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WOMEN IN THE FIELD OF FARMING AND ORGANIZATIONS

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ABSTRACT

The fact that few women farm on their own is a notable aspect of farming as a profession. Women seldom possess land since it is passed down from father to son. Marriage is the most common way for them to go into farming. Women's entrance into farming has an impact on interpersonal connections inside the family as well as women's position in the agricultural public sphere. Women are underrepresented in agricultural organizations, training programs, and farm politics. The status of women in agricultural organizations, as well as the interaction between (male) farming organizations and women's farming groups, are the subjects of this article. Farmers are a highly organized profession that has significant political influence as a result of their efficiency. Farming groups, on the other hand, are nearly exclusively male-dominated. The treatment of women in farming organizations, as well as the connection between (male) agricultural organizations and women's farming organizations, are the subjects of this article. Using organizational theory, I argue that include women in farming organizations and the presence of women's farming groups perpetuate gender divides within agriculture and do not call into question men's conception of farming or political power.

KEYWORDS: *Agriculture, Demographics, Employment, Gender, Market Access. Production*

INTRODUCTION

Although women's contributions to agriculture are acknowledged, no conclusive studies on the distribution of work between spouses on California family farms have been published. The external circumstances and internal attitudes that affect women's participation in farming are also little understood[1]. According to a telephone study of 228 married farm women in Yolo County, economic and structural developments have increased the need for women to work on the farm. The Yolo County Assessor's Office, the Agricultural Stabilization Board, and the Davis Farmers' Market provided lists for the survey population. A total of 363 farms were discovered to be owned and managed, at least in part, by the individual farm family, which was a criterion for study participation. The 228 farms whose full interviews were collected closely matched the Agricultural Census data on Yolo County family farmers and

were not substantially different from farms not included in the sample. The goal of the research was to see how farm type and size, women's education and age, where they resided, the employment of hired labor, and the presence of extended family in the region affected their participation[2].

Because of the significance and variety of farming in the region, we chose Yolo County for the research. Agriculture is the county's main industry, with farms covering more than 85 percent of the land area. Tomatoes, wheat, rice, maize, sugar beets, almonds, alfalfa, walnuts, barley, and melons are among the most important crops.In addition to the previously mentioned disparities in male and female labor participation rates, there are significant gender differences in employment patterns within labor markets for a variety of reasons that are universal across cultures and countries. Most significantly, as a consequence of home and child-rearing responsibilities, women are not only less likely to enter the labor market, but those who do are also more likely to engage in self-employment rather than higher-paying wage work[3]. Economically engaged women often quit the labor market due to child care obligations, accumulating less job experience as a result. Due to time limitations, women are more likely to work part-time or in informal arrangements that pay less and/or offer less benefits but provide them more flexibility.Women are also more concentrated in particular supply chain stages or activities (e.g. packaging, post-processing). Occupational segregation into low-tech professions restricts chances to acquire new skills and capacities, stifling future professional growth and reinforcing stereotypes of these occupations as low-paying and low-status[4].

Finally, there is a well-documented pay disparity in urban labor markets – one that is likely to exist in rural labor markets as well – in which women get paid less for similar occupations and levels of education and experience. Wage disparities between men and women are addressed more below. Gender disparities in full-time and part-time pay employment participation for selected nations from the RIGA database. 11 The two columns on the left illustrate the previously mentioned disparity in participation rates; female involvement in rural wage labor markets is lower in all fourteen nations. The next section of the table illustrates how women who work in paid occupations (with the exception of Nicaragua and Panama in our sample) are more likely than males to work part-time. Furthermore, in all eleven nations where the surveys allowed for the distinction, a higher percentage of female than male employment is found in seasonal occupations rather than the typically better-paying year-round positions that also tend to offer extra non-salary perks (not indicated in the table).

