	NL	88.7	5.5	5.8
69.8	30.2	0.0	AT	66.1	31.2	2.7
84.8	15.2	0.0	PL	68.5	31.3	0.3
0.0	0.0	100.0	PT	67.0	30.4	2.6
77.8	16.7	11.1	RO	66.9	32.3	0.8
85.7	21.4	0.0	SI	72.1	27.6	0.3
0.0	0.0	100.0	SK	74.8	15.9	9.3
82.9	14.3	2.9	FI	86.7	11.3	2.0
69.7	15.2	18.2	SE	78.4	14.3	7.4
83.3	11.1	5.6	UK	83.0	13.0	4.0
76.5	16.8	6.8	EU	68.4	29.2	2.4

TOURISM						
Proportion of Farms Benefiting from Tourism by Sex of Holder			Member State	Farm Population Composition by Sex of Holder 2010		
Male	Female	N/A		Male	Female	N/A
N/A	N/A	N/A	BE	76.8	13.3	9.9
N/A	N/A	N/A	BG	76.0	22.5	1.5
41.7	16.7	33.3	CZ	72.4	14.1	13.5
N/A	N/A	N/A	DK	86.5	8.8	4.7
50.0	0.0	25.0	DE	89.4	8.9	1.7
40.0	20.0	40.0	EE	55.6	35.6	8.8
82.1	16.1	0.0	IE	87.4	12.4	0.2
75.0	25.0	0.0	EL	67.0	32.9	0.1
75.0	25.0	0.0	ES	65.3	28.6	6.1
0.0	0.0	0.0	FR	59.2	19.1	21.7
N/A	N/A	N/A	HR	76.1	23.0	0.9
58.8	27.5	13.7	IT	66.1	32.8	1.1
N/A	N/A	N/A	CY	72.5	26.3	1.2
50.0	0.0	0.0	LV	53.1	46.8	0.1
75.0	25.0	0.0	LT	51.2	48.4	0.3
N/A	N/A	N/A	LU	76.4	21.4	2.3
37.5	12.5	37.5	HU	72.4	26.0	1.6
N/A	N/A	N/A	MT	85.9	13.8	0.3
100.0	0.0	0.0	NL	88.7	5.5	5.8
50.0	0.0	0.0	AT	66.1	31.2	2.7
N/A	N/A	N/A	PL	68.5	31.3	0.3
100.0	0.0	100.0	PT	67.0	30.4	2.6
66.7	33.3	16.7	RO	66.9	32.3	0.8
75.0	25.0	0.0	SI	72.1	27.6	0.3
50.0	50.0	0.0	SK	74.8	15.9	9.3
N/A	N/A	N/A	FI	86.7	11.3	2.0
50.0	25.0	25.0	SE	78.4	14.3	7.4
87.4	8.0	4.9	UK	83.0	13.0	4.0
80.2	12.1	7.0	EU	68.4	29.2	2.4

Other relevant data

Table: Training levels

TRAINING LEVELS OF FARM MANAGER – FEMALE ONLY			Member State	TRAINING LEVELS OF FARM MANAGER – ALL		
Basic Training only	Practical Experience only	Full Agricultural Training		Basic Training only	Practical Experience only	Full Agricultural Training
14.6	76.0	9.3	BE	21.4	52.2	26.4
1.4	97.9	0.7	BG	2.6	96.6	0.8
12.5	57.7	29.9	CZ	19.6	43.4	37.1
16.2	79.0	5.0	DK	43.6	51.5	5.0
37.0	51.1	12.0	DE	55.2	31.4	13.3
8.4	73.1	18.4	EE	14.0	63.5	22.5
14.4	75.6	9.9	IE	15.1	69.0	15.9
2.2	97.6	0.2	EL	3.2	96.5	0.3
9.5	89.8	0.7	ES	13.8	84.7	1.5
13.4	77.4	9.2	FR	28.7	49.7	21.6
1.6	96.9	1.5	HR	2.8	95.0	2.2
92.1	6.4	1.5	IT	90.8	5.0	4.2
2.5	97.4	0.1	CY	5.3	94.3	0.4
11.7	68.8	19.6	LV	12.4	61.5	26.1
11.7	79.7	8.6	LT	17.5	70.0	12.5
8.6	68.6	22.9	LU	14.5	39.5	45.9
4.7	93.9	1.4	HU	11.3	85.4	3.3
7.2	92.1	0.7	MT	8.5	90.2	1.4
20.8	73.8	5.4	NL	64.6	28.8	6.6
21.4	65.1	13.5	AT	22.4	52.0	25.6
16.1	65.9	18.0	PL	21.3	54.1	24.6
8.8	90.6	0.6	PT	10.4	88.0	1.6
0.9	98.9	0.2	RO	2.1	97.5	0.4
15.4	78.3	6.3	SI	26.7	64.4	8.9
11.0	83.9	5.0	SK	15.0	76.2	8.8
26.9	61.5	11.7	FI	34.8	56.0	9.2
5.8	80.5	13.7	SE	12.1	69.1	18.8
6.4	87.1	6.5	UK	10.4	77.3	12.3
18.9	76.9	4.2	EU	22.2	70.9	6.9

