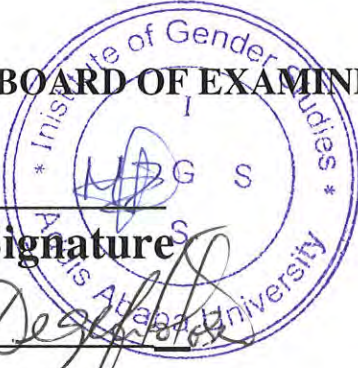


**ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES
INSTITUTE OF GENDER STUDIES**

**RURAL WOMEN'S ACCESS TO LAND AND THEIR FOOD
SECURITY SITUATION: THE CASE OF HULET EJUE ENSE
WOREDA, AMHARA REGION**

**By
Addis Bezabih Mekonnen**

APPROVED BY BOARD OF EXAMINERS

<u>Mulmebet Zenebe</u>		<u>21/07/11</u>
Chairperson	Signature	Date
<u>Degefa Tolosse</u>	<u>Degefa Tolosse</u>	<u>13.05-2011</u>
Advisor	Signature	Date
<u>Vijaya Subramaniam</u>	<u>Vijaya Subramaniam</u>	<u>13.05.2011</u>
Internal Examiner	Signature	Date
<u>Yigremew Adal</u>	<u>Yigremew Adal</u>	<u>13/25/2011</u>
External Examiner	Signature	Date

DECLARATION

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

Name of Student Addis Bezabih

Signature

AMTB

Date

13/05/2011

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

Advisor's Name Dr. Degefa Tolossa

Signature

Degefa Tolossa

Date

13.05-2011

Acknowledgements

I wish to express my gratitude to my advisor, Dr. Degefa Tolossa, who was abundantly helpful. He offered invaluable assistance and guidance from the beginning to the final level of the study. His substantial constructive, suggestions and comments were of paramount significance in shaping this thesis.

I am thank full to IGS for its financial, academical and material support. I also wish to express my gratitude to UNDP for their financial support.

I am greatly indebted to my brother Mulugeta, whose support in all respects was unimaginable. I sincerely thank him for his moral, financial and material support. He was the source of my strength. I also extended my gratitude to my beloved families my mother Yalemwork, my brothers Tadesse and Tesfaye for their financial support and endless love throughout the duration of my studies.

I am grateful to express my love and gratitude to Behilu, Taje, Melat and Assie for their encouragement and moral support during my study.

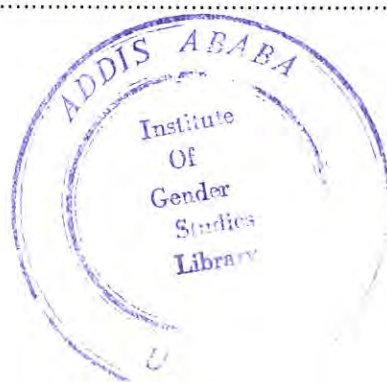
I also want to thank staff of Hulet Ejue Enese Woreda Administration and Office of Agriculture and Rural Development for their willingness and support they provided me in collecting the data.

I am thankful all of those who supported me in any respect during my study specially Ato Woldie Abate for his support and my colleagues Woiynshet, Rahich and Ename for their encouragement and love they provided me.

Above all, I thank God for allowing this to happen.

Table of Contents

Contents	Pages
CHAPTER ONE.....	1
INTRODUCTION	1
1.1. Background of the Study	1
1.2. Statement of the Problem	2
1.3. Objective of the Research.....	4
1.3.1. Specific Objectives of the Research	4
1.4. Research Questions	4
1.5. Significance of the Research.....	4
1.6. Scope and Limitations	5
1.7. Organization of the Study.....	5
CHAPTER TWO.....	6
REVIEW OF THEORETICAL AND RELATED LITERATURE.....	6
2.1. Definition of Concepts	6
2.1.1. Concepts of Land Tenure.....	6
2.1.2. Concepts of Food Security.....	6
2.2. Analytical Framework: Food Security through Own production	7
2.3. Theoretical Framework	8
2.3.1. Feminist Theories	8
2.3.1.1. Marxist Feminist Theory.....	8
2.3.1.2. Liberal Feminist Theory.....	9
2.3.2. Livelihood Approach.....	9
2.3.2.1. Livelihood Assets	9
2.3.2.2. Vulnerability.....	11
2.4. Review of Empirical Works	11
2.4.1. Women's Access to Land	11
2.4.2. International Land policy Frameworks and Legislations	12
2.4.3. National Legal Frameworks.....	12

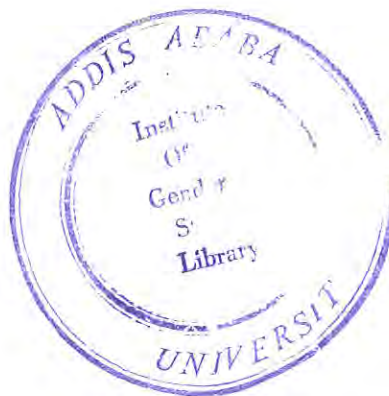


2.4.4. Overview of Land Tenure System in Ethiopia.....	13
2.4.4.1. Major Land Tenure Reforms.....	13
2.4.4.2. Rural Land Legislation of Amhara Region.....	14
2.4.5. Women and Food Security.....	15
2.4.5.1 Overview of Ethiopian Food Security Policies and Strategies	15
2.4.5.2. Food Security in Ethiopia.....	16
2.4.5.3. Causes of Food Insecurity.....	17
2.4.5.4. Coping Mechanisms	17
2.5. Linkages between Land Tenure and Food Security.....	17
2.6. Definition of Key Terms.....	19
CHAPTER THREE	20
METHODOLOGY AND THE STUDY AREA	20
3.1. Research Methods	20
3.1.1. Mixed Research Methods	20
3.1.2. Qualitative Method.....	20
3.1.3. Quantitative Method.....	21
3.2. Sampling Procedure and Sampling Techniques	21
3.2.1. Sampling Techniques for Qualitative Method.....	21
3.2.2. Sampling Techniques for Quantitative Method.....	22
3.3. Data Source and Methods of Data Collection	22
3.3.1 Primary data Collection Methods.....	23
3.3.1.1. Household Survey.....	23
3.3.1.2. Individual Interview.....	24
3.3.1.3. Focus Group Discussions (FGD).....	25
3.3.1.4. Case Studies/In-depth interview	25
3.3.1.5 Observation	25
3.3.2. Secondary Data Sources	26
3.4. Ethical Considerations.....	26
3.5. Field Experience	27
3.6 Description of the Research Area	29
3.6.1. Description of the Research Area.....	29

3.6.2. Site Selection and Sampling Procedure	29
3.7. Data Analysis	32
CHAPTER FOUR	33
FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS	33
4.1. Introduction.....	33
4.2. Respondents' Socio-Demographic Facts.....	33
4.2.1. Age and Marital Status	33
4.2.2. Educational Background.....	34
4.3. Women's Access to Resource.....	34
4.3.1. Women's Access to Land	35
4.3.2. Ways of Getting Access to Land.....	43
4.3.3. Major Access to Land Disparities among Male and Female Head Household	45
4.3.4. Women's Access to Livestock.....	46
4.3.5. Women's Access to Credit.....	48
4.3.6. Women's Access to Modern Agricultural Inputs.....	51
4.4. Rural Households Role to Improve their Food Production	54
4.4.1. Women's Role in Agriculture	54
4.4.2. Women's Role in Community Based Activities	55
4.5. Rural Households Food Security Situation	58
4.5.1. Factors that Affect women's Food Production	58
4.5.2. Food Shortage	62
4.5.3. Rural Women's Food Insecurity	64
4.5.4. The Link between Access to Land and Food Security Situation	67
4.5.3. Households Coping Strategies	70
CHAPTER FIVE	73
SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMANDATION	73
5.1. Summary.....	73
5.2. Conclusion	74
5.3. Recommendations	75
6. References	77