Women are often restricted to working in certain industries and professions, typically as a consequence of their inferior human capital and negotiating strength. Based on national-level case studies, the author finds that wage employment is nearly always dominated by males and self-employment by women in the non-farm sector. Furthermore, even when women obtain formal sector work, advancement into management roles is difficult[5]. Women make up 60 to 80 percent of unskilled employees in Colombia's flower-cutting business, for example, whereas they have a considerably smaller proportion of management and professional positions. Furthermore, in businesses that produce mainly for export – such as textiles, electronics, and certain food processing – women are increasingly being displaced by men as earnings rise. Intra-household inequality may erode a woman's status both within and outside the home. Women are overrepresented in occupations with low pay, significant job instability, and generally bad working conditions. Women are more inclined to accept lower salaries if they have restricted decision-making power in the home or have limited access to resources and family money. Labor market involvement is a survival strategy for most women in northern India, not a way of increasing living conditions or having a say in the home. Women are more likely to work in low-paying professions, according to research. Examine the problem of employment distribution in rural regions based on salary. They

accept that, on average, non-agricultural occupations pay more than agricultural ones. They divide jobs into three categories based on this:

- low-wage activities that pay less than the median agricultural wage;
- medium-wage activities that pay more than the median agricultural wage but less than the median non-agricultural wage;
- high-wage activities that pay more than the median non-agricultural wage[6].

When this classification is applied to data from 14 nations from the RIGA database, it is shown that, with the exception of Panama, women's distribution is considerably more skewed towards lower-paid occupations than men. Wage disparities affect women as well, but data on this in rural areas is scarce[7]. Wage disparities are often caused by: I contractual arrangements that vary for men and women, with women generally having poorer working conditions; and ii) women typically get lower salaries for the same job. Women in rural regions are paid 28 percent less than men on average, according to data from 14 nations, with the noteworthy exception of women in rural Panama, who are paid 11 percent more than men. For half of the nations studied, wage disparities are greater in rural than urban regions. A breakdown of the wage gap in rural areas into two parts: a) that which is explained by differences in asset endowment (education, age, years of experience, industry of employment, etc.) and b) that which is explained by differences in payment received for those assets – an imperfect indicator of discrimination. The findings indicate that variations in asset ownership account for a considerably smaller portion of salary disparities. Women in rural Latin America have more assets than males, yet they are still paid less, with the exception of rural Panama. While women in rural labor markets continue to suffer occupational segregation and discrimination, new forms of organization in supply chains for export-oriented commodities and agro-processing have provided better-paying job possibilities for women in many countries than previously existed. Wages and working conditions are usually better than in conventional agricultural jobs.

One of the most significant changes in female employment over the past several decades may be the widespread inclusion of women in the packing stage of non-traditional agro-export production. Women make up a significant portion of the agricultural labor force, but agriculture and agricultural value chains are equally major sources of employment for women. To serve urban supermarkets and international markets, commercial value chains for high-value goods such as fresh fruit, vegetables, flowers, and animal products are quickly expanding. Women's employment is impacted significantly by the development of contemporary value chains and the wider structural change of the agricultural sector in many developing countries, but the effect of these trends on women has received very little analytical attention. Many of the high-value agricultural commodity chains in Sub-Saharan Africa and Latin America are dominated by women. New employment in export-oriented agro-industries may not be equitable for men and women, but they typically offer greater possibilities for women than conventional agriculture does, and they may also be agents of change with major consequences for women and rural development[8].

Latin America's flower business is a fascinating case study in opposing viewpoints. In Colombia, for example, 64 percent of the workers directly producing fresh-cut flowers for export are women, and this kind of agro-industrial labor is considered skilled by some, while it is considered unskilled by others. While women have supervisory positions among those directly engaged in cultivation, they have a considerably smaller proportion of management and professional employment in other areas of the industry. Similarly, in industries that produce mainly for the export market, women are increasingly being replaced by men as earnings rise. The advent of the flower business in Cayambe, Ecuador, in the late 1980s together with other household and individual variables had an unexpected impact on time usage habits. Contrary to a common critique of agricultural export growth, which argues that

women are excessively burdened by labor in the sector, the overall time spent by women in paid and unpaid labor did not rise[9]. Men's increasing involvement in housekeeping was, in fact, the most convincing proof of the industry's effect. Despite the greater salaries offered in Cotocachi, Ecuador, women were unwilling to relocate or even travel to work in the flower business. Flower work was not a possibility for the women, suggesting that either their husbands would not let them to work or that the job would be harmful to family ties.The expansion of modern horticulture supply chains in Senegal has been linked to direct benefits for rural women and a reduction in gender disparities in rural regions. Women profit more from large-scale estate production and agro-industrial processing than from high-value smallholder contract farming, where they frequently offer unpaid household labor, according to the research[10].

