An Assessment of World Bank Food Security Project in Oromia Region from Gender Perspective: The Case of Kuyu Project Site

Name of Student: Zelalem Nemera

APPROVED BY BOARD OF EXAMINERS

Dr. Mulumebet Zenebe
Chairperson

Dr. Vijaya Subramaniam
Advisory

Dr. Emebet Mulugeta
Internal Examiner

Dr. Eshetu Gurmu
External Examiner

Date
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Abstract

The present study is an assessment and evaluation based research that intended to examine World Bank Food security Project in Oromia Regional State from a gender perspective. To arrive at the desired objectives, both quantitative and qualitative approaches were applied. Three data collecting instruments were used. Structured questionnaire was designed and administrated to 176 sample respondents. Four focus group discussions each with ten members were conducted. In-depth interview schedule was designed and conducted with twelve respondents. Furthermore, four key informants selected from project officers were also interviewed.

Textual explanation and narration of the summarized data was applied upon the qualitative data while descriptive statistics such as frequency, percentage and mean formed a substantial part of analysis for the quantitative data. Mc Nemar test was performed to test the improvements brought up on the beneficiaries' food security after the intervention of the project. Chi square was performed to see the association between the opinion of female and male respondents on gender sensitivity of the project's design and coordination as well as on integrating gender issues in the project intervention.

Results indicated that the project under study is quite efficient in improving food security status of the beneficiaries. The study also revealed that the project's benefit favors male beneficiaries over the female and this was due to several reasons among which less gender responsiveness of the project's goal and indicators, women's less representation in the project's design and coordination, religious dogma and traditional practices that devaluate women's productive role, and female beneficiaries' over load with triple roles are the common. The major policy implication of the current study is that some of the objectives, indicators, and approaches of the project under study need to be revised in such away that they must be gender responsive.
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CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the Study

In most parts of today’s world food insecurity is a widespread problem that arises mainly due to unbalanced population growth and food resource production, environmental and soil degradation and gender inequality in distribution and consumption of resources.

Sub-Saharan Africa remains the most malnourished region in the world. In this region, one in every three children under the age of five years is underweight and about 42% are stunted due to food insecurity problem in the region (World Food Summit, 2004).

In the Horn of Africa, a region in Sub-Saharan Africa, around 45% of its total population have been subjected to extreme food shortage and faced famine at least once every decade over the last 30 years. Currently, 13 million people of the region are in need of relief assistance (Yami cited in Degefa, 2002).

According to Yared (2001), over half of Ethiopian population is vulnerable to food insecurity. According to the same source, those highly affected groups are households with shortage of farmland, cash to buy inputs to produce food, elderly, individuals with physical and mental impairments and female-headed households.

The 2007 statistical abstract in Ethiopia stipulated that there is a significant regional as well as rural-urban area difference in the incidence and magnitude of food insecurity in the country. The same source revealed that rural households in the regional states of Benishangul-Gumuz, Tigray and Amhara are more vulnerable due to inadequacy of rainfall, environmental and soil degradation.

Oromia regional state of Ethiopia is not exception to this problem (CSA, 2007). According to the same source, the projected population of the region is estimated to be above 28 million of which women account for about 51% (14,059,000). About 86% of the population live in rural areas where as the remaining 14% is urban dwellers. According to the age structure of the population, economically active age groups i.e. those between ages 15-64 constitute 50% of the whole population (CSA, 2007).
The predominant economy of the region is agriculture. It employs about 86% of the population and contributes about 65% to the region’s GDP. Despite the fact that region is endowed with natural resources suitable for agricultural production, it the region has been suffering from structural food deficit which is translated into chronic food insecurity (Oromia Food Security Disaster Prevention and Preparedness, 2007).

The above source indicated that currently, in the region more than 2 million people are exposed to chronic food insecurity and the problem is more serious in two zones of the region namely West and East Harrerghe.

In order to tackle food insecurity, the government of the region adopted food security program in 1998. The major goal of the program is to bring structural answers to food security. The approach of the program is to strengthen the victims’ access to assets such as land, water resources, skills and technology. The program also aims to improve the victims’ health, diet and ultimately their social status. The program is financed both by government of the region as well as international donor agencies. There are four typical donors in with this regard. These are European Commission (EC) from 2002-2006, Productive Safety Net Program (PSNP) since 2005, GTZ since 2005 and World Bank (WB) credit project since 2002 (Oromia Food Security Disaster Prevention and Preparedness, 1998).

The Food Security Project of World Bank, co-financed by Italian and Canadian Governments on the one hand and the government of Ethiopia on the other hand was set up in November 2002. The overall objectives of the project are to build the resource base of poorer rural households to increase their employment and income, to reduce their real cost of food, and improve their nutritional levels by giving more attention for children under five years and poor women (World Bank Food Security in Oromia project proposal, 2003).

There are four stages in the project’s cycle. These are need identification (baseline study) and preparation, design and appraisal of the project proposal, implementation and implementation completion. For the implementation of its target, the project has an administrative structure with four levels. These are head office, district facilitation team, district facilitation
committee and kebele development committee. It has also horizontal relationship with stakeholders such as the region, zonal and district food security disaster prevention and preparedness secretarial offices (World Bank Food Security Project in Oromia, 2003).

The approach of the project in the intervention is a credit base in which the beneficiaries are encouraged to form associations to get the credit. The proposal of the beneficiaries for the credit should indicate at least one of the following points. The first is income-generating activities to be performed by the beneficiaries with the credit while the other is community asset building activities such as road construction. The credit fund of the project revolves within the selected sites in such away that with the beneficiaries’ achievement of self-sufficiency without the credit, the beneficiaries will pay back the credit to the project and the project will provide it to other (new) beneficiaries within the same site.

The project is operating in three regions of the country namely Oromia, Amahara and Tigray. In Oromia, the project has been started with three food insecure woredas (districts) namely Chiro, Goru Gutu and Ginir located in West Harerghe, East Harerghe and Bale zones respectively in the fiscal year 2002-03 as a pilot and by now it expanded its targeted districts to 21 with 275 kebeles in 8 zones of the region.

In the same region (Oromia), Kuyu project site (study site of this research) has been one of the project’s targets since 2002. Until July 2006, 2280 heads of household beneficiaries have been benefited from the project. Of these beneficiaries, 890 were female heads of households while the rest 1390 were male heads of households (World Bank food Security Project in Oromia region project proposal, 2003). The detail background information about Kuyu district is indicated in chapter three of this thesis.
1.2. Statement of the Problem

Worldwide, women play a paramount role in agricultural and rural development activities. Women account for 70 to 80 percent of household food production in sub-Saharan Africa, 65 percent in Asia and 45 percent in Latin America and the Caribbean though they suffer from unequal access to productive resources such as land, improved seeds, fertilizers and information (FAO, 1996).

Women play crucial role in determining food security and well-being for the entire household. Yet the most disadvantaged population in the world today comprises rural women in developing countries who have been the last to benefit from or in most cases have been negatively affected by prevailing economic growth and development process. Gender bias and gender blindness still persist that farmers are generally perceived as “male” by policy makers, project designers and agricultural service deliverers (UNESCO, 2004).

Food insecurity, one of the critical development problems of human being that has been given highest priority in the international development agenda has a disproportionate negative impact on rural women due to their inferior socio-economic, legal and political status as well as their critical roles in household managers (World FoodSumit, 2004). Without an explicit recognition of these realities; equitable, effective, and sustainable development can never be achieved. Within this context, women’s empowerment by policy makers and project designers in improving production and distribution of food and other resources and enhancing the living conditions of rural population will be the core to raising levels of food security.

Several strategies, policies and projects have been designed by respective governments of different nations in order to ensure their citizens’ food security in collaboration with different international donor agencies. Never the less, most of these activities tend to be unequal and inequitable viewed from gender perspectives in which men are beneficiaries while women are victims (Cara, 2003).
Despite the fact that World Bank Food Security Project has been operating in Oromia region since 2002/03, no research is yet conducted on it from a gender perspective. Therefore, the current study is conducted to fill this gap.

1.3. Objectives of the Study

1.3.1. General Objective
The overall objective of this study is to explore whether the activities of World Bank Food Security Project in the regional state of Oromia is gender responsive.

1.3.2. Specific Objectives
Based on the above general objectives, the researcher came up with the following specific objectives.

To assess gender sensitivity of the project in relation to the project’s baseline study (need assessment), goals, objectives and size of the beneficiaries.

To identify whether the project design allow both female and male to involve in the project intervention.

To examine if gender sensitive indicators were setup for monitoring and evaluation of the project.

To view gender sensitivity and women’s empowerment aspects of the project in its implementation as expressed by the sample respondents.

1.4. Research Questions
The current study investigated the project under study based on the following seven basic questions.

Does the baseline study of the project gender responsive?

To what extent the project’s goal, objectives, approaches and indicators capture the interests of both female and male-headed Family beneficiaries?
Is the interest of female and male-headed beneficiaries equally addressed in the project implementation?

Do the project’s intervention mechanisms empower female-headed Family beneficiaries?

Is the project sustainable with its benefit?

1.5. Operational Definition of Key Terms

The following terms are used in this thesis according to the definitions provided corresponding to them.

**Female Headed Household** can be defined as a household headed by mother/daughter in the absence of father/husband/son(s) due to death, divorce, or migration. It also encompasses households headed under the active leadership of female in the presence of male and those households headed by female relatives such as grandmother. In this case, a family with daughter or son as its head refers to child headed household.

**Food Security** refers to the status of people having food items (for example, protein, carbohydrate, vitamin and fat) of 3-4 in their daily food intake, a frequency of 3-4 daily food intake with enough amount according to the consumer’s need and having sufficient assets and inputs either to buy food from market or to produce it in order to secure the 3-4 food types and 3-4 frequency of daily food intake year after year irrespective of the consumer’s gender, age or any other class (i.e. accessibility and availability of food for all). The opposite of this definition implies food insecurity.

**Direct/indirect indicators of food security**- direct indicators of food security refer to 3-4 food items in people’s daily food intake and frequency (times) of 3-4 daily food intake with the necessary amount while indirect indicators include equal access of all people to food resources irrespective of their gender, age or any other class either with the potential to buy food from the market or to have enough inputs to produce food in order to meet the direct indicators.
Asset possession refers to temporary but recycling properties of the beneficiaries that could contribute to their food security either as direct or indirect indicators. It could be their yearly grain production or the number of livestock they possess.

Project cycle refers to the four stages in project design that include: baseline study, proposal design and appraisal, implementation and implementation completion where-by: baseline study is the project’s need assessment/identification irrespective of any forms of discrimination, proposal design and appraisal refer to the guideline( that includes aspects like goal, indicators and approach ) setup based on the baseline, implementation deals with putting in to effect the guideline with the necessary follow up through monitoring and evaluation based on the indicators indicated in the guideline while achieving the intended objectives/goals imply implementation completion.

Gender responsive/sensitive project refers to a project that put into consideration gender equality (equality of female and male in sharing burdens and benefits) and gender equity (treating both female and male according to their interests or the existing gender discrimination/differentiation on the ground) at all stages of its project cycle.

1.6. Rationale of the Study

As described under statement of the problem, most development programs, plans and projects rarely capture the problems of female and male equally and equitably whereby women assume a disadvantage position. Therefore, assessing the existing programs, plans and projects from a gender perspective will have a decisive say to set forth recommendable suggestions for program and policy makers, and project designers to revise their programs, policies and projects so as to benefit both female and male equally and equitably if they are found to be not on the right track from that of view and to further strengthen them and to use them as role models for the others if they are on the right track.
1.7. Significance of the Study

Assessing and evaluating the existing projects from gender perspective help to address gender issues in all aspects of project intervention that will ultimately result in improvement of the life of both female and male in socio-political and economic aspects. The following two points are accounted to the significance of this study.

First, the study serves as a role model (exemplar) for project coordinators to assess and review their ongoing projects from a gender perspective so as to make them gender responsive.

Second, the research adds to the knowledge of project designers in order to carefully design, implement, monitor and evaluate their projects so as to benefit both female and male by avoiding the past gender based discriminations in project plan which adversely affects the life of women.

1.8. Ethical Considerations

Before any action, the consent of the respondents was ensured with the help of the project officers after the permission of the officers had been already achieved. The issue of confidentiality was taken into account. For this purpose, the name and information of the respondents are kept anonymous.

The avoidance of plagiarism and data fabrication are highly recognized by the researcher therefore, the work is of original.

1.9. Scope and Limitations of the Study

World Bank Food Security Project in Oromia region is in operation in eight zones of the region with 21 districts. To make the study manageable with the available resources, focus was given to only one project site- Kuyu located in North Shawa zone.

