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Empowering women in urban agriculture in Burkina Faso

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Inclusive Business Models: Empowering Women in Urban Agriculture in Burkina Faso

Janvier Kini



UNIVERSITY
OF AMSTERDAM



AMSTERDAM INSTITUTE FOR
SOCIAL SCIENCE RESEARCH

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**Inclusive Business Models:
Empowering Women in Urban Agriculture in Burkina Faso**

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aan de Universiteit van Amsterdam

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Acronyms and Abbreviations

AfDB	African Development Bank
AISSR	Amsterdam Institute for Social Sciences Research
AMIFOB	Amicale des Forestières du Burkina
APFNL	Agency for the promotion of non-timber product
BoP	Bottom of Pyramid
BSR	Business for Social Responsibility
CABE	Centre for African Bio-Entrepreneurship
CCI	Chambre of Trade and Industrie of Burkina Faso
CERES	Research School for International Development
CGIAR	Consultative Group on International Agricultural Research
CIFOEB	Centre for Information, Training and Study on Budget
CNABio	National Council for organic Agriculture
CNRST	Centre National de Recherche Scientifique et Technologique
CSLP	Cadre Stratégique de la Lutte contre la Pauvreté
CSO	Civil Society Organisations
CV	Curriculum Vitae?
DANIDA	Danish International Development Agency Direction des Etudes et de la Planification de la Commune de
DEP/CO	Ouagadougou
DMPGO	Development Master Plan for Great Ouaga
E/CN	United Nations Economic and Social Council
EUR	Euro
FAARF	Support Fund for Women's Revenue Generating Activities
FAIJ	Support Funds to Youth Activities
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organisation
FBE	Firms, Businesses and Entrepreneurs
FDI	Foreign Direct Investment
FGD	Focus Group Discussions
FONAFI	National Fund for Inclusive Finance
GAIB	Gender Aware Inclusive Business
GAIVC	Gender Aware Inclusive Value Chain
GDP	Gross Domestic Product

GEF	Global Environment Funds
GEM	Global Entrepreneurship Monitor
GER	Gross Enrolment Rate
GID	Governance and Inclusive Development Group
GPIO	Human Geography, Planning and International Development Studies
IAGU	Institut Africain de Gestion Urbaine
IB	Inclusive Business
IDRC	International Development Research Centre
IFAD	International Funds for Agricultural Development
IFC	International Finance Corporation
ILO	International Labour Organisation
IMF	International Monetary Fund
INSD	Institut National de la Statistique et de la Démographie Pan African Institute for Development in West Africa and the Sahel Region
IPD-AOS	
IRSS	Institut de Recherche en Sciences de la Santé
JICA	Japan International Cooperation Agency Lettre d'Intention de Politique de Développement Humain
LIPDHD	Durable
LPDRD	Lettre de Politique de Développement Rural Décentralisé
MAH	Ministère de l'Agriculture et de l'Hydraulique
MASA	Ministère de l'Agriculture et la Sécurité Alimentaire
MCA	Multiple Components Analysis
MED	Ministry of Economy and Development
MEF	Ministry of Economy and Finance
MEPHATRA-	
PH	Medecine, Pharmacopée Traditionnelle, Pharmacie
MFSNF	Ministry of Woman, National Solidarity and Family
MHU	Ministry of Housing and Urban Planning
NAFTC	Netherlands Agro & Food Technology Centre
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisations
NOW-WOTRO	Dutch Research Council
ODI	Overseas Development Institute
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PADev	Participatory Assessment of Development

PASA	Structural Adjustment Programmes in the Agricultural Sector
PCA	Principal Component Analysis
PDDEB	Ten-years Programme for Basic Education Development
PDSEB	Programme for Strategic Development of Education
PNDES	Plan National de Développement Economique et Social
PNG	Politique Nationale Genre
PNG	National Gender Policy
PNGT	Programme National de Gestion des Terroirs
QUIBB	??
REN-LAC	National Network for Fighting Against Corruption
SAP	Structural Adjustment Programme
SCADD	Stratégie de Croissance Accélérée et de Développement Durable
SDAGO	Schéma Directement d'Aménagement du Grand Ouaga
SDAU	Schéma-Directeur Aménagement Urbain
SDG	Sustainable Development Goals
SMIG	Salaire Minimum Inter-professionnel Garantit
SNADDT	National Schema for the Territory Planning and Sustainable Development
SNV	Netherlands Development Organisation
SSA	Sub-Saharan Africa
TCP	Public Treasure and Accounting
UMEOA	West African Economic and Monetary Union
UN	United Nations
UN	
Environment	United Nations Environment Programme
UNCTAD	United Nations Conference on Trade and Development
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UN-Habitat	United Nations Human Settlements Programme
UNICEF	United Nations of International Children's Emergency Fund
UNOCHA	United Nations Organisation for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
UNRISD	United Nations Research Institute for Social Development
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
USD	United States Dollar