List of Tables

Tables	Pages
Table 3.1 Summary of Survey Respondents.....	22
Table 4.1 Distribution of Respondents by Age and Marital Status	32
Table 4.2 Distribution of Respondents by Access to Land and <i>Kebele</i>	34
Table 4.3. Distribution of Respondents by Access to Land Disparity and <i>Kebele</i>	44
Table 4.4 Distribution of Respondents by Access to Livestock and <i>Kebele</i>	46
Table 4.5 Distribution of Respondents by Access to Credit and <i>Kebele</i>	48
Table 4.6 Distribution of Respondents by Modern Agricultural Inputs and <i>Kebele</i>	51
Table 4.7 Distribution of Respondents by Their Community Role and <i>Kebele</i>	55
Table 4.8 Distribution of Respondents Factors of Food Production.....	59
Table 4.9 Distribution of Respondents by Food Shortage.....	62
Table 4.10 Distribution of Respondents by Food Security Status and <i>Kebele</i>	64
Table 4.11 Distribution of Respondents by Food Consumption Score.....	64
Table 4.12 Relationship between Land size and Food Production.....	67
Table 4.13 Relationship between Land Size and Food Security Situation.....	68
Table 4.14 Distribution of Respondents by Coping Mechanism.....	70



List of Figures and Pictures

Figures	Page
Figure 2.1 Analytical Frame Work.....	8
Map 3.1: Location of the Study Area.....	31
Figure 4.1: Distribution of Respondents by Educational Background.....	33
Figure 4.2: Interview, with Women.....	38
Figure 4.3 FGD with Men.....	60

Acronyms

ACSA	Amhara Credit and Saving Association
ANRS	Amhara National Regional State
CSA	Central Statistical Agency
ECA	Economic Commission for Africa
FAO	Food and Agricultural Organization
FDRE	Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia
FGD	Focus Group Discussion
FHH	Female Headed Household
FSS	Forum for Social Studies
MHH	Male Headed Household
MoFED	Ministry of Finance and Economic Development
NFSS	National Food Security Strategy
NGOs	Non-Governmental Organizations
OARD	Office of Agriculture and Rural Development
OAU	Organization of African Union.
UDHR	Universal Declaration of Human Rights
UN	United Nation
UN/DESA/DAW	United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, (Division for the Advancement of Women)
UNESCO	United Nation Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNHCR	United Nations Higher Commission on Human Rights
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
WFH	Women in Female-headed household
WFHH	Women in Female-headed Household
WMHH	Women in Male-headed Household
WFP	World Food Program

Abstract

The study was designed to explore rural women's access to land and their food security situation in two rural Kebeles in Hulet Ejue Enese Woreda, East Gojjam Zone Amhara Region. The research applied both quantitative and qualitative methods to address issues from a gender perspective. Survey of 89 households was conducted using the quantitative method. While the qualitative methods applied, were interviews with rural women, men and with relevant Woreda Office experts and Kebele Land Administers; focus group discussions with rural women and men; case stories and observation. The livelihood approach and feminist theories: Liberal and Marxists feminist theories have been the theoretical frameworks that underpin this study.

This study revealed that rural women can get access to land through land distribution, marriage and inheritance from parents. However, female-headed households have less access to land than male-headed households and, as a result their production is less than their male counterparts. The study findings indicate that rural women engage in various agricultural activities though there are activities that women are not supposed to engage due to cultural division of labour which put women in a more disadvantageous and vulnerable position than men. On the other hand, , rural women's particularly, female-headed households' role in community based activities such as edir, equb, mahiber and other Peasant adminstrtion activities.

Women's access to credit, participation in community based activities and food supply in Agam-woha kebele is better than in Shege-keranio kebele. This is because, Agam-woha kebele is closer to market and town while Shege-keranio is faraway from all these. Moreover, the result of the research shows that there is a link between access to land and food security.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the Study

Worldwide, women in rural areas bear a disproportionate amount of labor burden. However, they receive little recognition for their involvement, and are not being beneficiaries of their fruits of work nor involved in development activities. Women loss their asset and resource control which ultimately results in food insecurity, impoverishment, livelihood disruption and hardships over the past (UN, 1994). Previous studies conducted in sub-Saharan Africa, south East Asia, and parts of Latin America indicated that women still make up 50 to 90% of agricultural workforces (Almaz, 1991).

In agrarian society like Ethiopia, where the majority of the labor force is engaged in farming, the contribution of women towards attaining household level food production have been important. Their traditional gender roles bring them in daily contact with natural resources such as land, water, forest and wildlife (Dejene, 1994).

Ethiopia is a heterogeneous society composed of different cultures, languages and religions, but all having a dominant patriarchal system, imposing sexual division of labor, making women responsible for all household chores, in addition to their involvement to agricultural activities. But unlike their male counterparts, women are hindered from enjoying fruits of their contribution. As a result of this gender- based oppression and exploitation, prescribed by tradition and culture, women bear disproportionate burden of poverty” (Haregewoin, 2003: p. 67).

Haregewoin (2003) also discussed that Ethiopian women are poorer than men. According to her, food security involves food process, preservation, preparation as well as distribution within parts of the country and distribution of prepared food among family members. It is more often boys who utilize the foodstuffs so as to ensure their health status. It is partly correlated with poverty at national, community and household levels. It has been shown that Ethiopian women are poorer than men, and thus are more vulnerable to food insecurity (Ibid).

In Ethiopia, throughout history, land has been recognized as a primary source of wealth, social status, and power. It has been serving as the basis for shelter, food, and source of employment opportunities in rural areas (Almaz, 2007). Property rights, especially land ownership is one of the most important means in order to protect poverty in many rural areas of developing countries. It enables to empower both socio-economic structures and power in a village as well as within and outside household relationship (FAO, 2002).

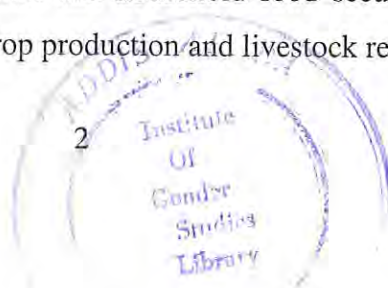
According to Degefa (2003), the economic status of farmers is related to their access to land and the size of landholdings. He also further stated that land is one of the important production factors that influence rural household food security. It is the landless household who more often faced food shortage.

Women household heads have less access to productive resources: land and oxen than their men counterparts. Under both customary and statutory law, the vast majority of women in sub-Saharan Africa depend on men to own or inherit land, housing and other property (FAO, 2006). In sub-Saharan Africa, land distribution has been particularly skewed along gender lines, in which men possess a significant proportion (Scholtz and Gomez, 2004 as cited in FAO, 2006). Research works in Ethiopia, so far Almaz, (2007), Degefa (2000, 2002, 2005), Dejene (1994), Dessalegn (1984, 1989), Yared (2001) and Yigremew (2002) documented that land is one of the most indispensable resources both as source of food and income.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

In Ethiopia, food shortage has remained to be one of the most important challenges in which the country is still experiencing. In the past three decades, the country had to depend on food aid. For instance, in the last 17 years, the country imported on average about 726,000 metric tones of food in the form of aid per annum (NFSS, 2002).