In addition, sample respondents in this study were drawn only from the heads of household beneficiaries, excluding those beneficiaries under the heads of the families. As stated under the background, the project has 3800 heads of household beneficiaries until July 2007. However, due to the unavailability of data for the year 2007, the framework of this study was
only 2280 heads of household beneficiaries who have been under the benefit of the project from 2003-July 2006.

Furthermore, as the sample respondents of this study are sparsely settled at different corners of the study site, making prolonged interview with the key informants and focus group discussion was really cumbersome with the available time and finance.

1.10. Organization of the Study

The study has five chapters. The first chapter deals with background of the study, statement of the problem, objectives, research questions, operational definition of key terms, theoretical frameworks, rationale and significance of the study, ethical considerations, and scope and limitations of the study. The second chapter is about an overview of related literature and research done. The third and the forth chapters are committed to methodology of the study and data presentation, analysis, and, findings respectively. The last chapter deals with summary, conclusion and recommendations.
CHAPTER II: REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1. Conceptual Framework

2.1.1. Food Security/Insecurity Indicators

The assessment and monitoring of food security/insecurity requires the consideration of different approaches in order to reduce the inaccuracies that might arise during the assessment and monitoring of food security/insecurity. For example, Maxwell & Frankenberger (1992) indicate a variety of indirect and direct indicators for this purpose.

According to the same source, direct indicators of food security include those indicators close to actual food consumption that rely mainly on data gathered or generated through budget expenditure survey and household own perception of food needs. Moreover, these inquiries could indicate the opinion of household regarding their food security status and food frequency assessment. The method involves the collection of minimum amount of food consumption data with focus on about asking different food items and the frequency of consumption through a 24-hour recall survey.

The indirect indicators involve the estimation of food in storage by posing indirect question as people may obscure how much food is in storage, about subsistence potential ratio of the household etc. This can be calculated by annual yield, age and Sex composition of households.

Different scholars, for example, Maxwell & Frankenberger (1992) explained that the collection of data for a complete assessment of food security is usually a difficult task especially in situations where household composition is variable and the household itself is subject to varying interpretations even with the use of these indicators.

In this research, both methods are adopted with a bit modification to assess the level of the households' food security before (for the year 2003) and after (the year 2008) the intervention of the project under study. Accordingly, the direct indicators for the assessment of food security in this study include frequency and daily food intake of the households while the
indirect indicators include beneficiaries’ potential to produce or buy food resources from market. In addition, asset possession of the beneficiaries could be either direct or indirect indicators of food security.

2.1.2. Measuring Food Security /Insecurity

Different scholars for example, Maxwell (1996) and Deverux (1993) revealed that the collection of data for a complete assessment of food security is usually a difficult task. This is because of households’ subject to varying interpretation on their food status, memory lapses, observer bias, and respondent fatigue.

According to Frankenberger (1995), despite the existence of measurement problems, there are two major methods to assess food security. The first is to estimate the gross household production and purchases over a period, and to estimate the amount of food that comes into the household to be consumed. The other method is to undertake a 24 hour recalls of food consumption for individual members of a household and analyze each type of food mentioned for caloric content. This involves the conversion of growth household food consumption into calories and dividing it to the members. This method is mostly convenient for the nutritionists (Frankenberger, 1995).

To arrive at a reliable assessment, the researcher adopted the first method with a bit modification in this research. Accordingly, assessment for the beneficiaries’ food security before the intervention was emphasized in the year just after the intervention (i.e. 2002/3) while the assessment for the beneficiaries’ food security after the intervention was specific to the year just during the assessment (i.e. 2008). To this end, both direct and indirect indicators of food security adopted for this study were applied (See p. 9 of this thesis). Furthermore, as the study was conducted using different tools of data collection instruments that made possible data triangulation it contributed to ensure the reliability and validity of the information obtained.
2.1.3. Integrating Gender Issues in Project Intervention

Integrating gender issues in project intervention refers to the mainstreaming of gender in the formulation, process and outcomes of policies, programs, and projects in order to benefit both female and male from the interventions (UNESCO, 2004).

There are three approaches developed at different times with different concepts in relation to integrating gender issues in project intervention. These are, Women In Development (WID), Women And Development (WAD) and Gender And Development (GAD).

The WID approach is an approach that was common to the period between 1950s and 1960s when several civil rights’ movements took place. It is an approach that intended to integrate women into the existing development projects through raising their productive roles/potentials (Karmarae & Triechler, 1985).

Women And Development (WAD) on the other hand stipulates about the relationship between women and development, unlike the WID approach that focuses just only on the integration of women into development (Code, 2000).

The recent approach, GAD on the other hand, argues that women are active agents of change rather than passive recipients of development assistance. It further reveals that both women and men have to be better integrated into the ongoing development efforts with full empowerment of women. To this end, the existing development policies, strategies, projects etc have to be restructured from gender points of view for the well-being of both women and men or the society in general (Gamble, 2001).

In general context, these gender related approaches (WID, WAD and GAD) argue about the relationship between gender and development in one way or the other, even if, they differ in the way they relate gender and development or vice versa. The researcher believes that these approaches contribute to analyze the approaches used by the project under study to relate gender and development in its intervention.
2.1.4 Indicators for Gender Sensitive Project

UNESCO (2004) identified four stages of project cycle at which gender sensitive indicators have to be clearly stated. The stages include problem identification and preparation (stage one), project design and appraisal (second stage), project implementation (third stage), and implementation completion (the forth stage).

The same source suggests gender sensitive indicators to be addressed at each stage as follow. At the first stage, problem identification and preparation, gender indicators to be put into consideration include initial gender study or analysis to identify the potential negative impacts of the project intervention on women as well as men, designing gender sensitive baseline etc.

The second stage, project design and appraisal, should addresses gender sensitive indicators such as integrating gender issues into the goals and objectives of the project. Under this, issues about who decide up on the objectives and who are to be consulted should be put into consideration i.e. they have to be shared equally by both women and men. In addition, setting clear targets about gender issues, developing capacity to address gender issues and to monitor and evaluate systems, identifying and selecting key gender- sensitive plans for outcomes and impacts are those gender sensitive indicators to be stated at this stage.

At the third stage, project implementation, indicators to be formulated are carrying out capacity development exercises for integrating, monitoring and evaluating gender related issues. These include, gender sensitive data collection based on the selected indicators, monitoring the progress against outcome and targets set for the period under evaluation, and feed results back into the system to allow midterm corrections, assessing progress and make corrections if needed to obtain the expected gender related outcomes.

Gender sensitive indicators to be addressed at the last stage of project intervention or implementation completion include assessing outcomes and impact of gender integration in the overall project context, assessing outcomes and impact or project interventions on both women and men on gender equality and equity.
In this study, the researcher formulated the research questions and objectives of this study based on these gender sensitive indicators for the assessment of the project under study.

2.2. Theoretical Framework

Under this section, concepts related to feminist theories/views on food security/insecurity, integrating gender issues in the project intervention, indicators for gender sensitive projects and food security/insecurity theories are discussed.

2.2.1. Feminist Theories/Views on Food Security/Insecurity

Feminism is the organized movement that promotes equality for women and men in political, economic and social spheres. Feminists believe that women are oppressed due to their gender based on the dominant ideology of patriarchy. Avoiding society of patriarchy will result in liberation for women, men and minorities (Code, 2000).

Four feminist theories are used in this study to analyze the problem understudy. These are Marxist feminist, eco-feminist, radical-libertarian feminist and liberal feminist theories. Though these theories differ from each other in a way of presenting their ideologies, all agree in the equality and equity of female and male in every aspects of life. At the same time, they believe that women are at a subordinate position compared to their male counterpart due to the deep-rooted patriarchal nature of the society. In addition, all of them are committed for the correction of gender based social inequality, even if, they differ in the methods they suggest in ending the problem (Gamble, 2001).

Marxist feminist theory

Marxist feminist theory is the extension of the theories of production expounded by Karl Marx and Fredrick Engle in 19th century in order to examine the economic and material exploitation of women. The theory indicates that with the development of private ownership which laid a base for the later development of capitalist system, men became the ownership of property while women surrendered their economic rights such as access to and control over resources including food supply (Cara, 2003).
This theory is appropriate to analyze the problem under study as the core issue in the theory is about women’s exploitation in economic and material contexts. The problem under study deals with food security/insecurity (one aspect of economic development) and the treatment of female and male in the project under study to end the problem of food insecurity. Therefore, this theory has a decisive say to deal with the issues under study in aspects such as why women have less access in economic development (source of food security) before the intervention of the project under study and how they are after the intervention.

**Eco-feminist Theory**

Eco-feminism is a kind of bio-centric environmental movement with culture and social concerns. It states that there is a bond between the oppression of women and the degradation of environment. Thus, eco-feminist theory focuses about the interconnections between sexism, the domination of nature and other social inequalities. Accordingly, environmental degradation, one of the causes for food insecurity disproportionately affects women because of their sexual division of labor under which women face difficulty to provide their family with food, fuel or water (Gamble, 2001).

This theory is applicable to analyze the problem under study. As discussed above, the key point in eco-feminist theory is about the relationship between environment and women. The theory argues that effect on environment (environmental degradation) directly affects women as they have more connection with the environment due to gender based division of labor in which women have to have more contact with environment in the course of discharging their expected ‘responsibilities’ such as food and water supply for the family (Gamble, 2001). As indicated earlier, the issue under study deals with food insecurity that affects a society partially due to environmental degradation. Thus, this theory is appropriate to analyze variables in this study such as why and how food insecurity (caused by environmental degradation) affects women in general and female-headed households in particular.

**Radical-libertarian feminist theory**

Radical-libertarian feminists believe that femininity and reproduction limit women’s capacity to contribute to the society. Reproductive role reduces women’s role in productive role in
general and implementation of policies, strategies and projects in particular. Radical libertarian feminists thus, like to violate sexual norms and believe that women should control every aspect of their sexuality. They also advocate artificial means of reproduction so that less time is devoted to pregnancy and more time is devoted to ‘worth while things’ (Code, 2000).

This theory is selected to analyze the problem understudied because it stipulates why women have less time in productive or ‘money generating activities’ compared to the male (Gamble, 2001. As indicated before, the theory also reveals that the expected reproductive role of women reduces women’s involvement in productive role. In the present study, this theory helps to relate the ideal of the theory with aspects of the study such as what factors contribute to women’s less benefit from the intervention of the project under study and why project’s intervention differently affects the life of female and male beneficiaries in general and of the project under assessment in particular.

**Liberal feminist theory**

Liberal feminists believe that oppression of women in the society exists because of the way in which women and men are socialized that supports patriarchy and keeps men in power positions. They believe that women have the same mental capacity as their male counterparts and should be given the same opportunities in political, economic and social spheres. Women should have the right to choose, not have their life chosen for them by others. This could be achieved through acts of legislation that demand equal opportunities and rights for women including equal access to jobs and equal pay as well as development and welfare interventions by both governmental and non governmental agencies (Barret, 1988).

This theory is related to the problem under study as it clearly illustrates the reason for women’s subordination in economic, social and other development initiative programs. As can be understand from the above idea of the theory, the central point in the theory is the one that states women are at a disadvantage position in economic, social and development initiative activities due to the socialization of female and male in patriarchal society unlikely (Karmarae & Triechler, 1985). So to say, this theory is sound enough to analyze different
aspects of this study like what activities are assigned to the female and male beneficiaries of the project under study, which gender has more benefit from those activities, is the conditions on ground (pre project intervention) like custom and religious of the community provide equal opportunity to the female and male beneficiaries of the project to benefit from the project under study.

2.2.2. Food Security/ Insecurity Theories
The following theories, which are directly/ indirectly related to food security/insecurity have been considered and focused.

**Food Availability Decline Theory**
This theory reveals that the decline in food availability is due to two factors demographic (such as rapid population growth) and natural hazards (such as drought and flood). The demographic model indicates that population growth takes place geometrically at a high rate while production and means of subsistence increase only exponentially at a lower rate. Therefore, the theory suggests that unless population growth rate is checked, food security can never be kept in pace. The climatic model shows that food insecurity is the product of drought and flood. Therefore, both scarcity and excessive water have an adverse effect upon crops and livestock, which are the sources for food security (Millman & Kates, 1990).

Viewed from gender perspective, however, these models ignore other aspects of food insecurity. Demographic pressure and natural hazards might be the causes for food insecurity as it is stated under the theory. Nevertheless, being these two factors are under control (checked) and food resources are available; some social groups might still suffer from food insecurity. For example, in a patriarchal society where food resource of a family is enough (secured), girls and women still suffer from food insecurity due to gender inequality that disfavor female (Code, 2000).