UvA	Universiteit van Amsterdam
VIRED	Victoria Institute for Research on Environment and
International	Development (VIRED International)
WBCSD	World Business Council for Sustainable Development
WFE	Women Food Entrepreneur
WFP	World Food Programme
WHO	World Health Organisation
WSE	Women Survival Entrepreneurs
XOF	Currency of West-African French Countries (FCFA)

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Executive Summary

Economic exclusion and gender inequality are two interconnected problems that women worldwide still face nowadays. The exclusion of women from business value chains is exacerbated by the gender inequalities persistent in most low-income countries. For example, more than 740 million women work in informal employment worldwide, and more than 90% of these women are in Sub-Saharan African countries (SSA). However, these women are often excluded from the formal economic system, thus from business value chains. Yet, they are critical food and income providers to their families and strive to make ends meet through food entrepreneurship. Many of these women food entrepreneurs-WFEs (food producers, processors and marketeers) in rapidly growing SSA cities organize in groups to access and operate the land collectively, thus overcoming initial gender barriers and constraints. Their full potential in urban food chains is, however, systematically overlooked or emphasised by private and public actors and institutions. This limits their access to markets, resources and institutions, thus sustaining disempowering and poverty effects. This work differentiates between women food entrepreneurs (WFEs) and women survival entrepreneurs (WSEs). WFEs differ from WSEs as the latter merely seek for income to cover their family's basic needs; whilst WFEs can earn profit after paying themselves a minimum wage for their labour. I make this differentiation because women entrepreneurs have different goals. Through this distinction, I intend to provide policymakers with information to enable them to design adequate policy responses for each category of women entrepreneurs.

There is an urgent need to overcome gender inequality if humanity wants to achieve the sustainable development goals (SDGs). Gender inequality is an unacceptable present-day concern that demands urgent intervention. Thus, SDG5 "achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls" clearly states the will/ambition of the international community on this issue; to mobilise, on an equal basis, all the productive resources for the process of wealth creation to achieve poverty alleviation and to 'leave no one behind'.

In response to the above problem, the concept of inclusive business has been introduced to address the (gender) exclusionary and poverty effects of mainstream business models. Although in theory inclusive business contributes to enhanced business opportunities and empowerment outcomes for the marginalized and poor, including women, the global empirical evidence is scant and biased towards high-income countries. In particular, there are currently three gaps in knowledge that prevail in the literature: (a) lack of understanding of women's role in urban food chains and discussion on value chain strategies from a gender-aware and inclusive

perspective; (b) insufficient evidence of how business models for inclusiveness in urban food value chains perceive and affect WSEs/WFEs' capabilities and roles; and (c) lack of evidence with a solid theoretical foundation on how gender-sensitive and inclusive business models can contribute to the economic empowerment of women in the SSA urban food sector.

This book aims to answer the following main question: *How can gender-aware inclusive business models contribute to the economic empowerment of WSEs/WFEs in the urban food value chains in low-income countries, and what do gender-aware inclusive businesses imply in practice?*

The book draws upon the broader theory of inclusive development for developing and testing an integrated women's empowerment model. This model links together the notion of gender inequality, inclusive business indicators (within food value chains), and women's capabilities. As inclusive development is a relational approach, the way the urban food value chains are analysed reflects a recognition of how gender inequality and (non-) inclusive development interact. Specifically, this research: (a) defines the scope of the target group among the bottom of the pyramid population; (b) develops a more gender-aware and inclusive value chain as a framework and process for collaboration between stakeholders in business using the Foucauldian perspective of human beings; (c) develops a conceptual model on gender-aware and inclusive business formalised in an index; and (d) combines the capability and firm-level economic wellbeing approaches to the value chain to design an analytical framework of women's economic empowerment in the urban context.