Ethiopian women constitute almost half of the total population, and around 83.5% of them live in rural areas and earn their livelihoods from agriculture (CSA, 2008). They contribute significantly to the agricultural production and household food security. They take part in different agricultural activities such as crop production and livestock rearing (Dejene, 1994).



Ethiopian women in general, rural women in particular, are poor and vulnerable to food shortage. Whenever there appears food shortage in the household, women are the first to suffer most. As a result, they fail to provide food for their family members as they have no other option to overcome the problem (Haregewoin, 2003).

The major factors that contribute for food insecurity in Ethiopia include information asymmetry, lack of access to agricultural inputs, credit, basic services and absence of income generation opportunities, land degradation and low productivity (Tilaye, 2004). Differential access to these factors is the main cause for gender inequalities. According to Degefa (2000, 2003, 2005), Dejene (1994), Dessalegne (1989), Emebet (2008), UN (1994), Yared (2001), Yigremew (2003), Almaze (1991), Almaze (2007), Hadera, (2007), women's access to productive resource is very limited. Thus, rural women are often vulnerable to food shortage.

Women's equality in land rights is a global issue (ECA, 2009). Nowadays, many developing countries including Ethiopia have entered commitments through ratifying various women's rights, conventions and issuing national policies in order to ensure women's access to land. In spite of these commitments, the problem of ensuring women's landholding rights has remained a great challenge for many countries.

This is partly attributed to deep-rooted patriarchal gender power relations in societies (Almaz, 2007). Access to and control over land and its products are critical to women because women are responsible to ensure household food security by their community assigned gender roles.

The link between land tenure and food insecurity attracts many scholars (ECA, 2009). For instance, Degefa (2003), Yigremew (2003), Aberra (2002), Workneh (2001), Maxwell and Wiebe (1999) are to mention a few. However, their focus is general at household level and not from women's perspective only despite the fact that rural women are highly susceptible to food insecurity and lack of access to land resource. Thus, this research intends to fill the knowledge gaps that exist by examining the issue from rural women's point of view.

1.3. Objective of the Research

The general objective of this study is to explore rural women's access to land and their food security situation in Hulet Ejue Ense *Woreda*.

1.3.1. Specific Objectives of the Research

The specific objectives of this research are to:

- ❖ identify major formal and informal way of getting access to land by households,
- ❖ investigate the major disparities of access to land among male-headed and female-headed households,
- ❖ assess female-headed and male-headed households' major role in their food production and
- ❖ examine the linkage between rural households' access to land and their food security situation.

1.4. Research Questions

In order to achieve the above stated objectives, this research tried to answer the following major questions:

1. How do rural households get access to land?
2. Are there disparities of access to land among male-headed and female headed households?
3. What are the major roles of female-headed and male-headed households to their food production?
4. Is there a link between households' access to land and their food security situation?

1.5. Significance of the Research

The study may add to existing literature and help to other researchers who intended to work research on similar or related topic and area. Apart from its contribution to the academic sphere, it may be utilized by Rural Land Administration Office, Women's Affairs Office and Non Governmental Organizations (NGOs) to design training in order to improve women's access to and control over land as well as rural women's food security situation in the *woreda*.

In addition, this study will show implications of women's equal access to, control and use of land to their food security and bring sustainable rural livelihood in the area. Moreover, the

study will come up with up-to-date information on gender gaps to be considered by the regional rural land administration and food security strategies during planning, implementing and revising.

1.6. Scope and Limitations

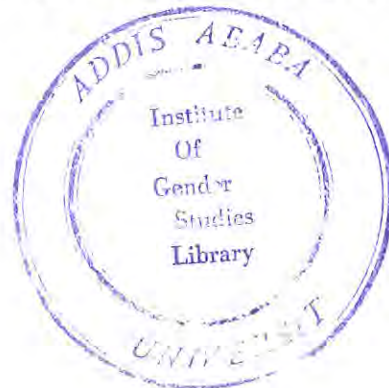
This research was delimited to two rural *kebeles* of Hulet Ejue Enese *woreda*, East Gojjam Zone in the Amhara Regional State, which is located 367 kms away from Addis Ababa. Hulet Ejue Enese *woreda* has 44 *kebeles*, however, due to time and resource constraints it was impossible to study all *kebeles* at a time.

Land is one of the principal assets of rural/peasant women, which can be discussed in terms of landholding rights, control over, use of and means of acquisition. Moreover, it can be dealt with other issues like health, education, poverty, and migration.

On the other hand, the concept of food insecurity is too broad and complex, which can also be dealt with other related issues like access to labor, access to credit, access to agricultural input and access to fertile land at various levels: household level, national and regional level. However, it was not possible to study all these issues together at a time. Thus, this research was designed to study only women's access to land and food security situation in the study area. Hence, the assumption made was if other factors are more or less similar.

1.7. Organization of the Study

The research has five chapters. The first chapter deals with background of the study, statement of the problem, objectives, significance, scope and limitations and working definition of the study. The second chapter presents an over view of related literature and researches done. The third chapter summarizes the research methodology and depicts the study area. The fourth chapter discusses the key findings of the study and the last chapter deals with conclusion and recommendations.



CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF THEORETICAL AND RELATED LITERATURE

This section presents the relevant theories and related literature on land tenure, land rights, property rights and food security. Feminist theories: Marxism and Liberal Feminism, and Livelihood Approach used as theoretical frameworks for this study. Review of related works on women's access to land, cause of food insecurity, women and food security also addressed in this chapter. However, before discussing the relevant theories and related literature, it is important to clarify some concepts, such as land tenure and food security.

2.1. Definition of Concepts

2.1.1. Concepts of Land Tenure

Land tenure refers to terms and conditions under which land and other related resources are held and used (ECA, 2009). Land tenure consists of social relations and institutions governing access to land and use of land and natural resources. It can be described in terms of "bundles of right" to do certain things with land or other property (Bruce, 1993 cited in Degefa, 2003). Land tenure varies from community to community and influenced by historical development of each community (Maxwell & Wiebe, 1998). Moreover, land tenure is the way in which ownership of land or rights to land is organized. It represents relations of people as individual and as group in society with respect to their access to and control over land (Moyo, 2002).

2.1.2. Concepts of Food Security

Food security began to make serious impact on the development debate in the 1970s and has rarely been out of the limelight. However, it must be acknowledged that interest in food security has waxed and waned over time, partly in response to the evolution of thinking about development more widely and partly because of changes in the nature of the food problem in the real world (Maxwell & Wiebe, 1998). Hence, in 1974, food security was defined by the World Food Conference as: "Availability at all times of adequate world food supplies of basic foodstuff to sustain a steady expansion of food consumption and to offset fluctuations in

production and prices” (UN, 1975). FAO’s 1983 definition of food security is “Ensuring that all people at all times have both physical and economic access to the basic food that they need”.

Food security exists when all people, at all times, have physical, social and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food that meets their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life. On the other hand, food insecurity exists when people do not have adequate physical, social or economical access to food as defined above. The most commonly agreed definition given to food security contains three main components: food availability, access and utilization. Availability refers to an adequate supply of food within country or region; access implies the sufficient means to obtain food through home production and the market or other sources while food access refers to the ability of a household and its members to achieve enough food through production, exchange and transfer (USAID, 1999).

Though the above concepts and definitions are universal, it is important to contextualize the concept in Ethiopian case. In Ethiopia, for instance, Degefa (2005, p.10) described household as food secured when its livelihood activities allow to meet its food requirements and other basic needs, either through its own production, i.e. crop cultivation and/or livestock rearing, through having opportunities to run own non-farm ventures or to work with somebody else, or getting access to food through transfer.