DISCUSSION

Rural regions' feminization may change over time. Male migration from rural regions, for example, contributed to an increase in female involvement in agriculture during Vietnam's economic reform era, which began in 1986. Women moved in significant numbers later, from 1992 to 1997, to take advantage of possibilities in new industries and export processing zones. As a consequence, the percentage of female employees in agriculture dropped from 68 percent to 56 percent, while it rose from 22 percent to 39 percent in non-farming professions. While global and national statistics for most nations do not show a general trend of growing female domination in agriculture, evidence strongly suggests that females are over-represented in rural parts of certain countries and regions. Patterns vary significantly by age group and may shift quickly as economic possibilities and societal norms allow women to freely migrate between urban and rural areas. The female-headed family is another demographic development. These families make up a substantial percentage of rural households in many nations throughout the globe, but their proportion varies greatly. The majority of nations have between 10% and 30% female-headed families, with significant geographical differences: southern African countries, for example, have a high percentage of female-headed households. These families are significant for agricultural policymakers as a group since many of them will be engaged in farming and have certain distinguishing features. For one thing, they are almost always disadvantaged in terms of access to land, finance, and other productive resources, as shown in the companion working paper "Gender inequalities in assets." Because they have fewer male members, they also have less labor available, which helps to explain why they often support a greater dependence ratio, particularly among senior family members. However, not all female-headed families are created equal.

Households are labeled de facto female-headed when the spouse migrates for employment. The household is referred to as de jure when the female-head of the home is divorced, separated, or widowed. The difference is critical since de facto FHHs may be receiving remittances that enable them to compensate for the absence of a male. However, this is only feasible in cases when remittances are consistent and large enough to allow for the employment of labor and/or the purchase of agricultural equipment and supplies. Of course, families do not spend remittances in agricultural operations when agro-climatic conditions are bad, infrastructure is lacking, and agriculture provides a low return on investment. It is often assumed that female-headed families are poorer and more vulnerable than male-headed households, and that their frequency is rising, making poverty a more female issue. “...the global economic slump has weighed most severely on women-headed families, who are everywhere in the globe, the poorest of the poor,” writes one source. This does not seem to be generally true, based on the evidence provided. Their unique position, though, and their function in agriculture. In many developing nations, economic growth has transformed and will continue to alter the agricultural sector. Commercialization, urbanization, and integration into the global economy are all part of the process. A simple comparison of the length of time

men and women labor in agricultural production is often made, but to fully comprehend the contribution women contribute to food production, a more comprehensive variety of inputs must be considered. It's not easy to figure out the gender of the person in charge of these resources: if a crop is produced on property owned by an extended family, ploughed by a man, planted by a woman, weeded by their children, and harvested jointly, what percentage of the crop can be ascribed to the woman? In most cases, however, it is impossible to provide a precise response to the issue of women's contribution to agricultural and food production. Food is not typically produced separately by men and women. The majority of food is generated via a joint effort including both men and women.

Quantifying women's contributions to food production necessitates adopting arbitrary assumptions about gender roles in the production process, which are unlikely to be uniform. Males and women are both engaged in harvesting, for example, if men usually do the labor to clear the field while women plant and weed the crops. It is difficult to segregate output by gender in these and other comparable situations. Nonetheless, all of the indirect data given above in terms of labor participation and production using various definitions of gender suggests that women in poor nations are unlikely to produce 60 to 80 percent of the food. In all areas, women play an important part in all phases of the food cycle, although these responsibilities vary by region. If policies and interventions are to be successful, they must take into consideration the diversity of their contributions. Livestock play a significant role in supporting women and improving their financial position in pastoralist and mixed agricultural systems, and women are actively involved in the industry. Women account for about two-thirds of impoverished livestock caretakers, or 400 million individuals. These developments and changes offer problems and possibilities, some of which have a clear gender component. Increased demand for high-value commodities, processed foods, and pre-prepared meals results from economic growth and increasing earnings. As a result, food supply chains are becoming more vertically integrated, with input suppliers, producers, processors, distributors, and retailers all working together. Supermarkets are an important component of this vertical chain since they are handy, cater to a wide range of preferences, and establish quality and safety requirements. Supermarket penetration is a term used to describe the extent to which supermarkets have penetrated a Small-scale farming system in fast developing regions are under increasing pressure to commercialize, diversify, and expand their operations. The livestock industry, which is attempting to provide fast expanding markets for meat, milk, and eggs, has seen increasing scales of production. Small-scale manufacturers are under particular strain as the importance of size and private health and safety requirements imposed by big retailers and wholesale customers grows. Farmers who produce for supermarkets are often bigger, more educated, have more knowledge, can hire in labor, have better irrigation, and are closer to transportation infrastructure. Because of their smaller size, lower education levels, and restricted access to resources, it is often believed that small farmers would be marginalized by these trends, and that women farmers will be more severely punished.