This research uses a systemic approach with a critical inter-subjectivity to investigate the mechanisms leading to WSEs' economic empowerment in Ouagadougou. In addition to assessing the literature and policy documents, three main methods were used for data collection: 6 focus group discussions, a survey (project baseline and production/demand follow-up: 433 purchasers surveyed, 124 households at baseline) and life histories (69 individuals interviewed). Also, three methods were used to analyse the data: content analysis, descriptive or ex-post analysis of policy documents, descriptive statistics and causality analysis through advanced quantitative methods. Causality analysis with quantitative methods, including econometric modelling (quantile regression models) were used to analyse women's empowerment outcomes and particularly their profit making.

The negative binomial regression model, linear regression model and quantile regression were also used to analyse the demand for WSEs/WFEs' food products in the urban market.

Chapter 5 addresses the questions, "How do public policies contribute to empowering WSEs/WFEs? What are their strengths and weaknesses?" Prior to answering these questions, the policy context is analysed focusing on the context variables that influence the design and implementation of public policies at national level. It concludes that the policy context is rooted in a dual governing system in the country. On the one hand, there is the old customary system that governs sets of villages, communes and districts, which is still present and powerful. Its power depends on the trust that the villagers have in their traditional chiefs to uphold moral values such as integrity. However, this customary governance system is informal because it is not written down and it varies between ethnic groups in the country. On the other hand, there is the modern governance system that was inherited from colonisation. This governance system is founded on the (written) rules of law and as such it is the formal system that can be applied to any citizen in the country.

It is the role of the formal institution (e.g. the government) to design and implement the development policies in the country. The dualism of the governance system relies on the fact that formal institutions need the informal system, particularly when it comes to implementing certain policies on the ground. In turn, the informal institutions need the formal institutions because the former have not designed development policies. Consequently, informal arrangements between the formal institutional and informal institutional actors come into play. In addition, corruption continues to be the most influential informal institution both in the economic and political spheres. Indeed, the duality between the customary and modern governance systems enables corrupt behaviour that influences inefficient policy outcomes on the ground which are not controlled by sanctions or the judiciary (part of the formal governance system).

Second, under this policy context, development policies over the market economy period (1990 to the present) and their contribution to women's empowerment were analysed to assess the effectiveness of policies in addressing gender inequality and women's economic exclusion. It concludes that since 1990: a) education policies have enhanced women's participation in the formal education system, thus reducing the gender gaps in the access to human capital development (this also prepares the future generations to accept gender equity); b) agriculture modernisation policies have increased women's access to land by 70%, reduced

the cost of fertilisers by 10% and increased women's access to agricultural equipment by 10%; and c) national funding policies have significantly increased women's access to credit, impacting job and business creation in the country. For example, of the 18 existing national funds, the Support Fund for Women's Revenue Generating Activities (FAARF) alone provided more than XOF 10 billion (EUR 15,244,832) in loans to 150,000 women in 2018, and more than 2,164,975 women have benefitted from its funding since 1991. Despite successes recorded in women's empowerment, further improvements in the policy designs and implementation need to be made, particularly for the extreme poor who are excluded or self-exclude from development interventions. The strengths of the policies pertain to their effectiveness in reducing gender inequality in several key sectors (education, agriculture, funding, and so on); the main weakness includes their weak capacity to significantly invert the cultural norms underlying gender differences in the society.

Chapter 6 addresses two questions: "What do urban food value chains look like and what position do bottom of pyramid (BoP) women take therein?" and "How do current business strategies of WSEs/WFEs contribute to building their capabilities collectively?" This chapter analysed the collective capabilities of WSEs/WFEs' groups and the ways through which women's participation in food value chains generates their functioning. The chapter first concludes that two types of value chains co-exist in the urban food system: the short and long value chains. In the short value chain two sub-sets emerge: 1) food producers who only sell their crops to end-consumers at the production sites, and 2) those selling at the marketplaces. In the first case, the travel cost is supported by end-consumers. This may explain the end-consumers' attachment to the production sites, mostly when the purchased crops have something specific (e.g. organic food) and no or little competition exists among the producers. In the second case, the travel cost is shared between the food producer and the end-consumer. This may translate into a strategy for the producer to get a better price, particularly when there is competition among producers at the same production site. BoP women take the top position in these value chains as producers; they are the main or powerful influencers of the value chains. Second, in the long value chains, intermediaries bring the food to the marketplaces where end-consumers' needs are met. Two types of intermediaries emerge: i) producers who are also wholesalers who buy their colleagues' food at the same production site in addition to their own, and also supply their food to retailers at the market places; ii) non-food producers who come to the production sites to buy and distribute the food to retailers at the market places. In long value chains, BoP women compete with other producers (including men). This exposes BoP women to gender barriers, preventing them from reaching a higher position;