2.2. Analytical Framework: Food Security through Own production

Own production demands access to productive resource such as land. Access to land lead to access of other productive resource include labour, livestock, agricultural input, credit and saving. Women’s access and control over productive resources is the base in the process of building up their economic status. Hence, rural women’s access to land is the key to food production and then food security through increasing own production. Rural households own production through access to land lead to increased purchasing power and transfer of food in that household. Thus, rural access to land is the base to be food secure through increasing own production and then purchasing power and transfer of food by the households.

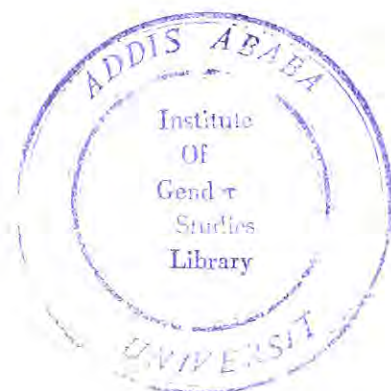
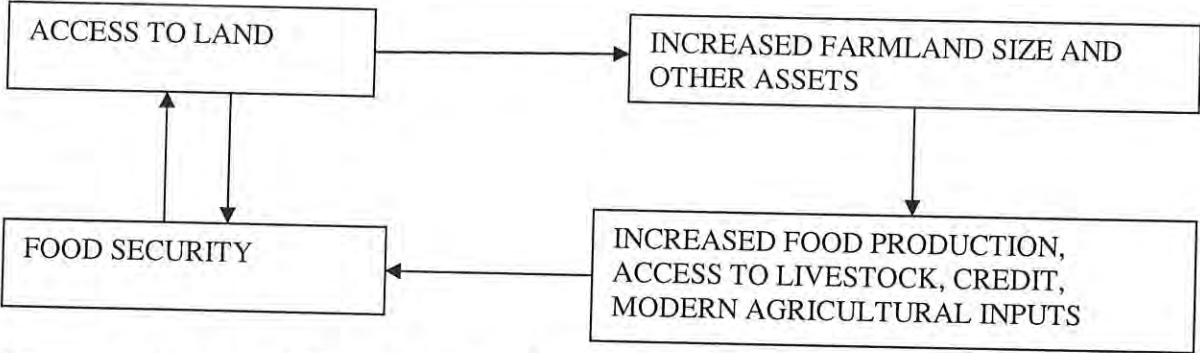


Figure 2.1: Analytical Framework



Source: Adopted from ECA, (2009) and Maxwell & Wiebe, (1998).

2.3. Theoretical Framework

2.3.1. Feminist Theories

Theories guide researchers to investigate problems in a systematic way to generate new knowledge. In an attempt to comprehend the unknown or partially known world, researches will make use of existing theories as a starting point. It is rare that a research takes place in a theoretical vacuum (Degefa, 2005). Hence, the researcher focuses on the following feminist theories.

2.3.1.1. Marxist Feminist Theory

According to Marxist Feminist Theory, women’s subordinate position in society emanates from their economic control (Tong, 1998). It is very true that women’s denial of access and control of productive resource suppress their social and political life. Marxist feminists explained women’s oppression and subordination in relation to their work status. They believe that women’s work shapes women’s thoughts and thus female nature (Tong, 1998). Women’s confinement in domestic activities limits their access to resource, information, understanding of the world and their productive role.

2.3.1.2. Liberal Feminist Theory

Liberal feminist’s assumes that sameness between men and women and assert that women are able to do what men do, if they have access to what men have in society (Beasley, 1999). According to this theory, women should have equal access to land as men to be equally productive and food secured. Taylor, a liberal feminist, cited in Tong (1998), asserted that married woman cannot be equal with her husband unless she has the confidence and sense of

entitlement that come from contributing materially to the support of the family. In order to be partners rather than servants of their husbands, wives must earn an income outside of the home.

2.3.2. Livelihood Approach

Livelihood is the way in which households and communities derive food, shelter and clothing to sustain their living (Chambers & Conway, 1992). Chambers (1988) defined livelihood as adequate stocks and flows of food and cash to meet basic needs. Security of livelihood includes access to the means to produce the food or generate the income to meet those needs. In this study, rural women's access to land is a key to produce food. Moreover, Maxwell & Wiebe (1999) argue that food security is a subset of livelihood security. Livelihood approach seeks to identify what the poor possess rather than what they do not have and to strengthen people's own inventive solutions, rather than substitute for block or undermine them (ECA, 2009).

2.3. 2.1.Livlihood Assets s

The sustainable livelihood framework identifies five different types of livelihood resources. The following four assets discussed in this study. Natural Capital consists of natural resource stocks (land), the human capital (household labour capacity and education); the financial capital (livestock, credit and remittance) and the social capital (social support networks and participation in social institutions (Carney, 1998).

Natural Capital-Land

Natural capital refers to the natural resource base namely land, water and trees that yield products utilized by human population for their survival (Ellis, 2000 as cited in Girmachew, 2006 and Degefa, 2005). Crop production at home depends on access to arable land and its size. Thus, the linkage between access to natural capital and food security for rural people is direct (Degefa, 2005). In Ethiopia, because of male domination and other cultural constraints, there is genre gap in relation to access and control to natural resource particularly productive resource i.e., land, which is the base of rural livelihood. Women's access and control of productive resource especially land in the study area is not equal to men.

Human Capital- Labour

It is often said that the chief asset possessed by the poor is their own labour. Human capital refers to the labor available to the household: its education, skills, and health. Lack of human

capital affects the ability to secure a livelihood (Carney, 1998). Most of rural female headed household in the study area lack of human capital particularly men labour. Thus, due to gender division of labour and lack of human capital like men labour they faced food insecurity.

Social Capital- Social Acceptance

Social capital is defined as the rules, norms, obligations and trusts embedded in social relations, social structures and societal institutional arrangements, which enables its members to achieve their individual and community objectives (Ellis, 2000 as cited in Girmachew, 2006). Rural women in the study area have poor social capital than men have. The societal acceptance of rural women is poor because of their strong tie with domestic shore.

Financial Capital- Credit and Saving

It refers to stocks of cash and livestock that can be accessed in order to purchase either production or consumption good. Lack of financial service suitable for poor household constraints their livelihood (Girmachew, 2006). Rural Ethiopian women particularly, in the study area in have limited access financial asset: limited access to saving and credit which affect their livelihood and food security situation.

2.3.2.2. Vulnerability

A widely used concept when discussing risk, coping and survival is that of vulnerability. It is defined as a high degree of exposure to risk, shocks and stress; and proneness to food insecurity. Some groups in society are more prone to damage, food insecurity, loss and suffering than others. Race, gender, status and access to resource and economic opportunity plays additional role to socio-economic status when analyzing vulnerability (Carney, 1998). Thus, in the study area, gender plays the major role to vulnerability analysis. In other words, women are more prone to food insecurity than men.

2.4. Review of Empirical Works

2.4.1. Women's Access to Land

Access to land is a means to access membership in agricultural associations, to access agricultural inputs, credit, etc. Lack of access to rural land is an obstacle to agricultural productivity and to increase rural women's income as they cannot access these resources without holding land and securing tenure. Women's access and right to land is less equal than legally provided (Almaz, 2007). Lack of access to land in general, as well as lack of appropriate land for commercial farming (in terms of soil fertility, location and slope) is a major constraint that women face (Spring, 2000). Degefa (2005), further explains that disparities in access to land resources make a significant difference in people's livelihoods at both household and community levels. People's access to food depends both on the purchasing power of their income and on their non-market entitlements, such as rights to land for subsistence farming and foraging purposes (Emebet, 2008).