**Food Entitlement Decline Model**
This model was developed by Sen in 1981. The model stipulates that food availability in the economy or in the market alone can never entitle a person to consume or to food security and
therefore, the model argues that food insecurity can occur without the decline in food availability. The model states that a household may suffer from food insecurity in a region or a country where adequate food is available. Under this condition, food insecurity becomes a matter of lack of access i.e. the inability to produce or purchase food. Accordingly, it is access to food that plays a crucial role in securing command over food security, which in turn is determined by source of entitlement to food (Sen, 1981).

This theory is relatively promising to analyze the situation of people’s food security/insecurity living in different social groups. For example, in the society with patriarchal nature, women are denied of their right to decision-making and access to resources (Code, 2000). Therefore, due to these reasons even where food is available they might face food insecurity.

**Market Failure Model**

This model was developed by Devereux in 1993. The model reveals that food insecurity can happen in two ways, i.e. demand (pull failure) and supply (response failure). Pull failure (demand) refers to people’s lack of purchasing power, which is caused by poverty and can therefore, be explained in terms of lack or collapse of exchange entitlements to food. On the other hand, response failure can happen when market fail to meet peoples’ demand (Devereux, 1993).

This theory is one sided to explain about food security of people living under different social groups. The theory argues that if both demand and supply of food at a market place is solved, then people will be entitled to food security. However, those social categories under a negative position of social strata are still at a risk of food insecurity even after demand and supply problems are solved. For example, in most societies women are excluded from ownership rights, decision-making and access to resources and therefore, being under such circumstance they suffer from food insecurity despite food is available at market place (Sen, 1981).
2.3. Literature Study and Empirical Reviews

2.3.1. Food Security vs Food Insecurity

Food security/ food insecurity as an issue became popular in the 1970's at global level and has been a topic of considerable attention at local, global and national level since then (FAO, 1993). However, there is no universally agreed upon concept on food security or its counter, food insecurity. Different institutions, organizations, academics and policy makers provide food security/insecurity concepts differently.

World Bank report (1986) elaborates, food security as, the access by all people at all times to enough food for an active and healthy life. This concept seems to encompass many issues. It deals with ‘production’ in relation to food availability and ‘distribution’ denoting the produces should be accessed by all, ‘consumption’ in the sense that individuals food needs are met in order that individual remains active and healthy (World Bank in 1986).

According to Getahun (2001) food security means a household's ability to establish conditions and abilities to access productive resource such as land, livestock, agricultural inputs and family labor or other means combined to produce food or cash to purchase it. He also stipulates about the need to link household's ability to generate cash income through various employment and trading opportunities. The above views place much emphasis to the building of households' capacity and assets in achieving food security.

Foster (1992) views food security as physical and economic access by all people at all times to sufficient food in order to meet their dietary requirements for a productive and healthy life. Accordingly, three conditions must be satisfied to ensure food security. Food must be available through national-domestic production and/or imports; food must be accessible or people must have adequate resource to acquire the appropriate food; and food must be utilized in conjunction with adequate water sanitation and health to meet nutritional needs.

Young (1992) stated food security as the ability of household members to assure themselves sustained access to sufficient quantity and quality of food to enjoy active and healthy lives.
This view shows that in the context of food security, quality of food refers to safe and nutritious food. More specifically, the World Health Organization (2000), views food security as a function of production, asset base, exchange or market and consumption. The same source stipulated food insecurity as lack of access to sufficient quantity of safe and nutritious food for an active and healthy life on a sustainable basis.

Maxwell & Frankenberger (1992) considers food security as situations when people’s food system operates at whatever time efficiently in such a way that they can remove the fear that there might be no enough food to eat. Accordingly, it is possible to state that food security is achieved when the poor and vulnerable groups, particularly children, women, the aged and those living in marginal areas of a society would have now access to the required food as reasonably assured their need. This means that in order to achieve food security there should be attempts for more equitable economic growth with equal access among all sections of a society.

In the Ethiopian context, different groups of researchers after examining various concepts forwarded by World Health Organization (2000 on food security including that of World Bank (1986) have formulated a definition that better applies to Ethiopian situation. Food security in the Ethiopian context is therefore, conceptualized as the ability of all Ethiopian peoples to assure sustained access to sufficient quantity and quality of food at all times to lead active and healthy lives (Taye, 1999).

2.3.2. Food Security at Micro and Macro Levels

For several years there was a tendency to understand the issue of food security only from the supply side i.e. adequate supply of food at global and national levels by giving little or no emphasis to access at the micro-level/household food demand (FAO, 1996; Foster, 1992; Yared, 1999 and Melaku, 2002),

The concept of national food security is clearly different from food security at household level. The former refers to food security at regional or local level while the later refers to access to food allocation at household or family level (Taye, 1999 and FAO, 1996). With
respect to the former, many countries that used to be considered as self-sufficient in food were found to be food insecure (Getahun, 2001). This shows that achieving macro level (national) food self-sufficiency does not necessarily ensure food security at micro or household level (FAO, 1998 cited in Getahun, 2001).

According to Borton and Shoam (1991) cited in Yared (1999), the food crisis that has repeatedly plagued most parts of the world in general and many countries of the Sub Saharan Africa in particular since the mid of 1970s and more in the mid-1980s was followed by a radical shift in the way food security was conceptualized over time. This in turn, contributed to the recognition of food insecurity at micro level and for the idea that food security could occur in situations where food is available but not accessible because of lack of people's entitlement to food.

In addition, prominent scholars' views of this period on food entitlement also contributed a considerable influence on this shift. For example, according to Sen (1981), food security flows from possession that then constitutes one's entitlements. Accordingly, entitlements fall into any one or more of the following four categories. These are ownership through commodity exchange (trade-based entitlement), the right to own what one grows on the farm (production-based entitlement), the sale of one's labor power for the purposes of earning income so as to purchase food (own-labor entitlement), and the right to own what is given by others /inheritance and transfer entitlements.

Another scholar, Lorraine (2000) cited in Getahun (2001) stipulated that in most societies where food resources are at surplus condition, even, some members of the same household are not equally entitled to it. She further indicates that in such societies, despite food resources are available at household; women and girls suffer from food insecurity just because of their being female.

As a result, global perception on food security/insecurity has been changed since the mid 1980s. These changes in the conceptualization of food security were well captured by Maxwell (1996) in two ways: first, a switch from a relatively narrow focus on food security
to a broader emphasis on livelihood, and second more emphasis on the household rather than on the level of the nation or region as the appropriate unit of analysis.

2.3.3. Constraints to Household Food Security

As discussed above, food security is a complex phenomenon attributed to a range of factors that vary across regions, countries and social groups as well as over time. These factors range from immediate factors that affect food supply at a household level to the basic factors that affects the overall food security of a given country. Specially, food insecurity at the household level arises from several causes and is devastating when more than one cause occur together (Devereux, 1993 and Mulat, 1995).

According to the same source, the state of household food security is mainly conditioned by factors that are related to the process of food production/acquisition, household management strategies and other socio-economic conditions of the society. Devereux (1993) further underlines that household food security is generally affected by two major determinants. The first is lack of access to different resources like cash, land and market while the other is lack of public services that have greater impact in determining the possibility of increasing entitlement to food.

Young (1992) and Debebe (1995) stipulated that demographic and socio-economic variables like size of the household, age and sex composition of the household, whether the head of the household is female or male and literacy level are the major factors to household food security.

According to Ashmingo and Hella (2000) in their study in Iringa district of Tanzania, households with more farm land and cultivated plots, those with higher literacy level, households with large number of oxen and farming tools, young farmers, male headed households and those with few dependents were found to be more food secure than others.

The Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia (2003) revealed factors such as adverse change in climate, poor technology, soil degradation, and policy induced as well as program
implementation problems, the absence of off-farm income opportunities and delayed food aid are cited as problems that have resulted in a serious and growing problem of food insecurity in Ethiopia.

Kifle and Yoseph (1999) attributed the food insecurity situation in Ethiopia to the combination of human-made as well as natural factors like fragile natural resource base, inadequate and variable rainfall, improper farming practices, lack of access to improved inputs, loss in arable land, poor storage technology, poor transport and infrastructure, unfavorable population growth, civil war as well as program implementation problems have resulted in a serious and growing problem of food insecurity in Ethiopia.

Consistence with the above idea, Dagnew (2000) summarized that the major factors that contributed to food insecurity in Ethiopia include: the widening gap between food production and population growth, continuing degradation of the natural resource base, natural disaster (recurring drought), a limited access to agricultural technologies and inputs, lack of an appropriate development policy, lack of access to formal credit and banking, weak private sector investment in agricultural input/output marketing related services, displacement of people and women’s lack of equal access to resources.

Degefa (2002) in his study of household seasonal food insecurity and causes in Oromia Zone, summarized that the presumed cause that induces low agricultural production in general and household food insecurity in particular into four broad categories. These are environmental, economic, demographic, social and infrastructure constraints. For instance, under social constraints, he indicated that female and male-headed households are differently exposed to food insecurity. Here, he stipulated that due to lack of access to resources such as land and credit, female-headed households are more vulnerable to food insecurity compared to that of male headed.
2.3.4. Constraints to the Role of Women in Food Security

World Food Summit (2004) revealed that the major constraint that reduces women’s role in food security is attributed to women’s low access to productive resources. According to the same source, the laws governing women’s rights to land vary widely. Some religious laws forbid female from having landownership. Even in a country where civil law gives women the right to inherit land, local custom may rule otherwise. UN Social and Economic Council (2004) stipulated that in developing countries such as Sub-Saharan Africa where women have prime responsibility for food production, they are generally limited to user rights to land only with the consent of the male.

The problem of women’s land rights directly results in an inability to use land as collateral to obtain access to credit. In addition, social and cultural barriers, women’s lower educational levels, and their lack of familiarity with loan procedures also limit women’s mobility and interaction with predominantly male credit officers or moneylenders (FAO 1996).

The same source also indicated that women do not have an appropriate share of agricultural device and other services, less chance to get agricultural training, lack of basic education, and these directly affect women’s role in sustainable food.

2.3.5. Ways to Improve Women’s Role in Food Security

The 1996 Food and Agricultural Organization report revealed that the potential remedies to improve women’s role in food security in particular and agricultural development in general include: preparing policies and strategies that increase women’s rights to land, equitable plan to benefit both female and male, to increase the number of women trained as agricultural extension agents and to give agricultural training to women working as community development or home economics officers.

In line with this, UN Economic and Social Council (2004) stipulated that providing agricultural training for both female and male farmers reduce or remove the cultural constraints against the interaction between male extension agents and female farmers and would enable the women in the groups to share information among themselves.
Food and Agricultural Organization (1996) also acknowledged that agricultural research institutions, policy makers etc also need to make use of women’s indigenous knowledge of farming systems that has been largely untapped.

2.3.6. Global and Developing Countries’ Food Security

FAO (1996) estimated that 20% of world’s population suffers from hunger and about eight hundred of them are under chronic malnutrition. According to the same source, this problem is very common across eighty-eight countries around the world whereby about half are situated in sub-Saharan Africa. Consistent with this, the 2004 World Food Summit estimate for people living with food insecurity indicated that about 840 million people around the world are living with food insecurity whereby developing countries host about 799 million of the total.

United Nations Food Program/UNFP (2002) revealed that about two billion people around the world lack access to sufficient, safe and nutritional food needs to fulfill their health life. The same source stipulated that more than half of the world’s population lives in low income in order to produce or import adequate food. In line with this, World Food Summit (2004) indicated that due to unbalanced growth of world population and grain production, soil degradation combined with environmental degradation and management, global food insecurity will remain a sever problem in the coming decades. On average, global grain harvest growth rate was only 1% while global population growth was 1.6 % in the past decade (UNFP, 2002).

According to World Bank (2005), about 1.2 billion people around the world live in a state of absolute poverty on the equivalent of 1 US$ a day or less while about 2.8 billion people subsist on 2 US$ per day. The same source indicated that about 790 million people in developing countries lacked adequate access to food and in relative terms, the highest proportion of food-insecure people live in sub-Saharan Africa, followed by South Asia.

The horn of Africa, part of sub-Saharan Africa is one of the most food insecure regions of the world. The region hosts about 160 million people of which 72,000,000 (about 45%)
live under the condition of food shortage. In the region around 13 million people are recognized to be in need of relief assistance (UNFP, 2002).