even though they are food producers, they mostly lack control over the land they exploit. In the case studies, most BoP women are food intermediaries in the long value chains.

The current business strategies of WSE/WFE include: (a) production planning to avoid the production of the same crop by all and at the same time; (b) production of the most demanded crops during annual festivities such as Christmas and New Year; (c) growing crops that have adapted to the hot climate and water stress period; (d) joint selling system; and (e) individual selling. Strategies (b) and (c) are successful because women's food production significantly increases in December up to mid-January, and most of the grown crops (e.g. lettuce, onion, sugar beet, carrot) during this period are scarce until the end of June. Strategy (d) is also successful because most women producers involved in this system have access to the premium price since they are well organised and produce organic food. Strategies (a) and (e) are less successful because (a) is not prescribed as a guideline and (e) exposes WSE/WFE to poor sales (low prices) because of competitive behaviour, resulting in high food wastes at least in the short-term. Strategy (a) could be improved if women write it down and consistently apply it among their group members.

Chapter 7 addresses the question "How do current business strategies of WSEs/WFEs contribute to building their capabilities individually?" This chapter analysed the individual capabilities of WSEs/WFEs and how they function within urban food value chains. It concludes that women have various business strategies comprising of: (a) crop diversification, (b) activity diversification (a combination of cultivation and other jobs), and (c) adoption of different production and marketing techniques such as a joint selling system and an organic food brand. Strategy (c) works well for BoP women as they gain access to a premium price because of their organic food brand. This increases their revenues from their business. Thus, these strategies contribute to increasing women's access to basic needs (e.g. food, children's education, health care, drinking water) through their earned income. These business strategies also increase BoP women's relational resources (social relationships) leading to an increase of their self-esteem and sense of control. Lastly, through income earned from these businesses and women's contribution to their households spending, their influence on household decision making has increased.

Chapter 8 addresses the question "What are the conditions for a business model to be gender-aware and inclusive for poor women in value chains?" This chapter analysed the elements and conditions for testing the hypothesis on a gender

awareness and inclusiveness of a business model. It concludes that two levels of conditions are required for a business to be gender-aware and inclusive: the necessary conditions and the sufficient conditions. The necessary conditions are related to the value chain in which a business operates; do the communication system, production system and the physical components of the value chain work well enough to allow the entire value chain to live, grow and produce? The chapter concludes that three conditions are required for a business model to be gender-aware and inclusive. First, a business model value chain's components (i.e. the actors) should be physically identifiable. These physical components should be complementary rather than competitive, such as organs in a human being's body. That is, WSEs and the other actors in the value chain—whilst individually autonomous—should evolve together if they want to survive in their environment. Hence, no or very little competition is required for a gender-aware inclusive business model, as competition tends to exacerbate gender inequality. Competition at this level also exacerbates the unbalanced relationship between powerful actors (resource-wealthy people) and powerless actors (resource-poor people). Second, a business model's value chain should have an efficient communication system, meaning that there is a fast flow of information/knowledge as well as products and services among and between the physical components of the value chain. In the study context, this flow speed was up to an hour on average; the time a product leaves the production site until it reaches the final consumer home. Third, a business model's value chain should have a performing production function, meaning that there is a significant quantity of food produced and marketed yearly, which meets the needs of the urban population. In the case studies, businesses around non-organic food production record greater food yields compared to the organic food businesses.

The sufficient conditions required for a business model to be gender-aware and inclusive are that the value of the gender-aware inclusive business index should be at least equal to the threshold of 0.6. This index is composite, comprising five components, 25 indicators and 38 sub-indicators. Hence, after field-testing whether both necessary and sufficient conditions are fulfilled in the case studies, the chapter concludes with three types of businesses: gender-blind businesses, transitory businesses and gender-aware inclusive businesses.