2.4.2. International Land policy Frameworks and Legislations

Land legislation is the act of defining land rights through the law, usually through Acts of Parliament. The main aim of land legislation is to protect the land rights of individuals through laws, define the rights and responsibilities of institutions, and adjudicate in cases of conflicts. In some cases, the national land policy specifies the duties and obligations of those who have access to land, the rules that have to be followed in utilizing the land, the administrative recourse for resolving disputes and so on (ECA, 2009). International law has framed gender equality as part of global concern on human rights and basic freedoms for social, economic and political rights. For instance, Universal Declaration of Human Rights adopted in 1948 and other international laws and conventions developed afterwards have a number of provisions to address gender equality (UDHR, 1948).

The Beijing Declaration, on its Article 35 states that governments should ensure women's equal access to economic resources including land, credit, science and technology, vocational training, etc. as a means to further the advancement and empowerment of women. Governments are required to incorporate gender perspective in all policies and programs to bring about political, economic and social developments. Women and the economy and women and poverty are critical areas of concern in the Beijing Platform for Action (UN/DES/DAW, 1995). Moreover, the United Nations Higher Commission on Human Rights passed resolution on women's equal ownership access to, control over property, and land

(UNHCR, 2003/22). Furthermore, African Protocol to the African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa adopted by the then OAU called upon all African states to eliminate discrimination against women and to ensure women's rights as set in international declarations and conventions (OAU, 2003).

2.4.3. National Legal Frameworks

Countries around the world affirm principles of basic human rights. A country's legal system often incorporates national statutory law, international commitments entered and conventions ratified. However, barriers exist to effective implementation of national commitments to gender equality because customary laws mostly deny women's equal rights to land to that of men. In recent years, land administration reforms have been projected in the notion of good governance focusing on decentralization and democratization of land administration institutions (Quan, 2000; Adams, 2001 as cited in Almaz, 2007). Agarwal (1994) emphasized on the need for land policy which, focuses on women's access to and control over land.

2.4.4. Overview of Land Tenure System in Ethiopia

2.4.4.1. Major Land Tenure Reforms

In Ethiopia, different regime (imperial regime: before 1974; the Derg from 1975-1991 and the present from 1991 onwards) followed different tenure systems (Hoben, 2002). During imperial regime, the most common land tenure system was '*rist*'/kinship, private, church, and state holding systems. With some differences, the most prevalent tenure in the northern part of the country (Eritrea, Tigre, Begemidir, Gojjam, and some parts of Shoa and Wollo) was the '*rist*' communal or kinship tenure (Wibke & Benedikt, 2008). Within this tenure system, there were two variants of land rights – '*rist*' and '*gult*'. *Rist* is the right to claim a share of land based on kinship to a historical ancestor held in common with other *rist* holders. Briefly, the land in '*rist*' areas is divided into a multiplicity of geographical units originally held by a founding father (Cohen & Weintraub (1975, as cited in Yigremew, 2002).

On the other hand, the 1975 land reform of the Derg has been considered by many as a radical measure that abolished the tenant-landlord relations in Ethiopia. The rural land reform proclamation ("Proclamation to Provide for the Public Ownership of Rural Lands", No.31/1975) stated that feudal lords had exploited the peasantry (Yigremew, 2002, p. 13).

The basic provisions of the proclamation include public ownership of all rural lands, distribution of land to the tiller in provinces with privately owned rural land (art 4), prohibitions on transfer of use rights by sale, exchange, succession, mortgage or lease, except upon death and then only to the wife, husband, or minor children of the deceased or in their absence the children of the deceased who have achieved majority and in the case of communal lands, possessory rights over the land the peasants till at the time of the reform (Art. 19, as cite in Yigremew,2002).

Art 40 of the 1995 FDRE constitution states: “The right to ownership of rural land and urban land, as well as of all natural resources is exclusively vested in the state and in the Peoples of Ethiopia. Land is a common property of the Nations, Nationalities and Peoples of Ethiopia and shall not be subject to sale or other means of exchange”. The constitution also attests that Ethiopian peasants have right to obtain land without payment and the protection against eviction from their possession (FDRE, 1995).

Moreover, the 1995 constitution gives priority to women, disables and orphan children. “Every Ethiopian citizen of either sex shall have the right to own property, including the ownership of both urban and rural land. This right includes the right to acquire, use, mortgage, sell, transfer by succession or by other means” (FDRE, 1995).

2.4.4.2. Rural Land Legislation of Amhara Region

Before the 1975 land reform, the major form of ownership was a type of communal system known as ‘*rist*’. According to this system, all descendants (both male and female) of an individual founder were entitled to a share of family land. ‘*Rist*’ was hereditary, inalienable, and inviolable. Most farmers in the northern highlands held at least some ‘*rist*’ land (Askale, 2005). In 2000, Amhara regional government established the Land Use and Administration Proclamation. The proclamation defined the right of possession as well as the right to use, rent, or inherit. Further to this proclamation, an implementation policy strategy was developed by the Natural Resource and Land Use Bureau of the region. This guideline described in detail the responsibilities and accountability of the actors during the process of land rights registration (Askale, 2005).

This policy has a flexible eligibility provision, which seems to have benefited women. For example, if a marriage breaks up, the man and woman are provided with an equal share of the land they were holding jointly. The transfer of land through inheritance is only legal when the wife countersigns the testament. In case of joint titling, it is obligatory that both the wife's and husband's names are on the registration form, with their photographs attached to the certificate. Such certificates can only be given to the household when both the wife and husband acknowledge the receipt of the certificate with their signatures (ANRS, 2006).

2.4.5. Women and Food Security

The State of Food Security (2001) has redefined food security as a situation that exists when all people, at all times, have physical, social and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food that meets their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life" (FAO, 2002). Women remain the invisible agricultural producers in peasant society. In agrarian communities of the world, they contribute to physical work of farm production as well as supporting the livelihood of the farm households in many other ways (Ellis, 1993 as cited in Mulumebet, 2010).

Though women are the principal actors in the production, distribution and preparation of food, they are socially excluded from enjoying physical resources and services, such as land, agricultural extension and decision making in the household as well as at community level. Exclusion of women's access to physical resources limits their agricultural productivity, which in turn decreases their role in securing food to households. They might become unable to provide sufficient food for the family or to raise and maintain the nutritional and health status of their children (World Bank, 1993).

Access to land and land tenure relations are critical where communities depend on control of land to ensure their food security. According to ECA (2009), "Food security" is the capacity of households, communities and the state to mobilize sufficient food, through production, acquisition and distribution, on a sustainable basis. In short, all the above empirical works reflect that women are vulnerable to food insecurity.

2.4.5.1 Overview of Ethiopian Food Security Policies and Strategies

Food security strategy addresses both the supply and the demand side of the food equation - that is, availability and entitlement respectively from both a national and household level perspective. Within this, particular attention is given on the diversity of food production zones in Ethiopia (i.e. areas with adequate moisture, moisture deficit and pastoral) to tailor options and strategies accordingly (FDRE, 2002). Accordingly, the three pillars of the strategy include:

- increasing the availability of food through increased domestic production.
- ensuring access to food for food deficit households; and
- strengthening emergency response capabilities.