2.3.7. Food Security in Ethiopia

Mesfield (2001) revealed that for more than a century, Ethiopia has been highly affected by hunger and famine due to both natural and human-made causes. The same source stipulated that about half of the country’s population is estimated to be food insecure. Along with this, CSA (2002) demographic and healthy survey revealed that among children under five years, 52% are stunted and about 47% are under weight.

The 1992 IGAD cited in Federal Democratic Ethiopia (2003) food security study on drought and development revealed that Ethiopia has the highest number of food insecure people in Sub-Saharan Africa. The same source revealed that both chronic food insecurity, which originates mainly from a high ratio of urban unemployment and limitations of rural landholdings, and transitory food insecurity that emanates from recurring disasters (mainly drought), displacement of people and refugee inflows are serious in the country.

The medically recommended daily minimum average calorie requirement for a person is estimated at 2,100 calories per day, which represents stable food self-sufficiency (World Health Organization/WHO, 2000). According to Dagnew (2000) however, the current average figure in Ethiopia is not more than 1,700 K. cal for the country as a whole.

According to the 1994 Central Statistics Authority’s household survey result, the national average calories intake per person per day in Ethiopia was 1938.6, despite, there was significant variation among regional state of the country and between people living in rural and urban areas. This indicates that Ethiopia remains to be one of the most food-insecure countries in the world.

According to Taye (1999), the number of population in Ethiopia in need of annual food assistance has not fallen below two million during this period. Moreover, during 1990s the numbers of beneficiaries were above three million, despite abundant harvest in 1995 and
1996. Dagnew (2000) also revealed that in the year 2000, some eight million people were identified in need of relief assistance.

Workineh (2004) in his research conducted on the reasons for food insecurity of farm households on south Wollo of Amahara region stipulated that the proportion of population below food poverty line in rural areas was about 41% in 1999/00 and 47% in 1995/96. The same source indicated that the population in urban areas under poverty rose from 32% in 1995/96 to 47% in 1999/00.

The Federal Republic of Ethiopia (2003) report on food security revealed that there were about 1.2 million people added to the previous 11.3 million people identified as in need of food aid making the total population with food insecurity 12.6 million people in the year 2003. According to the same source, households with land scarcity and shortage of cash to buy inputs are mainly victims of food insecurity. Consistent with this, Taye (1999) and Dagafe (2005) indicates that female-headed households, elderly and children are those groups categorized under the vulnerable groups.

The nutrition survey conducted on Tenta district of South Wollow by CARE Ethiopia (2003) indicated that the population suffering from acute malnutrition and severe acute malnutrition represent 11.9 and 1.2 percent respectively. The case represents 12.9 and 1.7 percent respectively in Omo Sheleko zone of Southern Nation Nationalities and People of Ethiopia (CARE Ethiopia, 2003).

The study conducted in North Showa zone of Oromia region revealed that nutrition situation is precarious in Hidhabu Abote district of the zone despite, mortality rates were under control (Oromia Food Security Disaster Prevention and Preparedness, 2003).

In line with this, the same source stipulated that in the nutrition survey carried out in west and East Hararghe zones of Oromia regional state the areas have been affected by drought year after years since 2002, and food grain prices have remained high and income opportunities were limited. The study further revealed that in East Hararghe zone, the nutrition situation in the lowlands of four districts was very serious. These districts include
Zigway, Adamitulu, and Jido where mortality rate was also very high (Oromia Food Security Disaster Prevention and Preparedness, 2003).

2.4. Research Gap Identified

According to the researcher’s knowledge, the identified gap from the review of the above literature studies is lack of studies on project or program assessment from a gender perspective with special reference to food security projects at Kuyu project site. So in order to address the identified gap, this stimulating research has been conducted by the researcher.
CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY

3.1. Methods of Study

The study is an assessment-based research that dealt with the assessment of World Bank Food Security Project in Oromia Regional State from a gender perspective with special reference to Kuyu project site. The study was conducted on mixed methods of data generating approaches and these approaches were applied with in both qualitative and quantitative research methods. This contributed for the triangulation of data obtained from different sources using different instruments of data collection.

3.1.1. Quantitative Approach

Quantitative research is a kind of research that relies upon measurement to analyze different variables and uses various scales. This is a formal, objective and systematic process which aims to describe, compare and analyze different variables (Bless, & Higso, 2000). In this study, quantitative method was used to gather data from the beneficiaries of the project through a structured questionnaire.

3.1.2. Qualitative Approach

Qualitative method refers to describing, interpreting and analyzing data gathered through textual explanation and narration in a meaningful manner (Bless, & Higso, 2000).

In this study, qualitative method was applied to supplement or elaborate the information gathered through structured interview and focus group discussion. Document review was also made under this method to assess the baseline study of the project and its proposal from a gender perspective.

3.2. Study Area/ Field Organization

The study site, Kuyu is one of the districts of North Shawa zonal administrative area of Oromia regional state. It is located at about 160 km from Addis Ababa in the north. It has a total landmass of 939.22 km² having different climatic zones ranging from Kola (lowland climate) to Dega (a relatively highland climate). The district has a total population of 148,289 of which female constitute 50.4% (CSA, 2007).
According to the same source, agriculture is the predominant economy of the district. It employs about 90% of the population of the district. The rest 10% engaged in different activities such as petty trade and cottage industry being in the capital city of the district (Gerba Guracha) and other small towns within the district.

### 3.3. Study Population and Sampling Frame

Brink (2002) reveals that a study population is the entire accessible group of persons that is of interest to the researcher or that meets the criteria the researcher is interested in studying. The population of this research was the whole beneficiaries of World Bank food security project in Oromia region. And the beneficiaries at Kuyu project site and the selected 228 respondents from the site were the sampling frame and sampling size of the research respectively.

### 3.4. Sample Size Determination

Sampling is the process of selecting a portion of the population to represent the entire population (Denise, 2001). Bless (2000) stipulates that sampling is to be done because; it is less time consuming and less costly for the researcher to work on a subset of the population. Ten to 15 percent sample size is appropriate to represent the sampling frame (Brink, 2002). The sample size of this study is 10% (228 sample respondents) of the sampling frame (the project has 2280 household beneficiaries at Kuyu site).

The ratio of female sample respondents to the male is 50:50. In fact, as the number of male-heads of household beneficiaries of the project at the study site outshines that of the female, this ratio is not proportional i.e. it has 890 female and 1390 male-heads of household beneficiaries. However, as this research is a gender-based research, the ratio of female to the male sample respondents is purposely made equal.
3.5. Sampling Techniques

3.5.1. Quantitative Sampling Techniques

The quantitative data of this study was obtained through structured questionnaire method of data collection. Systematic random sampling technique was employed to select respondents for this method. This was made using the list of beneficiaries taken from the district office of the project. Every 8th and 12th female and male beneficiaries were selected from the lists respectively. At the absence of nth, the next door was knocked for substitution.

3.5.2 Qualitative Sampling Techniques

In this study, qualitative data was obtained through structured interview and focus group discussion instruments of data collection. Forty respondents were selected for the focus group discussion based on their sex and age. Two groups were formed from female respondents while the rest two were from the male.

Twelve sample respondents were drawn for interview purpose based on purposive sampling technique. These respondents were those beneficiaries of the project whose livelihood was highly improved as a result of the project intervention. Their background was obtained from the district project office. Six of them were female.

Four key respondents were selected from project officers at head office, zonal and district levels as key informants.

3.6. Sources and Instruments of Data Collection

3.6.1. Data sources

Both primary and secondary data were used. The secondary data was obtained from both published and unpublished materials. The published materials included books, journals and articles while the unpublished sources were drawn from the proposal and reports of the project under study. The primary data was collected through three instruments of data collection. These are questionnaire, in-depth interview and focus group discussion.
3.6.2. Instruments of Data collection

Research instrument is the device that a researcher applies to collect the desired data (Denise, 2001). Structured questionnaire was designed and used in the study. Structured interview was applied to get information about integrating gender issues in the project intervention. To this end, interview schedule was designed for the four key informants selected from the project officers.

In-depth interview schedule was designed for 12 respondents selected from the beneficiaries of the project to collect data about food security status of the respondents before and after the intervention and constraints to the respondents in the intervention.

Four focus group discussions each with ten members were formed. These were female between age 18 and 64 (FGD-1), male between age 18 and 64 (FGD-2), female above 64 years old (FGD-3) and male above 64 years old (FGD-4).

3.7. Data Collection Procedure Followed

Data collection procedure refers to the process followed by a researcher to collect the necessary information needed in research (Denise, 2001). At first, oral agreement was made with the officers of the project at the head office to ensure their consent about the assessment of the project. And then, under the facilitation of the officers at the head office, the same thing was done with the coordinators at zonal, district and kebel levels. Finally, the consent of the respondents was obtained with the facilitation of the project officers at district and kebele levels.

Data collection was completed between March and April 2008. Ten high school students were engaged in the survey under the supervision of the researcher. Detail orientation was provided to them by the researcher prior to the work. Focus group discussion and interview were totally conducted by the researcher.
3.8. Methods of Data Analysis

Denise (2001) reveals that data analysis is the process of organizing and synthesizing data in such away that the research questions can be answered and/or the objectives of the research can be achieved. It involves categorizing, ordering, manipulating and summarizing the collected data and describing them in a meaningful term (Brink, 1996). Data analysis of the study was made in such away that they allowed the researcher to address properly the research questions and specific objectives posed in connection with the assessment of the project under study from various dimensions. To this end, textual explanation and narration of the summarized data was applied upon the qualitative data while descriptive statistics such as frequency, percentage, means and range formed a substantial part of analysis for the quantitative data.

Mc Nemar test for significance of change is applicable to know effects of a particular intervention on a selected group by organizing data collected from respondents selected randomly from the sampling frame into ‘before’ and ‘after’ method (Kothar,2007). Mc Nemar test for significance was applied in this study to know the effects of the project intervention on food security status of the beneficiaries after the intervention of the project. This was made possible by arranging the collected data on food security indicators of the respondents such as frequency (times) of daily food intake, items of food in the respondents’ daily food intake, potential to buy food from market and inputs to produce food.

Chi Squire is applicable to test the association with regard to responses of two different groups whether their response is dependent/ independent of the groups’ background for the same question provided to both groups (Kothar, 2007). Chi square was applied in this study to see association on opinion between female and male respondents. This came into practice on aspects of the study like gender sensitivity of the project under study as viewed by female and male respondents and changes brought on the respondents’ attitude on the right to access food as a result of the intervention.
3.9. Research Design

In general, the following table (table 3.1) summarizes the research design of this study.

Table 3.1- Research Design

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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualitative</td>
<td></td>
<td>In-depth Interview</td>
<td>purposive</td>
<td>Beneficiaries of the project</td>
<td>Textual explanation</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td></td>
<td>FGD</td>
<td>purposive</td>
<td>Beneficiaries of the project</td>
<td>Textual explanation</td>
<td>20</td>
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<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>Document Review</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Narration and textual explanation</td>
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<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>114</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Source: Developed by the researcher)
CHAPTER IV: DATA PRESENTATION, FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS

4.1. Demographic and Socio-Economic Profile of the Study Respondents

4.1.1. Distribution of Respondents by Age, Marital Status and Religion

Most of the sample respondents were in age group between 15 and 64. They constituted 79.5% of the whole while those in age group below 15 and above 64 represented 6.25 and 14.5 percents respectively. Please see table-4.1.1 on page 36.

As illustrated in table 4.1.1, female respondents in the survey constituted 9.8% of those in age group below 15 where as male in this category were only 2.3%. In the age group above 64, female and male respondents represented 13.6 and 15 percents, respectively.

Table-4.1.1 also shows that the majority of the sample respondents in the survey were married. They constituted 45.35% followed by widowed and divorced. The former represented 36.36% while the later was 13%. The other 5.11% were never married.

As one can understand from table 4.1.1, marital status of the female sample respondents is quiet different from that of the male. The current study revealed that 68.2% of the female sample respondents were widowed while the vast majority (83%) of the male was married. The divorced female and male sample respondents represented 17 and 9.1 percents respectively.

Regarding religion, the majority of the respondents 86.4% in the survey were adherents of Orthodox. A few (6.91%) of them were Muslims and the rest 6.35% were from other religions. Table 4.1.1 summarizes the distribution of the sample respondents by age, marital status and religion.
Table 4.1.1 - Distribution of respondents by age, marital status and religion
(Source: Survey conducted from March - April 2008)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Background Information</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age Group</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below 15</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-64</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>76.6</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 64</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13.6</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>88</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Marital Status</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never Married</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Widowed</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>68.2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>88</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Religion</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orthodox</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muslim</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>88</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Age group classification was made putting into consideration about productive age (15-64), youth dependent age (below 15) and old age dependent (above 64).
Twenty of the sample respondents in the focus group discussion were in age group between 15 and 64, while the rest two were in the age group above 64. All the sample respondents in the interview method were in age group of 15-64.