Table – farm output and productivity by gender, EU 2010

Standard Output (Euro) per Holding				Member State	2010 - Standard Output (Euro) per Hectare			
Male	Female	Corp.	MS Ave.		Male	Female	Corp.	MS Ave.
161,463	88,535	335,945	169,143	BE	4,923	4,305	8,838	5,337
4,214	3,107	202,677	6,847	BG	796	951	402	567
45,533	23,544	981,289	168,513	CZ	824	768	1,224	1,106
194,407	91,291	512,513	200,257	DK	3,021	2,759	5,588	3,185
127,342	79,425	1,052,39	138,716	DE	2,641	2,482	1,802	2,484
14,078	6,787	227,606	30,320	EE	434	488	803	632
31,813	16,338	382,991	30,722	IE	945	648	287	861
10,540	6,014	508,590	9,505	EL	1,964	1,653	196	1,327
26,235	16,318	209,518	34,525	ES	1,318	1,237	1,763	1,439
75,148	39,311	213,363	98,301	FR	1,523	1,622	2,304	1,822
7,605	6,044	199,521	9,065	HR	1,513	1,553	2,048	1,607
34,398	15,211	261,961	30,514	IT	4,177	3,030	3,310	3,847
9,402	3,877	328,401	11,809	CY	2,921	2,702	11,827	3,876
12,766	5,291	47,236	9,320	LV	452	384	623	433
7,876	3,738	549,999	7,635	LT	494	489	972	557
136,547	74,492	82,975	122,072	LU	2,068	1,801	5,762	2,048
5,222	3,019	284,045	9,086	HU	1,067	1,203	1,151	1,118
7,728	2,458	212,198	7,653	MT	8,073	4,252	56,586	8,375
229,195	89,264	926,063	261,753	NL	8,578	6,371	37,776	10,110
43,284	29,748	46,822	39,151	AT	2,246	2,156	587	2,043
13,668	6,423	448,830	12,602	PL	1,362	1,189	1,204	1,314
11,977	6,942	195,901	15,199	PT	1,279	1,126	1,309	1,265
2,252	1,254	99,188	2,700	RO	1,034	855	520	783
12,335	7,606	421,267	12,233	SI	1,842	1,640	3,485	1,892
14,389	19,245	610,873	70,769	SK	842	1,395	911	913
46,220	32,728	238,693	48,499	FI	1,235	1,401	6,112	1,352
44,355	18,044	205,890	52,515	SE	1,107	905	1,709	1,218
104,660	39,573	314,601	104,684	UK	1,270	829	802	1,158
24,275	8,846	250,252	25,152	EU	1,885	1,516	1,552	1,752

Tables: Farmer age and RDP uptake

ALL HOLDINGS - AGE OF FARM HOLDER					
Member State	<35 yr	35 - 44 yr	45 - 54 yr	55 - 64 yr	>64 yr
BE	4.5	18.1	32.0	24.7	20.8
BG	6.8	11.8	18.2	25.4	37.7
CZ	12.3	21.0	25.5	27.2	14.0
DK	4.9	18.7	31.1	25.6	19.7
DE	7.2	24.8	36.5	26.4	5.0
EE	5.9	15.9	23.4	24.0	30.8
IE	6.2	17.6	24.8	25.1	26.3
EL	7.0	15.3	21.7	21.1	34.9
ES	4.7	13.1	21.4	25.8	35.1
FR	8.7	19.5	30.3	27.1	14.5
HR	3.9	10.9	23.6	27.0	34.7
IT	4.9	12.3	20.4	24.0	38.4
CY	2.6	10.0	25.2	29.6	32.6
LV	5.5	17.0	26.7	20.6	30.1
LT	5.8	15.7	23.6	18.2	36.8
LU	6.5	19.1	32.1	27.0	15.3
HU	7.0	14.4	21.0	27.9	29.8
MT	4.5	11.6	25.4	31.2	27.3
NL	3.1	19.7	31.1	26.6	19.5
AT	9.8	26.6	35.5	18.9	9.2
PL	14.9	24.6	32.1	19.8	8.6
PT	2.3	7.7	17.4	24.9	47.7
RO	7.1	15.6	16.2	22.5	38.6
SI	4.0	13.0	23.7	25.8	33.6
SK	6.7	14.3	26.0	28.2	24.8
FI	8.6	19.8	31.6	30.4	9.6
SE	4.4	14.4	25.7	28.7	26.9
UK	2.8	11.4	24.6	28.7	32.5
EU	7.3	16.1	22.1	23.4	31.1