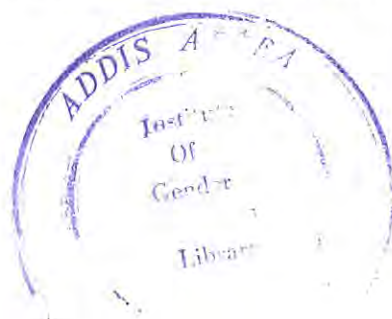
The Rural Development Policy and Strategy states that, rapid economic development would be ensured through agriculture-led and rural-centered development. Agriculture would accelerate trade and industry development by supplying raw materials, creating opportunities for capital accumulation and enhancing domestic market (FDRE, 2001).

2.4.5.2. Food Security in Ethiopia

Ethiopia is a country with over 73 million people of which the majority or 85 percent are engaged in rural and agricultural based economic activities (CSA, 2008). In terms of per capita income, it is one of the lowest in the world. Ethiopia often faces with complex poverty, which is broad, deep and structural (Tilaye, 2004). The proportion of the population below the poverty line is 44 percent in 1999/2000 (MoFED, 2002).

The country is also one of the poorest countries in the world facing severe food insecurity problems due to widespread poverty, rapid population growth and recurrent droughts. Gains in cereal production since the early 1990s is notwithstanding, the situation thus remain critical at present. Almost half of the population has incomes below the poverty line and 20% of Ethiopian households (13 million people) are food insecure (i.e. these households do not consume adequate amounts of food in drought years) (World Bank, 2005).

Moreover, 6-7 million people are *chronically* food insecure, lacking sufficient resources to consume enough food even in good years. Malnutrition (stunting) among Ethiopian children



is over 60 percent in some regions (Tigray, Amhara) reflecting long-term impact of food insecurity (Subbarao and Smith, 2003 as cite in World Bank, 2005). The gender dimension of food security is critical in Ethiopia as women contribute greatly to economic development. Women, in addition to their reproductive role, have a substantive productive role in the rural sector (FDRE, 2002).

2.4.5.3. Causes of Food Insecurity

Causes of food insecurity in Ethiopia are usually attributed to natural calamities life shortage of rain or high rainfall, frost and pest epidemics. However, different scholars attributed different reasons from different perspectives. For instance, Degefa (2002) classify the causes of food insecurity in Ethiopia as environmental problems; demographic factors; economic factors; infrastructural constraints and social factors. Insufficient landholding, lack of draft power, lack of access to credit, poor extension services, and problems related to technological inputs were identified among the constraints to expanding crop production (Degefa, 2005).

In the document of the New Coalition for Food Security, major causes for transitory and chronic food insecurity in Ethiopia were listed as: high susceptibility to drought, land degradation and decreased productivity, lack of access to inputs, lack of access to credit, lack of access to technology, lack of access to markets, limited access to basic services, lack of income generation opportunities& alternatives, and lack of access to information (FDRE, 2003: Vol.1).

2.4.5.4. Coping Mechanisms

People facing the problem of food shortage make strategic decisions about how to meet their needs. These decisions and actions are what are commonly called coping mechanisms. Lots of coping mechanisms have been identified by various researchers on the issue of household food security. The major coping mechanisms includes production based coping mechanisms, that are ways of expanding crop production various means; market-based responses which include purchase of food grain; and non-market-based responses which include institutional and social income transfer systems such as gifts, borrowing grain or cash from relatives or reliance on relief food distribution (Tilaye, 2004).

2.5. Linkages between Land Tenure and Food Security

Land tenure is the system of rights and institutions that governs access to and use of land and other resources. On the other hand, food security is the state of having secure and sustainable access to sufficient food for an active and healthy life (Maxwell & Wiebe 1998). Land rights, particularly in the context of Africa, are inextricably linked with the right to food and other necessities linked to the livelihoods of rural poor (Dejene & Teferi, 2005). Thus, the issue of land has direct relation to food security.

Linkages between the two issues (land tenure and food security) are now receiving increased attention, yet critical links between them remain unexplored. The land tenure issues that affect food security include manifestations of unequal distribution of land, sub-optimal utilization of land and insecure tenure. If the security of tenure is weak in general, livelihoods can be constrained. Thus, tenure remains key factor for improving land management practices (ECA, 2004). Dessalegn, (1989) argued that food insecurity has been aggravated by serious resource degradation, itself a consequence of the ill advised and demanding rural policy of successive governments. He also demonstrates that not only labor but also land is an indispensable asset in the production process in much of rural Ethiopian.

Yared (2001) also argued that land is the crucial differentiating resource in his study area. Land, oxen and other livestock, as well as labor are the important economic resources for the foundation of the household economy. Above all, there is a link between women's access to land and food security situation, which required attention to be studied together from women's own experiences.

Research works show that land is the most critical factors affecting household food security situation though they fail to analyze female-headed household as a units of analysis, rather they treat household as a whole. For instance, "Land holding and holding size is one of the most critical factors affecting household security in the rural setting. The access and the size of farmland a household have affected status of household food security" (Aberra, 2002: p.61). Other scholars such as Degefa (2003), Workneh (2001), Maxwell and Wiebe (1999) dealt about land and food security at household level without particular attention to female-headed household. Therefore, this research tries to fill this gap.

2.6. Definition of Key Terms

Access to land and other resources: Resources are means and goods including those that are economic like household income, productive like land, equipments, agricultural inputs (including labor) and opportunity to leadership and decision-making, information, organization and time. Access to resource implies the ability to use resources and/or benefits and to make short-term decisions on these resources (Akuna, 2004).

Land ownership: It is an important protection against poverty in rural areas all over the world. It defines both social status and political power in a village and it structures relationships within and outside the household (Ehlers & Kreutzmann 2000).

Arbitration: It is a process of dispute resolution by a neutral third party (arbitrator) who renders a decision after a hearing. It is an arrangement for submitting and abiding by decision of selected persons in some disputed matters instead of taking into a court (ANRS, 2006).

Female-headed household: Female-headed household in this study is a female adult family member who is responsible for the care and organization of the household or is regarded as head by the other member of the households. On the other hand, male-headed is a male household head who is responsible to the care and organization of the household.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Research Methods

A research method is a procedure for collecting, analyzing and interpreting data (Tripathi, 2002 cited in Mulugeta, 2009). It is a means for the realization of the objectives of the given study at hand.

3.1.1. Mixed Research Methods

A mixed research method is a philosophical assumption that guides the direction of the collection and analysis of data and the mixture of qualitative and quantitative data in research process. Its central premise is that the use of quantitative and qualitative approach in combination provides a better understanding of research problem than other approach that stand alone. Mixed research method is important to offset the weakness of both qualitative and quantitative research methods (Creswell, 2007).

Thus, mixed research method was used to explore rural women's access to land, food security situation and understand the problem in a better way. Hence, qualitative and quantitative research methods were employed in the collection and analysis of data. The researcher was able to produce figures, which are crucial to analyze the existing gender disparities through quantitative methods, and while the qualitative methods enabled a more in-depth examination of the issues which are not easily captured by quantitative methods. The combination of the quantitative and qualitative methods enabled the researcher to triangulate the results.

3.1.2. Qualitative Method

Qualitative methods involve the use of varied empirical resources such as case studies (life stories), key informant interviews, focus group discussions, observational and historical information, which are often participatory (Robson, 1995). This method assisted to select combination of tools that enable the researcher collect reliable and detailed data for analysis. Interviews, focus group discussions and observations enabled the researcher to explore deeply the experiences and perceptions of participants.

Qualitative approach is effective in obtaining information about the values, attitudes, behaviors, and social contexts of particular populations. In addition, this approach is the best way to access the respondents' ideas, memories and attitude in their own words rather than the words of the researcher (Creswell, 1998). It also allowed participants to articulate their life experiences in their own view and language.