Chapter 9 addresses the question “How does a gender-aware inclusive business model empower WSEs in the urban context?” This chapter analysed the explanatory factors of the contribution of a gender-aware inclusive business (GAIB) to women's individual functioning (as an outcome of their economic empowerment). First, a GAIB model is a business model that accounts for gender

inequality and resource-poor people inclusion in its short value chain embedded in a bottom-up approach to business. Such a model places human dignity at the heart of the business operation and considers the other actors as complementary rather than competitors. Second, all stakeholders [civil society organisations (CSOs), non-governmental organisations (NGOs), funding programmes or business linkage programmes, businesses (men and women), and the State (government)] in the GAIB are responsible for maintaining the context. This type of business is (merely) driven by BoP people, particularly those involved in downstream activities in the value chains (from the supply-side of the value chain). Because business-only-as-usual is not an option anymore, multi-stakeholder partnerships (including civil society, state and private sector-cooperatives, small and medium enterprises (SMEs), large corporates) are needed to achieve an effective and successful participation of the poor in business. Non-gender-aware conventional business models do not make space for WSE. Under the multi-stakeholder partnership, BoP people interested in participating in such businesses can be: (a) identified based on local poverty criteria; (b) (self)organised under a formal CSO (association/group) as producers or processors of local food; and (c) provide (by the state, NGOs or private sector) the CSO of a BoP population with the necessary assets to start up their business activities.

In practice, doing GAIB implies self-organising (or by the funders of the business activities) of women and men into separate groups at the horizontal nodes of the value chain in the short and medium term (as gender difference is a social fact), while working on increasing the awareness of men about the benefits of breaking down gender barriers due to social and cultural norms in the long run. This requires that men's mindset as being superior to women has to change possibly by changing the social, cultural and religious informal institutions. These institutions are so powerful that the formal institutions (laws) are not able to account for this in the short term. It is a process that takes time, and one that requires the involvement of both female and male stakeholders. The promotion of successful programmes such as 'school of model husbands', which helps women and their husbands closing gender inequalities in households, may be a concrete solution. Afterwards, both women and men can equally work together at the horizontal level in the urban value chains. This requires a full participation of national and local authorities as well as CSOs and NGOs. Furthermore, early schooling (boys and girls) that integrates gender inequality alleviation is the better path for next generations to account for this.

The chapter concludes that GAIB: (a) directly improves women's material or financial gains by participating in the business, and it also improves their non-material gains; (b) reduces women's time resources from domestic (unpaid) work to paid work; and (c) is socially beneficial as it provides quality food to the urban community; and (d) more than 96% of women in the business are still survival entrepreneurs (WSEs).

GAIB contribute to women's economic empowerment through: (a) the increase of their resources and agency in terms of material and non-material wellbeing; (b) individual business strategies and how these strategies contribute to shaping their resources and agency; and (c) women's collective business strategies, which are sometimes identical to their individual strategies. Certain women's groups have additional strategies such as branding their crop (e.g. organic food production) and a common selling system. For example, through these business strategies, women currently access and increase their individual capacities and human, natural, financial, social/relational, and physical (e.g. space) relations. Also, through the cooperation strategy, women within a group do not compete with each other, and they ensure that each will produce and sell at a good price. This contributes to increasing their collective capabilities such as capacities (assets and relations) and their governance system (agency). In particular, human capital (capacities building) is a central determining factor of women's resources improvement.

This book concludes that: (a) GAIB is a model that can enhance gender equality and potentially support the achievement of Sustainable Development Goal 5; (b) GAIB strategies will enable women to make their contributions to development, empower them economically and socially, thus putting to use their human capital more effectively in low-income countries; (c) GAIB is a model that needs State support to ensure its adoption in a society; (d) such support includes policies aiming at increasing human capital focused both on adults and youth and children as well as policies aimed at increasing women's access and control over production factors, such as improved seeds, technologies, (organic) fertilisers, credit and land, should be promoted. In particular, land law reforms should be inclusive by clearly showing how and why women should have equal rights to access and control this asset, which has been controlled (only) by men up to now in most of low-income countries.