See the related working paper "Gender disparities in assets" for additional evidence on gender inequalities in resource access. However, according to a number of research, this isn't always the case. Transaction costs and investment restrictions are significant in Eastern Europe and Central Asia, and businesses prefer to deal with a few, big, and modern suppliers, but they also feel that small suppliers are vital. Farmers' ability to produce for the market will become more essential. The ability to participate in output markets, on the other hand, is determined by the size of the farm, the quality of the product, and the farmer's ability to process and sell the output at a cheap cost. Coffee is Uganda's most important export, employing an estimated 5 million people directly and indirectly. Coffee is frequently intercropped alongside basics like matooke (a banana-like staple), beans, sweet potatoes, and maize by smallholders. Purchased inputs like as fertilizer and insecticides are used sparingly in the production of coffee, while contemporary agricultural techniques such as irrigation are not extensively utilized. On the basis of a study of 300 coffee farmer families conducted in 1999 and 2003.

Female heads of families accounted for 23% of the homes questioned (mainly widows, but also unmarried, separated and divorced women). Female-headed families had lower levels of wealth and education, as well as fewer labor, land, and coffee trees than male-headed households.

The women who ran the households tended to be older. We may anticipate crop choice, production techniques, and market access to be very different for male- and female-headed families as a consequence of these fundamental disparities in size, liquidity, and human capital. The percentage of trees harvested, as well as the amount of labor devoted to coffee production, were similar across male- and female-headed households, as was the yield per producing tree. Women sold lesser quantities than males since female-headed families farmed on a much smaller scale (only 47 kg on average compared to 151 kg for men. The majority of smallholders sold their coffee as dried cherries, known locally as kiboko, which were subsequently milled by the merchants who bought it. Some farmers were able to sell their coffee at a better price since they were able to transport it to market. Male-headed families were more likely to go to the market to sell their coffee than female-headed households. The adjacent coffee market accounted for 15% of male-headed families' transactions, but just 7% of female-headed households' transactions. This may be because males were more likely than women to possess a bicycle, making it easier for them to go to the market. Farmers who opted to grind their coffee at the market before selling it got a higher price. Only 3% of transactions were for milled coffee, and they were all done by families with a male head of family. The research finds that disparities in marketing between men and women are mainly explained by the fact that women sell less coffee and do not possess bicycles. They also discovered that a significant barrier for women is their difficulties in gaining access to marketing channels that provide additional value. Male-headed families earned 15 USD cents per kilo of kiboko by participating in marketing channels where they contribute value, while female-headed households received less (14 USD cents per kilo).

CONCLUSION

More over a third of the women polled worked outside the home and were therefore self-employed. supplementary income for farmers Furthermore, more than 40% were actively engaged in more than half of the things being measured. Homemaking is not included in farm participation. Activities. A description of the lady as a whole most likely to participate actively in the agricultural business is as follows: Approximately 40 years old, well-educated, and lives on a farm that produces at least some livestock. Her spouse works off-farm and contributes to the farm's upkeep. operation without the involvement of relatives from the extended family in addition, she is the one in charge of home responsibilities and may even hold an office work outside the home Outside work is very important. On smaller farms, this is very frequent. The following is an example of a common reaction to this situation: farm women will have to work off the farm. To prevent from going bankrupt, the farm was used to assist pay the bills.

The size of a farm is related to because of the smaller size of the farms, women are more likely to participate. have limited access to hired labor in general compared to larger enterprises The root of the problem wife's participation in farming is required for greater degrees of engagement. when other labor alternatives aren't available exist. We conclude that effective gender-aware agricultural policymaking requires reliable, timely, and geographically relevant information and analysis. Data collection has vastly increased in recent decades, as has our awareness of the complexities of women's roles and the necessity to gather data on all women's activities, not just main ones. To better understand how gender roles in agriculture evolve over time and in reaction to new possibilities, more data is required. We've shown that women's responsibilities are varied and vary by area and country. Without knowing their unequal access to land, money, assets, human capital, and other

productive resources, these roles cannot be fully comprehended, and interventions targeting them cannot be developed effectively.

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