Five of the female sample respondents in the focus group discussion were married; two were divorced while the rest 13 were married. All the male respondents in the focus group discussion were married. Two of the female in the interview method were married and the rest four were widowed. The entire male in the interview method were married.

All the sample respondents in the focus group discussion and interview method are adherents of Orthodox. Two of the key informants are adherents of protestant while the rest two are followers of Orthodox.

Women Watch Ethiopia (2007) revealed that in most parts of Ethiopia, girls are much exposed to lead their families at earlier age either due to early marriage or due to deprivation of their right to join formal education. The same source stipulated that in rural Ethiopia, the life expectancy of female heads of households is below the male. In line with this, the distribution of sample respondents of this study by age indicated in table 4.1.1 stipulated that girls have the responsibility to lead family at earlier age compared to the boys and life expectancy of female heads of household is relatively less compared to the male heads.

The Transitional Government of Ethiopia (1994) with National Policy on Ethiopian Women revealed that due to the male domination; at the absence of husband, Ethiopian women’s roles in the family are not visible. Consistent with this, for the sample respondents of this study, the reason for a family to be headed by female is the death of male partner (widowed) followed by divorce while still a few female are forced to head their family before marriage i.e. most of the child head sample respondents in this study are female. And also, the probability of female to head their family in marriage is less probable.

Ministry of Education (2006) with annual educational abstract in Ethiopia indicates that girl’s school drop out rate is very high compared to the boys because of that girls are under the
pressure to take the responsibility of their family in the absence/presence of father and/or mother. In line with this, the number of female sample respondents in this study who have the responsibility to lead their family before marriage is as twice as that of the male.

### 4.1.2. Family Size of the Sample Respondents

As shown in fig. 4.1.1 below, the household size of above half (54.5%) of the sample respondents in the survey were in between 6 to 9. Respondents with 3-6 family size were 29.5%. For both female and male sample respondents of this study, the probability to have a family size with 1-3 and above 9 was very low.

Fig. 4.1.1 Household size of the sample respondents

![Household Size of Sample Respondents](image)

(Source: Survey conducted from March- April 2008)

Thirty six of the sample respondents in the focus group discussion have 6-9 family size, 2 were with 3-6, and 1 was with 1-3 while another 1 had above 9 family sizes. All the sample respondents for the interview have family size of 6-9.
4.1.3. Distribution of Respondents by Education

As illustrated in fig. 4.1.2 below, compared to the male sample respondents, the majority of female were unschooled. They constituted 68.5% while male respondents at the same level were 68.4%. About 8% of the male sample respondents were at secondary level while female respondents at this level were only 2%. Fig 4.1.2 below presents the distribution of sample respondents by education.

![Fig. 4.1.2-Distribution of Sample Respondents by Education](image)

(Source: Survey conducted from March- April 2008)

Thirty-two of the sample respondents in the focus group discussion were unschooled, 6 were at primary level while the rest 2 were at secondary level. Two of the key informants were at high school level; 4 were at primary level while the rest six were unschooled.

The focus group discussion made with female respondents with in age group of 18-64 revealed that compared to the boys, girls have less access to formal education. The focus group discussion also indicated that this is mainly due to the gender-based division of activities. They further discussed as follow:

*In our locality, boys are socialized to perform activities such as cattle keeping that consume less time i.e. early in the morning boys take cattle to the field and return them from the field just after 6:00 pm. On the other hand, activities assigned to the*
Girls are those activities that consume much time such as child bearing and cooking food. These activities are time consuming compared to the boys. Therefore, girls have less time to join formal education (Focus group discussion conducted at district development committee office, in April 2008).

According to the Ministry of Education (2006), educational annual abstract in Ethiopia, even if, enrollment rate at primary level is showing an increasing trend for female students as the level of education increases, the enrollment of girls in education decreases in the country. In line with this, the result of the current study indicated that female sample respondents at primary level is promising but at the secondary level, the gender gap is wide indicating the status of girls at enrollment is less compared to the boys.

4.1.4. Distribution of Respondents by Occupation

As the project under study emphasizes on rural farmers, all of the sample respondents of this study were farmers. Most (80.1%) of the sample respondents in the survey live on mixed farming, while 13.1 and 6.8 percents are engaged in animal husbandry and grain production respectively.

Almost, there was no much disparity with regard to the occupation of the sample respondents based on gender except that the number of female engaged in agricultural farming is relatively less. In this activity, female sample respondents represented only 3.4% while there are about 10% male respondents. The detail is indicated in table 4.1.2(P.41).
Table 4.1.2- Distribution of sample respondents by occupation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Sample respondents</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Freq.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Freq.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Freq.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agricultural farming</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10.23</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Animal husbandry</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13.6</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>12.50</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed farming</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>82.9</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>77.27</td>
<td>141</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>176</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Source: Survey conducted from March- April 2008)

Of the sample respondents in the focus group discussion, 34 are engaged in mixed farming, four in animal husbandry and two in agricultural farming. Ten of the sample respondents in the in depth interview live on mixed farming while the rest two are engaged in animal rearing.

4.2. An Assessment of the Project Cycles from a Gender Perspective

4.2.1. Baseline Study/Need Assessment

In 2001 a baseline study was conducted by the project under study on three districts namely Chiro, Goro Gutu and Ginir located in three Zones of Oromia region: West Hararghe, East Hararghe and Bale respectively. In this baseline study, need assessment was made for the intervention up on 500 households whereby the ratio of female to the male heads of households was 50:50 (World Bank Food Security Project, 2003).

The baseline study of the project revealed that all the households were in the condition of chronic food insecurity that urged for food aid. The baseline study also indicated that female headed households, children below 5 and poorer women were more vulnerable to the problem.
The same source revealed that this need assessment was used as a ground for the pilot intervention carried out in the three selected districts of the region in 2002/3 fiscal year. Later, the baseline study was also generalized for the rest project sites.

UNESCO (2004) with its principle for gender sensitive projects revealed that, gender sensitivity of a project starts with its baseline study. More or less the baseline study of the project under study matches with this idea. As discussed on p.41, respondents in the project’s baseline study were equally drawn from both female and male. Moreover, the result of the project’s baseline study revealed that female-headed households and poorer women were among the most vulnerable segments of the society to food insecurity.

4.2.2. Project Design and Appraisal

According to UNESCO (2004), gender sensitive indicators to be addressed at the stage of project design and appraisal include: integrating gender issues into the goals and objectives of the project, to determine who will decide up on the goals and objectives (i.e. should be from both female and male), and setting gender sensitive indicators for monitoring and evaluation.

4.2.2.1. Goal and Objectives of the Project

As indicated earlier, stating goal and objectives of a project is one aspect of project design and appraisal. The present study revealed that some of the objectives of the project are gender responsive. For example, one of the project’s specific objectives says:

*The overall goal of the project is to build up the resource base of the poorer rural households, to increase their employment and incomes, to reduce their real cost of food and improve their nutritional levels by giving more attention to female-headed households, poorer women and children below 5 year (Project proposal of World Bank Food Security in Oromia, 2003:8).*

In addition, there are several points that consider women’s historical discrimination due to patriarchal nature of the society. Issues such as women’s ownership right, raising women’s
productive role and improving their reproductive role are clearly underlined under the objectives of the project.

The interview conducted with the project officers also stipulated that the project is a community based at which both female and male are encouraged to promote their participation in the benefit. A series of trainings were arranged for the female heads of households to build up their participation. The interview further revealed that the project attempted to involve both female and male to decide upon the goals and objectives of the project from the beginning. Nevertheless, the ratio of female to male involved was 1:3 for the reason that there was less number of qualified women (Interview conducted with a project officer at head office, April 2008)

The WAD (Women And Development) approach argues that women are active development actors. The approach also revealed that development needs women and vice versa (Code, 2000). The same source revealed that due to the existing gender inequality, women have been given limited opportunity to involve in development programs or their role is invisible. To end such problem, the approach acknowledges equal participation of female and male in program and/or project formulation as well as coordination (Code, 2000). The specific objectives of the project under study discussed on p.42 are in line with this approach as they promise to address women's problem in project and/or program intervention through providing women's access to productive resources and initiating women's participation in the intervention of the project through trainings.

4.2.2.2. Indicators of the Project

The current study revealed that some of the project’s indicators are gender responsive. Gender sensitive elements such as monitoring and evaluating about equal and equitable benefits of both female and male headed household beneficiaries, ensuring women's ownership and transfer rights are stated under the indicators of the project under study.

The other gender responsive indicator of the project is the one that acknowledges special training and convenient working conditions for the female beneficiaries. With this indicator,
issues such as women’s access to productive inputs such as land are clearly stated. One of the female key informants of the present study responded on this indicator as follow:

_Previously, a serious problem of female heads of households was lack of access to productive resources such as land. This was because of that with the death of male partner, the family’s possession over the land was provided to the male relatives either by the custom or even sometimes through force. Currently, the training given by the project coordinators, ‘female beneficiaries’, representatives at district and kebele levels, this problem is getting solved by allowing female heads of household beneficiaries the right to own property and use the opportunity of the intervention (Interview conducted with a female key informant, district Women’s Affairs head in March 2008)._\

The indicator of the project discussed earlier has consistency with the principle set for gender sensitive indicators of projects by UNESCO in 2004.

**4.2.3. Approach of the Project**

The approach of the project under study in the intervention is a credit base in which the beneficiaries are encouraged to form associations to get the credit. The proposal of the associations for the credit should indicate at least one of the following two things. The first is income-generating activities that include off farming, animal husbandry, mixed agriculture etc. The second is a community asset building activities such as road construction. This is based on the assumption that these two intervention approaches contribute to the beneficiaries’ food security either directly or indirectly (WBFSP, 2003).

The focus group discussion made with the female respondents (age 18 to 64) revealed that female heads of household beneficiaries have been encouraged to engage in income generating activities such as dairy, cattle production, goat and sheep fattening while the male beneficiaries have been encouraged in activities such as micro irrigation, and oxen fattening (Focus group discussion conducted at Kebele development association office, April 2008).
For this gender based division of activities in the project’s intervention, the interview conducted with the project officer at head office is stipulated as follow:

*The activities in which women are encouraged to take part are those activities that are believed to be 'near home and simple' while that of male are those activities assumed to be 'hard and outdoor'. This is because still women are highly responsible with reproductive roles and this is therefore, to reduce their expense with time and energy (Interview conducted with a project officer at head office in April 2008)*

Gender based division of activities aggravates gender discrimination whereby women assume the lower position while the male remain the beneficiaries (Khwshen, 2006; Code, 2000 and Gamble, 2001). The finding of the current study in relation to the activities assigned to the female and male beneficiaries of the project under study is consistence with this argument

4.2.4. Project Coordination

The proposal of the project revealed that the administration of the project is structured at four levels. These are: the Head Office, District Development Committee, District Facilitation Team and Kebele (small administrative area under district) Development Committee. The head office facilitates the formation of the three committees (Proposal of the project under study, 2003).

Further it stipulates that at District Development Committee women should be represented at least by one person. And this representative is usually either from head of the district women’s affairs secretarial office or the head of the district women’s association. At Kebele Development Committee, women have also been represented by one person who is usually a chairperson of the Kebele Women’s Association. Women have also to be represented by one person at the district facilitation team.

During data collection period of this study (March-April 2008), at district development committee level there were two women representatives. One was the chairperson of the district women’s affairs secretarial office while the other was head of the district women’s association. The district facilitation team and kebel development committee had one women
representative at each level. As each administrative committee comprises ten members (WBFSP, 2003), the ratios of female to male representatives at the district development, district facilitation team and kebele development were 2:8, 1:9 and 1:9 respectively.

In line with this, in the survey conducted for this study 85.2% of the female and 56.8% of the male sample respondents indicated that the project did not provide equal chance for female and male beneficiaries to participate in the associations of the beneficiaries’ proposal design. Female and male sample respondents who pointed out that the project “did not equally involve female and male beneficiaries in the beneficiaries associations’ and coordination” were 71.5 and 54.5 percents respectively. These respondents responded that male have a decisive say in both proposal design of the beneficiaries’ associations and project coordination. The detail is indicated in table 4.2.1 below.