3.1.3. Quantitative Method

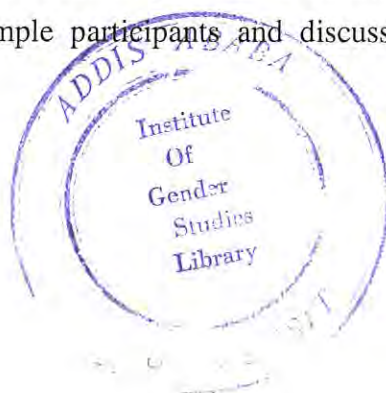
Quantitative method is used to quantify the data on the issue under study and to provide statistical information about the problem. It provides a quantitative or numeric description of trends, attitudes, or opinions of population by studying a sample of that population (Creswell, 2009). In the quantitative method, questionnaire was the main data collection tool. It was employed to collect household demographic information; women's way of access to land; women's access to and control over resources; gender division of labour; major causes of women's food insecurity and their coping mechanisms.

3.2. Sampling Procedure and Sampling Techniques

To address the research questions, the researcher decided on which people and research site that can provide best information by putting a sampling procedure in place, and determining the number of individuals that was needed to provide data. Selection of the *Kebeles* and participants was done in consultation with the *Woreda's* Office of Agriculture and Rural Development and based on agreed criteria.

3.2.1. Sampling Techniques for Qualitative Method

In qualitative research, the researcher selected individuals and sites purposively from where all the necessary information can be obtained. That means, the researcher intentionally selects participants who have experience and better knowledge about the problem in the study area. Purposive sampling was employed to select the sample participants and discussants for



primary data source. In terms of number, rather than selecting large number of people or sites, the qualitative approach identifies a small number that provided in-depth information about the problem.

Thus, the researcher took 16 individual interviewees, 4 in-depth interviewees, 6 Focus Group Discussants and 10 key-informant interviewees. The distribution of FGD and interview by *kebele* gave equal chance. Key informants were selected purposively based on their closeness for the problem. FGD discussants and interview participants were also chosen based on their knowledge about the issue at hand and their ability to discuss the issue very well and it was conducted on voluntary bases.

3.2.2. Sampling Techniques for Quantitative Method

For quantitative method, the researcher used stratified sampling procedure which helps to avoid over sample by one group of respondent. The target populations for quantitative data collection were rural households in Shege-keranio and Agam-woha *Kebleles* in Hulet Eju Enese *Woreda*. Rural households are not homogenous and therefore, they were stratified into male-headed households and female-headed households from which samples were selected randomly.

A total of 89 women respondents (49 FHH and 40 women in MHH) 30% of 294 total households that found in two *kebeles* (45 (30% of 148) from Shege-keranio and 44 (30% of 146) from Agagm-woha) were selected for the household survey. This is as a rule of thumb, 30% is required for small population, 10% for moderately large population, 1% for large population and 0.025% for a very large population (Blanch et al, 2006). Sample respondents were included from each *kebeles* through random sampling method after stratifying them in *kebeles* and household.

3.3. Data Source and Methods of Data Collection

Data were generated from both primary and secondary sources. This in turn helped the researcher to examine the rural women's access to land, food production and broaden

understanding of gender relations in the study area. Using the primary sources, it was possible to get firsthand information and opinions of research participants who are close to the subject under study. Secondary sources were utilized to ascertain the primary data source.

3.3.1 Primary data Collection Methods

Primary data were generated through questionnaire, key informant interview, individual interview, case study, focus group discussions and direct observation.

3.3.1.1. Household Survey

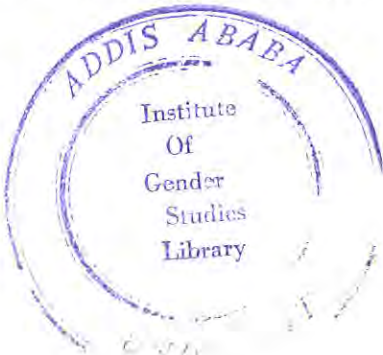
Detailed open-ended and close-ended questionnaire related to the background of respondent in line with the objective of the research was developed and distributed to the sample respondents to generate a primary quantitative data. Structured questionnaire was employed in order to control over illiteracy, incompleteness, assure validity and to include observational information to the response though it is resource intensive both in terms of money and time.

The questionnaire consists of 5 parts which contains 46 questions (Annex I). The main purpose of the questionnaire was to collect the necessary data from the sampled population on socio-economic, resource access, food security, coping mechanism and gender inequality condition in the study area. The survey was administered on selected 49 female household heads and 40 male household heads (44 Agam-waha and 45 from Shege-keranio). The questionnaire was coded by *Kebele* to distinguish the two *Kebeles*. Accordingly, Agam-woha *Kebele* was coded ‘1’ and Shegie-keranio *Kebele* was coded ‘2’ simply representing alphabetical order of their designations.

Table 3.1 Summary of Survey Respondents

Kebele	Types of household		Total
	FHHs	MHHs	
Agam-woha	24	20	44
Shege-keranio	25	20	45
Total	49	40	89

The research questionnaire was originally prepared in English. It was carefully articulated to ensure clarity, to avoid bias and to get reliable information. The questionnaire was translated to the local language Amharic, so that language should not be barrier to respondents to spell



out what they have in mind. The translated version of the questionnaire was carefully cross-checked with the initial English version and was similar in content and structure. This was done to avoid error during data entry.

To check their standardization, consistency and whether there is unclear concepts and questions or not, a pilot survey in some randomly selected households was conducted and finally some adjustments made before the actual field survey. The researcher was assisted by three enumerators who were selected from development agents working based on their experience in the area and communication skill.

3.3.1.2. Individual Interview

Interviews with 6 female household heads and 4 male households' heads i.e. five from each *kebele* has been used as one of the methods for generating data for this research. The researcher was able to understand deeply the livelihood of the rural women, the food security situation, their coping mechanism, women's access to resource and existing gender gap in the *woreda*. The interview with 6 men i.e. three in each *kebele*, was conducted to understand the attitude of the community towards women's status, access to land, food security, gender division of labour and women's productivity. The interview was conducted using developed interview guide (Annex II). The researcher has taken note while interviewing and most of the interviews were tape-recorded with full consent of the interviewees.

Key informant interviews were done with *woreda* agricultural experts and development agents to assess women's food security, women's productivity and gender disparity in the study area. Two *kebele* managers and two land administration unit heads were interviewed to investigate women's access to land. In addition, interviews were also made with judge from the *Woreda* Court Bureau to assess the fair division of property during disputes and with an expert from one Credit and Saving Association to assess women's access to credit.

Interviews with *Woreda's* Women's Affairs head and an expert were undertaken to assess gender disparities, gender division of labour, the status of women and the level of participation in planning and decision making, their role and contribution for effective

implementation of regional land administration system, women's rights and proclamations, women's food security and other gender related issues in the *Woreda*. The key informant interviews were conducted based on developed guidelines (Annex III).

3.3.1.3. Focus Group Discussions (FGD)

Six Focus Group Discussions were held aiming at three main purposes. Firstly, to assess women's access to and control over resource; secondly, to assess the rural women's food security situation and coping mechanism; and thirdly, to examine gender division of labour and to assess opinions of women themselves and of the community towards women's resource access and *kebele* and community participation (Annex IV).