ALL FEMALE HOLDINGS - AGE OF FARM HOLDER					
Member State	<35 yr	35 - 44 yr	45 - 54 yr	55 - 64 yr	>64 yr
BE	3.3	12.9	26.9	25.9	31.2
BG	9.5	12.1	17.6	24.2	36.7
CZ	12.7	19.9	24.8	26.4	16.1
DK	4.6	16.7	32.0	26.1	21.0
DE	11.1	28.2	33.1	20.8	6.9
EE	5.3	12.9	20.3	24.1	37.5
IE	3.7	12.6	21.8	25.6	36.3
EL	7.2	16.1	21.9	20.4	34.5
ES	4.0	13.0	22.1	24.9	36.0
FR	6.0	14.4	24.5	32.4	22.7
HR	3.1	9.3	18.8	26.1	42.6
IT	4.0	12.2	21.5	25.1	37.2
CY	2.6	11.5	25.6	30.2	30.2
LV	4.6	14.1	23.7	21.0	36.6

LT	4.3	13.6	20.0	17.5	44.6
LU	4.3	12.8	27.7	36.2	21.3
HU	6.3	10.5	16.1	25.6	41.5
MT	2.9	9.8	21.4	27.7	37.6
NL	4.5	16.5	26.3	23.8	28.8
AT	7.5	23.8	38.6	21.2	8.9
PL	14.0	23.2	29.9	19.3	13.5
PT	2.0	8.3	19.7	26.1	44.0
RO	4.7	8.9	12.0	21.9	52.6
SI	2.3	10.6	18.4	24.9	43.9
SK	6.4	13.3	23.8	29.0	27.4
FI	11.5	22.6	26.3	28.3	11.5
SE	5.6	17.1	28.2	24.2	25.0
UK	2.3	10.6	23.5	27.8	35.8
EU	6.1	13.0	19.4	22.8	38.6

FEMALES BENEFITTING FROM RD MEASURES - AGE OF FARM HOLDER

Member State	<35 yr	35 - 44 yr	45 - 54 yr	55 - 64 yr	>64 yr
BE	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
BG	24.4	31.7	22.0	17.1	4.9
CZ	17.7	24.1	24.1	22.8	11.4
DK	5.2	16.8	33.2	27.2	17.6
DE	12.2	30.4	33.8	19.3	4.4
EE	5.9	13.1	23.1	25.8	32.1
IE	4.0	13.9	23.5	26.4	32.2
EL	15.2	24.5	23.8	17.8	18.8
ES	5.4	18.2	26.3	25.9	24.2
FR	8.5	22.5	36.9	31.0	1.0
HR	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
IT	9.9	20.7	24.6	22.2	22.7
CY	3.0	15.2	24.2	27.3	33.3
LV	5.1	17.2	27.4	21.7	28.7
LT	8.8	16.9	23.1	17.3	34.0
LU	5.0	12.5	30.0	37.5	17.5
HU	8.7	17.0	24.3	27.5	22.9
MT	5.9	17.6	29.4	29.4	23.5
NL	0.0	18.2	36.4	27.3	9.1
AT	8.1	25.1	40.0	20.6	6.2
PL	21.5	29.2	31.7	13.6	4.0
PT	3.2	11.7	24.0	28.4	32.9
RO	2.7	6.1	10.7	22.0	58.6
SI	2.9	14.5	21.5	25.7	35.5
SK	8.3	33.3	33.3	16.7	8.3
FI	11.7	23.0	26.9	28.8	9.5
SE	4.8	21.6	36.0	24.0	13.6
UK	2.1	10.0	23.0	28.7	36.4
EU	9.1	20.3	27.9	22.3	20.5

DIRECTORATE-GENERAL FOR INTERNAL POLICIES

POLICY DEPARTMENT CITIZENS' RIGHTS AND CONSTITUTIONAL AFFAIRS **C**

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