Table 4.2.1-Sample respondents’ opinion on gender sensitivity of the beneficiaries associations’ proposal design and coordination

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Equal participation of female and male in the proposal design of beneficiaries’ associations</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>85.2</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>56.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>14.8</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>43.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$X^2$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>17.25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Equal participation of female and male in the coordination of the beneficiaries’ associations</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>71.5</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>54.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>28.5</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>55.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$X^2$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Table value for $X^2=3.841$ at df=1 and 5 % level of confidence)
Chi Square was applied to test whether the opinion of the respondents is dependent/independent of their being female or male in relation to the above gender sensitive indicators. The computed value was 17.25 for equal participation of female and male beneficiaries in the beneficiaries associations’ proposal design gender sensitive indicators and 5.4 for equal participation of female and male beneficiaries in the beneficiaries associations’ coordination. The opinion of the sample respondents on the issues is therefore; significantly dependent of their being female or male i.e. both computed values (17.25 and 5.4) are greater than the table value of 3.841.

As discussed on p.46, the calculated Chi Square ($X^2$) to see the significance in difference between the opinion of female and male respondents’ result indicated that their response is dependent of their gender. Most of the female sample respondents agreed that ‘the project did not provide equal chance for the female and male beneficiaries to take part in the design of their association’s project proposal in particular and coordination of the associations in general’. Contrary to this, most (above 55%) of the male sample respondents agreed that “the project provided equal chance for female and male beneficiaries in the beneficiaries associations’ proposal design as well as its coordination”.

When we come to the secondary data, the project document itself reveals that equal opportunity was not given to the female and male beneficiaries in the associations’ proposal design and coordination. Accordingly, the ratio of female to male in the project design was 1:3 and female beneficiaries’ participation in the beneficiaries associations’ coordination at all levels was below 1/3. Therefore, the opinion of the female sample respondents on gender sensitivity of the project under study with special reference to project design and coordination discussed above correlates with the reality on ground about the project under study as viewed in the lens of the secondary data obtained from the project under study.

The interview conducted with women’s representative at district development committee of the project under study also stipulated that most of the issues discussed at committee levels were usually finalized in favor of the males as they are the dominant (more represented) in the committees.
Radical feminists argue that even if, men know that women are at a disadvantage position in all spheres of life such as social, political and economic benefits they do not want to express the reality (Karamara & Triechier, 1985). In the same way, Marxist feminists argued that in order to ensure the hierarchy between female and male where the male assume dominant position, men knowingly hide women’s economic exploitation in patriarchal society (Cara, 2003). Supporting this, Barret (1982) & Humm (1990) stated that women are less represented in decision-makings that directly or indirectly affect their economic, political and social benefits. The finding of this research on gender sensitivity of the project under study discussed on p.46 is in line with the above points, as the male sample respondents indicated that there was equal participation of female and male beneficiaries in the beneficiaries associations’ proposal design and coordination while the reality on ground was the opposite.

The Liberal feminists argue that historically, women are excluded from activities such as policy formulation, program coordination as well as influencing them as they are less represented in such activities (Code, 2000). They also believe that this condition is the major reason that puts women at a subordinate position to benefit from programs and/or projects’ intervention (Gambe, 2001). Likewise, the finding of this study discussed on p.46 stipulated that female beneficiaries are less represented in the decision making activities of the project under study that directly / indirectly reduced their benefit from the intervention.

FAO (1996) stipulated that due to the existence of gender bias and gender blindness among patriarchal societies; policy makers, project designers and agricultural service deliverers provide male a decisive say in the intervention of programs and/or projects over the female. The finding of this study discussed on p.46 with special reference to female beneficiaries less representation in the beneficiaries associations’ proposal design and coordination is also consistence with this argument.
4.2.5. Food Security Status of the Beneficiaries before and after the Intervention

As indicated under the chapter two of this thesis both direct and indirect indicators of food security were adapted to measure food security status of the sample respondents before and after the intervention of the project under study. Four questions related to food security’s indicator were directed to the sample respondents and the result is presented in table 4.2.2.

As can be seen from table 4.2.2 (p.51), before the intervention of the project, the sample respondents responded that only 5.7% of the family of female respondents and 8% of the male were having 3 to 4 food items in their daily food intake. Sample respondents with families having a frequency (times of food intake) of 3 to 4 daily food intake represented 3.4% of the female and 4.5% of the male respondents before the intervention.

As illustrated in the table 4.2.2, after the intervention of the project, female and male respondents with families having 3 to 4 food items in their daily food intake rose to 52.3 and 61.4 percents, respectively. Sample respondents with families having 3 to 4 frequency of daily food intake were also showed an increasing trend after the intervention. It was 56.8% for female and 47.7% for the male sample respondents.

MC Nemar test was applied to measure statistical significance of the change brought as a result of the intervention on the two direct indicators of the respondents’ food security discussed above. The value of the test was 41 for the female and 45 for the male respondents having families with 3 to 4 food items. The same test indicated a value of 45 for female and a value of 36 for the male respondents with families having 3 to 4 frequency of daily food intakes. Accordingly, the project under study has contributed improving the direct indicators of food security of the respondents as all of the calculated values for the test were much larger than the value required for being significant. Hence, at df=1 and 5% level of confidence, for MC Nemar test a table value of 3.841 is taken as significant.

With regard to the indirect indicators of food security adapted to measure food security status of the beneficiaries of the project under study, the survey conducted indicated that only 2.3%
of the female and 6.8% of the male respondents had the potential to buy enough food for their families before the intervention. The survey also stipulated that only 9.1% of the female and 13.6% of the male respondents had enough inputs to produce food for their families before the intervention.

As shown in table 4.2.2, after intervention of the project, sample respondents with enough money to buy sufficient food for their families rose to 51.1% for the female and 59% for the male. The survey also revealed that respondents with enough inputs to produce sufficient food for their families showed an increasing trend after the intervention. After the intervention, 43.2 and 72.3 percents of the female and male respondents have enough inputs to produce sufficient food for their families respectively.

As to the direct indicators, Mc Nemar formula was applied to test the statistical significance of the change brought up on the indirect indicators of food security of the sample respondents as a result of the intervention. The value of the test was 41 for the female and 44 for the male respondents who have the potential (money) to buy enough food for their families while the values for the respondents who have enough inputs to produce sufficient food for their families represented 28 for the female and 50 for the male respondents.

In general term, the project played a role in improving the indirect indicators of the beneficiaries’ food security as all of the calculated values for the test were far greater than the necessary value for significance. The detail is presented in table 4.2.2(p.51).
Table 4.2.2- Food security status of the respondents before and after the intervention

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Food Security Indicators</th>
<th>Before Intervention</th>
<th>After Intervention</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Direct indicators</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family with 3-4 food items in daily food intake</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>94.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family with 3-4 times of daily food intake</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>96.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Potential to buy food from market</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>97.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enough inputs to produce food</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>90.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Source: Survey conducted from March- April 2008)
4.2.6. Respondents’ Asset Possession before and after the Intervention

As indicated under the definition of key terms (P.7), asset possession of the beneficiaries could be either direct or indirect indicators of food security. Some of them could be consumed directly by the people (beneficiaries) to ensure their food security while some of them serve either as inputs to produce food or as an income to buy food from market. Accordingly, asset possession of the beneficiaries of the project under study is categorized into two groups. These are grain production and livestock ownership.

I. Grain production of the sample respondents before and after the intervention

Table 4.2.3 (p.53) shows that only few, on average 1.4% for female and 3.2% for male of the sample respondents had yearly production of 1 to 5 quintals of grain before the intervention. From this, it can be said that for the whole grain items listed in table 4.2.3, approximately above 98% of the female and about 97% of the male sample respondents had yearly production of less than five quintals before the intervention. However, the study stipulated that asset possession of the beneficiaries showed an increasing trend for grain production after the intervention of the project. For most (on average 81% of the female and 76% of the male) of the sample respondents, their grain production grew to 5-10 quintals. And also after the intervention, 2% of the female and 8% of the male sample respondents reached the stage of above ten quintals for the whole grain production on average.
Table 4.2.3-Grain production of the sample respondents before and after the intervention.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grain production in Quintal</th>
<th>Before intervention (for the year 2002/03)</th>
<th>After intervention (for the year 2007/08)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F %</td>
<td>F %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teff</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>22</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>平均*</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Average is appropriate as the grain items mentioned in the above table differ from each other.

II. Livestock possession of the beneficiaries before and after the intervention

As illustrated in the table 4.2.4 (P.54), only a few (on average 9.4% of the female and 12% of the male) of the sample respondents had 2 to 4 livestock for the whole livestock listed in table 4.2.4 and no one of them had donkeys and horses before the intervention. For example, respondents with 2-4 oxen represented 2.3% the male respondents and there was no female respondent at this level. In the pre-project period, most of the respondents were relatively good in hens, sheep and goats possession. The detail is indicated in the table 4.2.4.

Nevertheless, the study revealed that livestock ownership of the sample respondents showed an increasing trend after the intervention. On average, 34.5% of the female and 37% of the male sample respondents reached the level of 2 to 4 livestock ownership while 26.8% of the female and 27.7% of the male sample respondents reached the stage of more than four livestock for the whole livestock listed in table 4.2.4 below. The detail about livestock possession of the sample respondents is presented in the following table.
Table 4.2.4-Livestock possession of the sample respondents before and after the intervention

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Live stock (in No)</th>
<th>Before intervention (just 2002/3)</th>
<th>After intervention (Just 2007/8)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2-4</td>
<td>1-2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cows</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oxen</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Calves</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goats</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sheep</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chicken</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Donkey/horses</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average*</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Average is appropriate as there are different kinds of livestock listed in the above table.

(Source: Survey conducted from March- April 2008)
In a relative term, the study revealed that even if, both grain production and livestock possession of the sample respondents showed an increasing trend for both female and male respondents after the intervention of the project, the magnitude in improvement for the female and male respondents was not the same for some livestock possessions. In this case, the improvement was relatively greater for the male respondents. For example, about 8% of the male respondents reached the stage of greater than four oxen ownership while only 2.3% of the female reached at this stage. About 2% of the male have greater than four donkeys/horses while no female respondents reached at this stage, about 8% of the male respondents reached the stage of greater than 10-quintal for wheat and about 7% for beans and pea production after the intervention while still there was no female respondent at this stage for the same products.

The focus group discussion conducted with female respondents indicated that female beneficiaries have less access to productive resources such as land and the problem is very worse for the aged female heads of households to use the opportunity of the intervention. In line with this, one of the female sample respondents shared her feelings as follow:

\[
\text{In our society women are not allowed to plant seeds, drive oxen for farming, sow and cultivate some crops particularly during menstruation and the first year after they gave birth. Therefore, they have to search (wait) for male for the accomplishments of these activities that directly hamper their productive role (Interview conducted at Kebele Development Association Office in April 2008).}
\]

World Food Summit (2004) revealed that the major constraint that reduces women’s role in food security is attributed to women’s low access to productive inputs such as land at conditions where the laws governing women’s rights to land vary wildly. According to the same source, religious laws and traditional customs forbid female from landownership even in a locality where civil law gives women the right to inherit land. FAO (1996) also stipulated that in most parts of the world agriculture is the assumed activities of men and not of women. Likewise, the finding of this research on female sample respondents’ asset possession in both agricultural farming (crop production) and animal husbandry was less compared to the male respondents even if, the project under study seemed to improve the
beneficiaries’ asset possession in a general term. The study also found that traditional custom and religious practices that grant the male with decisive right in agriculture are the major reasons for the problem.

4.2.7. Constraints to Female Heads of Household Beneficiaries in the Project Intervention

When asked the challenges they faced in utilizing the opportunity of the intervention, over three-fourth (81.8%) of the female respondents mentioned lack of inputs such as land and about eighty percent (79.5%), mentioned traditional customs and religious dogma that do not allow women to participate in some activities, over eighty percent (82.9%) responded nature of inheritance from the male relatives and their own son (s) who always claim the leadership position of the family as well as the family's assets, about eighty percent (81.8%) mentioned work load due to reproductive role and 71.1% mentioned over load due to community development role. The detail is presented in table 4.2.5.

Table 4.2.5-Factors affecting female heads of household beneficiaries in the project intervention

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constraints to female heads of household beneficiaries in the project intervention</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lack of inputs such as land</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>81.8</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religious practices</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>79.5</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traditional customs</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>79.5</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenges from the son (s) or other male</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>82.9</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Load due to reproductive role such as child bearing, carrying for the sick etc</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>81.8</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burden due to the community management role such as service during mourning etc</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Source: Survey conducted from March- April 2008)

As reviewed under chapter two of this thesis, FAO (1996) stipulated that women do not have an appropriate share of agricultural inputs such as land, agricultural training, improved seeds
and fertilizers to benefit from program/project intervention as equal as men. Similarly, UNESCO (2004) revealed that in developing countries, such as Sub-Saharan Africa where women have a prime responsibility for food production, they are generally limited to user rights of land with the consent of male. Consistent with this, as on p.56, most (81.8%) of the female sample respondents indicated that the major constraints to female beneficiaries to benefit from the intervention of the project under study is less access to productive resources such as land.

FAO (1996) acknowledges that in order to improve women’s contribution for the well being of the society in general and women’s’ role in food security in particular, program designers have to promote their indigenous knowledge of farming systems that has been largely untapped yet due to the male dominated traditional customs and religious practices that govern the community. In line with this, most (79.5%) of the female sample respondents in the present study agreed that the existing traditional customs and religious practices favor the male beneficiaries of the project under study over the female so that the condition on ground negatively affected the benefit of women beneficiaries from the project intervention.

Radical-libertarian feminists argue that femininity and reproductive role limit women’s capacity to contribute and benefit from development activities (Gambl, 2001). Similarly, liberal feminists indicated that in patriarchal society, women spent much of their time on the reproductive and community management roles and they have less time to involve in the productive role (Code, 2000). Marxist feminists also argue that women are under economic exploitation due to that their time spent on reproductive and community development roles are non-credit in patriarchal society (Tuttle, 1986). Similar to the above arguments, majority (81.8%) of the female sample respondents in this study agreed that they benefited less from the intervention of the project under study as much of their time is spent on reproductive and community management roles and they have less time for the productive role.

4.2.8. Respondents’ Opinion on Food Security after the Intervention

To assess the changes brought up on the attitude of the respondents on their food security, issues such as awareness on the right to enough food, equal access to food resources
irrespective of class based discrimination such as gender, participation in productive role, and improvements in reproductive role were directed to the respondents and the result is presented as follows.

As shown in table 4.2.6(p.56), most (88.6%) of the respondents became aware of their right to access to food. About half (51.1%) became conscious about equal access to food for all irrespective of class. Sample respondents whose participation in productive role showed an improvement and those whose reproductive role was reduced represented 78.4 and 33.5 percents respectively.

For all the issues touched above related to respondents’ rights to food, the number of female respondents responded for “agree” was greater than that of the male. For example, female whose reproductive role was improved accounted for 61% while for the male it was only 5.7%. Only 34.1% of male respondents indicated “agree” for “equal access to food resources for all irrespective of class” while female respondents represented about 68% for the same issue.

Chi Squire was applied to see the association between the opinion of female and male sample respondents on the issues discussed above. Result revealed that there is significant variation on the opinion of the female and male respondents on the changes brought on their attitude towards food security. Accordingly, the computed value of Chi Square was 5.13 for awareness on the right to access food, 20.5 for equal access to food for all irrespective of any class discrimination, 6.6 for improvement in the productive role and 16.2 for improvement in productive role. Hence, all the calculated values are quite greater 3.841. The detail is presented in table 4.2.6 (P.59).
### Table 4.2.6 - Respondents’ opinion on the right to food security after intervention

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Awareness on the right to access food</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>90.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Equal access to food for all irrespective of class</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>68.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>31.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participation in the productive role</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>70.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>29.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Improvement in reproductive role</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>61.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>39.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Total value for Chi Squire ($X^2$) = 3.841 at df=1 and 5 % level of confidence)

(Source: Survey conducted from March- April 2008)
The focus group discussion conducted with the female respondents (both in age group between 18 to 64 and above 64) on the above two issues are represented as follow:

Before we were provided with series of training by the project, district women association and district women’s affairs, we and our partners believed that whether there is enough or less food for the family, the male members, either husband, father or sons have the priority to access food and wife, mother and/or daughters have to wait for the leftover (Focus group discussion conducted at Kebele Development Association Office in April 2008).

The focus group discussion made with the male respondents also revealed that male beneficiaries had no problem with regard to their participation in the productive role and this was more strengthened with the intervention. The discussion further indicated that the male beneficiaries were less responsible in the reproductive role such as care for the sick, cooking food etc.

Marxist feminist theory reveals that women and girls have less access to food resources within their family (Barret, 1982). The radical feminist theory also stipulates that patriarchy provides men with a decisive rights in economic political and social affairs including access to food resources compared to the female (Gamble, 2001). Likewise, the finding of this study on sample respondents about their right to food security showed that previously/pre project men have more access and awareness on the right to food security while the female sample respondents were able to be more aware about their right to food security after the intervention.

4.2.9. Women’s Empowerment Aspects of the Project

As indicated in table 4.2.7(p.61), 82.9% of the female respondents have ownership right and 81.8 % of them have the right to transfer their share from the intervention. The rest 17.1 % responded that they had problem with ownership right on their share while 18.2 % faced difficulty to transfer their shares.
Table 4.2.7-Women’s empowerment aspects of the project

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>Responses of the female respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ownership right</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transfer right</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Source: Survey conducted from March- April 2008)

One of the female key informants responded for female beneficiaries’ constraints on ownership and transfer right about their benefit from the project as follow:

*Most of the cases presented to our office by the female heads of household beneficiaries of the project were about ownership right. For this, they blame their counter part male who always claim the ownership right of female headed household properties* (Interview conducted with a female key informant, district women’s affairs head in April 2008).

In patriarchal society female-heads of households have limited /no right to own and/or transfer properties (Cara, 2003 & Gamble, 2001). Marxist feminist theory also reveals that women are under economic exploitation that manifests itself with deprivation of women’s right to own and/or transfer properties (Cara, 2003). In line with this, the current study revealed that even if, most (about 80%) of the female sample respondents have no problem with regard to ownership and transfer right of properties / their benefit from the project under study, some of them (about 20%) have problem to transfer and/or own their benefit from the intervention. The present study also revealed that this constraint arises from their male counter parts who always claim the right to own the female headed beneficiaries’ benefit from the project in particular and the family’s property in general.
4.2.10. Integrating Gender Issues in the Intervention of the Project

In the survey conducted, issues such as income generating activities assigned to the beneficiaries, cash provided and training given to them during the intervention were directed to the respondents. The study revealed that half (50%) of the female respondents were not provided with appropriate income generating activities compared to the male. In line with this, 35.9% of the male sample respondents also responded that the income generating activities assigned disfavored female beneficiaries. (Please refer table 4.2.8 on p.63).

In addition, 66% of the female and 54.5% of the male respondents responded that the cash/credit given to the male beneficiaries was relatively better than the female. Furthermore, 67% of the female and 52% of the male responded that compared to the male beneficiaries, female beneficiaries have less chance to participate in the occasional training provided to the beneficiaries by the project.

Chi square was applied to test whether the opinion of the respondents is independent/dependent of the fact that they are female or male. The test showed no significant variation between female and male sample respondents on their opinion towards equal allocation of income generating activities and cash or credit provided to the beneficiaries. The computed value was 3.33 for the former and 2.37 for the later. Hence, the calculated Chi Squire values are less than the table value of Chi square / $X^2 = 3.841$. Therefore, for these two cases their response (opinion) is independent of their being female or male. Nevertheless, there is a bit difference between the opinion of female and male sample respondents on equal training provided for female and male beneficiaries i.e. their opinion is dependent of their sex as the computed value for $X^2= 4.1 > 3.841$. The detail is indicated in table 4.2.8 on p.63.
Table 4.2.8. Respondents’ opinion on integrating gender issues in the project intervention

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Equal allocation of income generating activities irrespective of gender</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$X^2$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Equal allocation of cash (credit) irrespective of gender</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$X^2$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Equal training to the beneficiaries irrespective of their gender</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$X^2$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Table value of $X^2=3.841$ at df=1 and %5 level of confidence)

(Source: Survey conducted from March- April 2008)

The project officer at district level explained about female beneficiaries less representation in the training given by the project under study in the course of the intervention as follow:

The trainings given to the beneficiaries were held at the centre of the district (project sites’ centre) whereby the beneficiaries have to come from their localities (kebeles) to attend the trainings. The number of female beneficiaries in the trainings was less because when we call the beneficiaries to participate in the trainings we put into consideration about
female's problem with regard to the reproductive role such as child bearing that hinder them to travel long distance to the training center (District project office, April 2008)

Radical-libertarian feminists argue that reproductive role limits women's capacity to participate and benefit from development activities as it consumes much of their time (Gambl, 2001). Allied with this, liberal feminist theory reveals that in most societies the existing legislation considers that women's role is limited to reproductive role and less/no attention is given to compensate for their contribution in those activities (Code, 2000). Consistence with this, the current study stipulated that female beneficiaries have less chance to participate in the trainings given to the beneficiaries by the project under study in the course of the intervention. Result of the current study also revealed that this was due to female beneficiaries' overload with the reproductive role.
CHAPTER V: SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1. Summary

The current study is an assessment and evaluation based research that intended to examine World Bank Food security project in Oromia Regional state from a gender perspective. To arrive at the desired objectives, both quantitative and qualitative data were used in the study. Three data collecting instruments were used. Structured questionnaire was designed and administrated to 176 respondents drawn from the beneficiaries of the project through systematic random sampling technique. Four focus group discussions each with ten members were formed. Twelve sample respondents selected from the beneficiaries of the project were interviewed. Four key informants were also selected from the project officers.

Over three-fourth (79.5%) of the study respondents were between 15-64 years, almost half (45.5%) were married, 85% were adherents of Orthodox, over half (54.5%) had a family size of 6-9, about two-third (66%) were illiterate, and all were farmers whereby the largest portion (80.1%) lived on mixed farming. Half (114) of the total sample respondents selected from the beneficiaries of the project under study are female.

The baseline study of the project under study matches with the principle set forth by UNESCO in 2004 for gender sensitive projects. The ratio of female to the male respondents in the baseline of the project under study was 50:50. The case of female and male respondents was well captured in the pre-project study of the project for the intervention.

Despite the fact that female beneficiaries have the opportunity to participate in the project coordination and beneficiaries associations' proposal design, they were disproportionately represented. The ratio of female to male representatives at District Facilitation Team and Kebele committee was 1:9 while it was 2:8 at the District Development Committee.

Chi square was applied to test whether the opinion of the respondents is independent/dependent of their being female or male on issues such as equal chance for female and male respondents in the beneficiaries' proposal design and coordination. The
value showed significant difference between the two genders i.e. their opinions depends on their gender. The values are 17.5 and 5.4 for equal involvement in the beneficiaries associations’ proposal design and project coordination, respectively.

Compared to the male heads of household beneficiaries, the number of female heads of household beneficiaries was very limited. There were 890 female and 1390 male heads of household beneficiaries up to the end of the 2006 fiscal year.

The approach of the project for the intervention is a credit based whereby the beneficiaries are expected to propose for the credit indicating the activities that they are interested to perform with the credit. The female heads of household beneficiaries were encouraged in the so called “near home and simple” activities while the male were initiated to perform “the outdoor and hard” activities.

The project under study maintains its sustainability with revolve fund. The credit fund of the project revolves within the selected sites in such away that with the beneficiaries’ achievement of self-sufficiency without the credit, the beneficiaries will pay back the credit to the project and the project will provide it to other (new) beneficiaries within the same site.

Before the intervention of the project, both direct and indirect indicators of the beneficiaries’ food security were far below the standard adopted in this study to assess food security status of the sample respondents. Both direct and indirect indicators of food security adopted were well improved after the intervention. MC Nemas test was applied to check the statistical significance of the result. It indicated that the project plays great role in improving its beneficiaries’ food security. The values for female and male respondents were 41 and 45 respectively in having families with 3-4 food items in daily food in take, 45 for female and 36 for male with families having 3-4 food frequency in daily food intake, 41 for female and 44 for male with enough money to buy sufficient food for their families and 28 for female and 50 for male having enough inputs to produce sufficient food for their families.
The majority (about 95%) of the study respondents had annual grain production of below five quintals and possessed fewer than two livestock before the intervention of the project under study. After the intervention, the possession of the respondents showed increasing trends for both grain production and livestock ownership. About three-fourth (75%) of the respondents reached at the level of 5-10 quintals of grain production and 2-4 livestock ownership. However, there was discrepancy between the female and male respondents in which the male showed more progress. This was due to the patriarchal nature of the society that deprives women from land ownership, access to information etc.

The project was efficient enough in improving the attitude of the beneficiaries towards the right to food security. Over four-fifth (88.6%) of the respondents became aware of their right to access food, about half (51.1%) became conscious of equal access to food for all irrespective of class, over three-fourth (78.4%) of the respondents’ involvement in productive role was increased, and for about one-third (33.5%) their reproductive role was improved.

There is significant variation on the opinion of female and male respondents on the changes brought on their right to food security. The computed value of Chi Square was 5.13 for awareness on the right to access food, 20.5 for equal access to food for all irrespective of any class discrimination, 6.6 for improvement in the productive role and 16.2 for improvement in productive role. Hence, all the calculated values are quite greater than table value of Chi Square \( (x^2) = 3.841 \) at \( \text{df} = 1 \) and 5% (0.05) level of confidence.

Over eighty percent (82.9%) of the female respondents have ownership right on their share from the project and 81.8% of them have the right to transfer their share while 17.1% and 18.2% have constraints in ownership and transfer rights.

About half (50%) of the female respondents were not provided with appropriate income generating activities, over sixty percent (66%) were not provided as equal cash/credit as the male beneficiaries and 67% responded that they did not have equal chance in the training.
given to the beneficiaries by the project under study compared to the male beneficiaries.

The computed Chi Square value revealed that there is no significant difference on the opinion of female and male respondents on equal income generating activities as well as cash provided to them. For these cases, their opinion is independent of their sex i.e. both female and male sample respondents responded that female beneficiaries were at a disadvantage position with regard to the income generating activities and credit given to the beneficiaries during the project intervention.

However, the computed Chi Squire revealed that the opinion of the female and male respondents on the training given to the beneficiaries by the project under study was dependent of their sex i.e. the majority of male sample respondents responded that the project provided equal chance for female and male beneficiaries in the training given by the project while the majority of the female sample respondents responded that the project did not equally participate the female and male beneficiaries in the training given during the intervention in which the male beneficiaries had more chance.
5.2. Conclusion

One of the critical issues for human beings, food insecurity, is a serious problem in some zones of Oromia regional state of Ethiopia as to the other developing countries. The problem has a disproportionate negative impact on rural female-headed households of the region compared to the male.

To overcome the problem, highest priority has been given in the agenda of the government of the country and of the region. This strategy invited different international agencies and organizations as well as international and indigenous non governmental organizations to rescue the people under the problem of which World Bank Food Security Project is one since 2002/03.

Despite, the efforts made to integrate gender issues in project intervention since the past two decades; it is not yet achieved as it was intended. In most cases, the benefits of projects’ intervention turn to be unequal and inequitable whereby female beneficiaries are at a disadvantaged position compared to the male. The inequality manifests itself in the size of beneficiaries, activities assigned, cash provided, and training given to the beneficiaries etc. by the projects.

The less gender responsiveness of projects’ intervention is partially the result of the failure of the project to include gender issues in its goal, objectives and indicators. This problem in turn arises from lack of a firm gender based strategy from government and non governmental organizations, lack of gender sensitive knowledge among the project designers and coordinators, patriarchal nature of the society, less/no representation of women in the project administration etc.

Female-headed households take longer time to recover from food insecurity problem in particular and social problems in general with intervention of projects. This is due to the fact that in most cases, female heads of households are not allowed to own productive assets such as land that directly reduces their potential to utilize the intervention’s opportunity. Religious dogma and traditional customs in patriarchal society in general and rural communities in
particular encourage either male relatives or son(s) to claim the leadership and control over assets of a family in the absence of the husband/father.

Moreover, the potential of female heads of households is also limited in the intervention due to the imbalanced burden on them as a result of the societal expected triple roles of women. Being women and/or female head of a family implies responsibility in the reproductive, productive and community management roles. Much of their time is reserved to the reproductive role and this directly affects their productive role to cope up with the male beneficiaries.

In addition, in most societies women are not allowed to participate in some of productive activities. For example, in rural Ethiopia, women are not expected to sow and harvest some crops, to drive oxen for farming etc. particularly during menstruation and in the first year when they give birth. As a result, women are forced to search for male to accomplish these activities which in turn exposes them to different problems. In most cases, following the activities, male claim the female heads of households for wives and/or the control of the products. The other challenge of female heads of household beneficiaries to properly utilize their opportunity in project interventions is lack of ownership and transfer rights on their benefits.

It can be concluded that integrating gender issues in project intervention is determined by the way of pre-project need assessment (conducted with the necessary step to solve the identified problem), gender sensitivity of the project designers and officers, gender responsiveness of the project’s goal, objectives and indicators, awareness raising on gender issue among the society and formulating a firm gender responsive strategy with appropriate implementation by government as well as non governmental organizations.
5.3. Recommendations

Based on the current study, the following points are recommended to project designers and officers in general and to the project under assessment in particular.

Besides pre-project need assessment, strategies should be formulated to fill the identified gap between the female and male beneficiaries to correct the existing gender based discrimination.

Gender issues should be clearly integrated in the goal, objectives and indicators of projects' interventions.

The number of female and male beneficiaries should be equal and equitable in projects' intervention.

Projects' intervention approach should capture the interests of their female and male beneficiaries equally i.e. the intervention approaches of the project under study should be revised so as to make them gender responsive.

Both female and male beneficiaries must be equally represented in projects' design and administration i.e. the project under assessment has to raise the number of women beneficiaries' representatives at all levels of the project’s administration.

With intervention of projects, gender sensitive training should be directed to religious and other elder of the community, project officers, both female and male beneficiaries on issues such as women’s right to inheritance, own and transfer properties and convenient working environment for all beneficiaries irrespective of their gender.
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Annexes

Annex 1-Survey Questionnaire

Part One: General Information on Composition and Identification of the Participants

Instruction – Tick in the boxes provided correspondent to the alternatives in order to indicate your response for the items

Family structure
Female Headed □ Male Headed □

Marital status
Never Married □ Married □ Divorced □ Widowed □

Age
Below 18 □ 18-64 □ 64+ □

Family Size
1-3 □ 3-6 □ 6-9 □ 9-12 □ 12+ □

Sex Composition of the Household
Female ------------ Male ------------ Total ------------

Age Composition of the Household
Below 18------------ 18-64 ----------- 64+ ---------

Religion
Orthodox □ Muslim □ Other (specify) --------------

Educational level
Unschooled □ Primary level (1-8) □ Secondary level □ Tertiary □

Occupation
Pure farming □ Animal husbandry □ mixed farming □
Two: Food Security Status of the Participants Before and After the Intervention of the Project

Instruction – Tick in the boxes provided correspondent to the alternatives in order to indicate your response for the items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Food Security Indicators</th>
<th>Before Intervention (for the year 2002/3)</th>
<th>After the Intervention (the year 2007/8)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>In my family daily food intake there was/is 3-4 food types</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>The frequency (times) of my family daily food intake was/is 3-4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I have/ had enough money to buy food for my family</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I have/ had enough in puts such as land to produce food for my family</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Participants’ Assets Possession Before and After the Intervention

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Beneficiary’s Asset</th>
<th>Before Intervention (for the year 2002/3)</th>
<th>After Intervention (the year 2007/8)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5-10</td>
<td>&gt;10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annual grain production (in Quintal)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teff</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barley</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wheat</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maize</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Millet /sorghum</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Livestock (in No.)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Calves</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cows</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goats</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sheep</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oxen</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hen</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mules, donkey and horses</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Constraints to Female Heads of Household Beneficiaries to Benefit from the Project’s Intervention

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Due to the following problems, I faced difficulty to use my maximum potential to benefit from the project intervention</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lack of inputs such as land</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religious practices</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pressure from traditional customs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenges from the sons and/or other male</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shortage of time due to the time spent on reproductive and productive roles</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Participants’ Opinion on gender Sensitivity of the Project’s Proposal Design and Coordination

Instruction – Tick in the boxes provided correspondent to the alternatives in order to indicate your response for the items

If your responses for the above two questions are No, please specify your reason

Participants’ Attitude on Access to food security before and after the Intervention

1. With the intervention of the project, my awareness on the right to access food is increased. Yes _ _ No _ _
2. My family is at a sustainable food security since the intervention of the project. Yes [ ] No [ ]

3. With the intervention of the project my daughter(s) and son(s) got equal access to food supply. Yes [ ] No [ ]

If your response for question No. 3 above is “No”, which gender has more access?

Female [ ] Male [ ]

explain the reason

4. As a result of the project intervention, the burden on me due to the reproductive role is reduced Yes [ ] No [ ]

If your response for question No. 4 above is “Yes”, specify in what way

5. The project intervention increased my participation in productive role Yes [ ] No [ ]

If your response for question No. 5 above is “Yes”, how

Part 3- Gender Sensitivity and Women’s Empowerment Aspect of the Project

Instruction – Tick in the boxes provided correspondent to the alternatives in order to indicate your response for the items

1. I myself is responsible for the resources/activities assigned to my family by the project

Yes [ ] No [ ]

If your response for question No. 1 above is “No”, please specify the responsible organ

2. I can transfer what was provided to my family by the project

Yes [ ] No [ ]
If your response for question No. 2 above is “No”, please specify your reason

**Indicator for Integrating Gender Issues in the Project Intervention**

NB- the following table is expected to be filled only by female heads household participants.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Gender sensitive indicators in the project intervention</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Income generating activities provided to my family is better than that of male headed household beneficiaries</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Cash given to my family is better compared to that of male headed household beneficiaries</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Female headed households have more chance to participate in the training given by the project compared to male headed household beneficiaries</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NB. The following table is expected to be filled only by male headed participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Gender sensitive indicators in the project intervention</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Income generating activities provided to my family is better than that of female headed household beneficiaries</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Cash given to my family is better than that of female headed household beneficiaries</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Male headed households have more chance to participate in the training given by the project compared to female headed beneficiaries</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Annex 2- key Informants Guideline for Participants Selected from the Beneficiaries

Personal Information

Family structure

Household size ————-Sex composition of the household  F———M———T———
Age———-Religion———
Marital status ———— Education level———-Occupation———

Issues for Interview

1. What/How was food security status of the female and male beneficiaries before and after the intervention of the project?

2. Is/was there any constraint that hampered female beneficiaries from benefiting from the intervention as equal as the male? If your answer is “yes”, please list them down.

3. Was/is there any special attention given to the beneficiaries putting in to consideration female’s historical discrimination and segregation? If your answer is ‘yes’ please least some of them.

4. Did/do women and male beneficiaries have equal representation in the project design and coordination? It your answer is “No”, do you think that this has impacts up on the one less represented? In what way?

5. Did/do women and male have equal access to productive input such land, fertilizers, in formation etc to use the opportunity of the project intervention? If your answer is “no”, which gender has/had less access? Why?

6. Did/do women and male beneficiaries have equal chance in the training given, cash provided etc? If your answer is ‘No’, which gender has/had less chance? Why?

7. Were/ Are the income generating activities assigned to the beneficiaries were selected by the female and male beneficiaries? Do you think that gender based division of activities imply gender based discrimination? Elaborate.
Annex 3- Key Informant Guideline for the Participants Selected from the Project Coordinators

1. Is your project's intervention community based? If your answer is "yes" did/do female and male beneficiaries equally represented in the proposal design and coordination of the project? Justify

2. What kind of income generating activities were/are assigned to the female and male beneficiaries? Why?

3. Was/Is there any complain rose to you by either female or male beneficiaries with regard to ownership and transfer rights of their benefit? If your answer is "yes" with which gender you associate this problem? Why?

4. Is the ratio of female to the male beneficiaries of your project is equal? If your answer is 'No', the size of which gender is greater? Why?

5. Did you conduct pre-project need assessment for the intervention? If yes, had you came across about gender based discrimination? If yes, which gender was/is under the discrimination? What was/were the mechanisms of your project to correct the problem with the intervention?
Annex 4: Focus Group Discussion Guideline

1. Did female and male beneficiaries have equal chance in the project design and coordination? Express this idea by focusing on the outcaste (disadvantage) gender, its consequences etc.

2. What kinds of income generating activities were assigned to the female and male beneficiaries? Express your feeling by focusing on the activities that serve to earn more, less value, etc? Do you agree with the allocation? Why?

3. Did female and male beneficiaries have equal access to productive inputs to use the opportunity of the intervention equally? If no, identify the one with less access and describe the reason why?

4. What were the constraints to female beneficiaries in the intervention? Discuss.

5. What is the image of the community elders, male, religious elders towards female farmers? Is that remaining constant or getting improvement? If getting improvement, what contributed for it?
Declaration

I, the undersigned student declare that this thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other university and all the references used for the thesis have been fully acknowledged.

Student’s Name: Jeremiah Nemera
Signature: [Signature]
Date of submission: 23 July 2018

This thesis has been submitted for examination with my approval as a university advisor.

Advisor’s Name: Dr. Vijaya Subramanyam
Signature: [Signature]
Date: 16/07/2008,