FGDs were conducted separately with female household heads, women in MHH, and men (husbands) in both *kebeles*. From Shege-keranio *kebele*, 6 female household heads, 5 married women and 5 men (husbands) were involved in the FGDs. The discussions were held for two days in the *kebele* Credit and Saving Association compound. The FGDs in Agam-woha *kebele* were held in the compound of Farmers Training Center (FTC). The participants were 6 female household heads, 5 married women and 5 men. Totally, 32 people participated in FGDs. All FGDs were conducted using audio recorder and note taking techniques.

3.3.1.4. Case Studies/In-depth interview

The case studies were conducted to deeply comprehend women's effort and constraints to secure food for their households. It was also used to assess coping strategies used by the women at time of food shortage, and personal perception about their economic and social situations at present. Further, the cases studies were helpful in deepening the understanding of the socio-economic set up of the communities and gender division of labour. Four case studies were undertaken, two from each *kebele*.

3.3.1.5 Observation

As the data collection of this research was led by the researcher, it was an opportunity to get an in-depth understanding of the different situations, gender division of labour and the food security conditions in the study area. The frequent field trip to the *kebeles* enabled the

researcher to observe the biophysical environment and to meet different people with different life experiences. This helped to understand the livelihood of the community and the intra-household dynamics and existing gender gap in the study area.

3.3.2. Secondary Data Sources

Secondary data were generally collected from both published and unpublished materials such as books, articles, web sites, international and national conventions, policy and strategies. They all were reviewed to understand the concept of food security, women's access to land and land right as well as to identify women's role in food security, coping mechanism and gender division of labour. Regional, *Woreda*, *Kebele* and Women's Affairs Offices official reports and other archival documents such as register books, directives, minutes of *Keble* administrative meeting, correspondences of the *Woreda* and the *kebeles* under study were used to supplement the primary data.

3.4. Ethical Considerations

The researcher was committed to ethical principles of conducting a research. Ethics was a concern of a researcher while planning, designing, conducting and writing the research report. According to Punch (1994, implication and consequences of the research on participants' psychological, social, political, religious, cultural and economic life should be seriously considered. The legal ground for the research was obtained from Institute of Gender Studies with a letter to all concerned bodies: government and individuals in the study area.

Quantitative survey respondents and qualitative informants were provided detail explanation about the overall objective of the study in advance. FGDs and interviews were administered on the free will of discussants and interviewees. Prior to data collection, training and orientation were given to enumerators and supervisors on how to fill and ask the questionnaire and interview, sort of approaches to follow to sample households. The respondents, interviewees and discussants were asked to participate voluntarily, freely and even allowed to discontinue their participation if they feel discomfort. Their consent was also confirmed to record and to be captured in photos during the interview and FGDs.



They were also informed about the confidentiality of the information they give through interview, focus group discussion and questionnaire that it will be kept secret and will not be transferred to a third party or will not be used for any other purpose apart from this study. The researcher also gave due consideration to feminist ethical consideration; minimization of the power relation between the researcher and the researched.

3.5. Field Experience

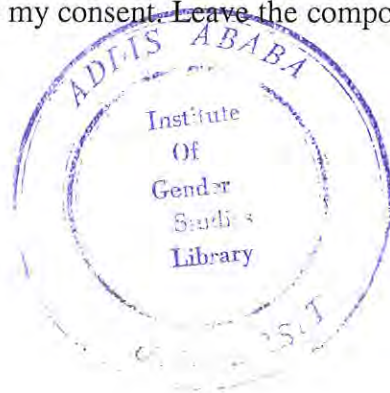
The first task of the researcher was providing official letter and briefing the objectives of the research to the Woreda's Agricultural Rural Development Office, in order to get official permit from Hulet Eju Ense Woreda Agriculture and Rural Development Office to conduct this study on the Woreda. The bureau was willing to assist the researcher.

3.5.1. Challenges and Problem Encountered During the Fieldwork

During the fieldwork, the researcher has encountered challenges. When I communicated the *kebele* Women's Affairs Bureau of Shege-keranio, the woman in charge was willing to assist me. She also told me that on Thursday (14/12/2010), there will be a meeting on Credit and Saving Association office in Keranio. In the meeting all female-headed households, women in male-headed households and male-headed households will participate whether they take credit, have saving or not. She recommended me to use the chance to fill the questionnaire.

The researcher was thankful and planed to do that. On 14/12/2010 at 8:00 am, I went to the Credit and Saving Association together with my informant. When we arrive, we met *kebele* Women's Affairs W/ro Abebech and Ato Yasabe from Credit and Saving Association. I introduced myself to them and showed the official letter which I took from IGS, AAU. I also introduced my informant to them and told why she is with me. Ato Yasabe was willing enough to help us. He provided us chairs and tables. We sat down and discussed on a number of issues related to my research.

However, after one hour, another person came and said, "Stand up, who are you, what is your politics, what is your religion, who knows you, who permit you to come and sit, you will be charged, because you came in this compound without my consent. Leave the compound now!"



He shouted on us. He informed me that I could not do anything in the office and even in the *kebele* without his consent.

I was endeavoring to show him my official letter (To Whom It May Concern) from IGS, AAU and I was briefing the purpose and objectives of the research, from where I came and why I was there. I also told to him that I have discussed with the person who was in the office before one hour. Moreover, I told to him that I have asked consent from the *woreda*. However, he did not show willingness to help me.

Actually, I asked Ato Yasabe about who is the right person in charge of the office. He said “the right person is Gezachew and I am next to him. However since Ato Gizachew is not around, I am the next person in charge and can give you permission to work as this research is very important to the country. However, Ato Gizachew instructed us to leave the compound and soon started to call police, but there was no police around at the moment.

At that time I left the compound and went back to the *Woreda* Agricultural Rural Development Bureau and *Woreda* Women’s Affairs Bureau to discuss about the issue and to get official letter so that I can do my fieldwork in smooth relationship. Immediately, the *Woreda* Agricultural Rural Development Bureau, *Woreda* Women’s Affairs Bureau and *Woreda* Police Bureau discussed about the matter and gave me official letter that can allow me to do the survey in the *kebele*. They also gave a telephone call to Ato Getachew to discuss about the issue. He agreed and later on gave me permission to do my fieldwork in the *kebele*.

The fieldwork was conducted during harvesting period in the study area. As a result, I encountered challenges form respondents, interviewees and discussants in relation to time. They said “why you come in working day, why do not you come on Sunday? I cannot, please come other day. What is my advantage in participating, responding to this?” and so on. However, when I adjusted the interview and FGD discussions on Sunday and other holydays, some are not willing to participate. Through time and frequent communication, trust was build, they became willing, and I was able to collect data.



3.6. Description of the Research Area and Site Selection

3.6.1. Description of the Research Area

The Amhara National Regional State has an area of 170,150 Km² and administratively it is divided into 11 Zones and 113 *Woredas*. Amhara region has the total population 17,158,471 of which 8,636,875 (50.2%) male and 8,577,181 (49.8%) are female (CSA, 2008). The three basic agro-ecological zones of the region are Dega, Woyina-Dega and Kolla. The dominant economic activity for the region is agriculture followed by industry and service sector. The rural population of the region earns living from mixed agriculture: farming and livestock production (BoFED, 2006).

This research was conducted in Hulet Eju Enese *Woreda*, East Gojjam Zone, Amhara Regional State. The *woreda* has an area of 128,336.45 hectares with a total population of 277,279: 138,195 male and 139,084 female. Of the total population 75,736 (37,071 male and 38,665 female) are found in rural areas of the *Woreda* while 5,515 (2,739 male and 2,776) are found in urban areas of the *woreda* (CSA, 2008).

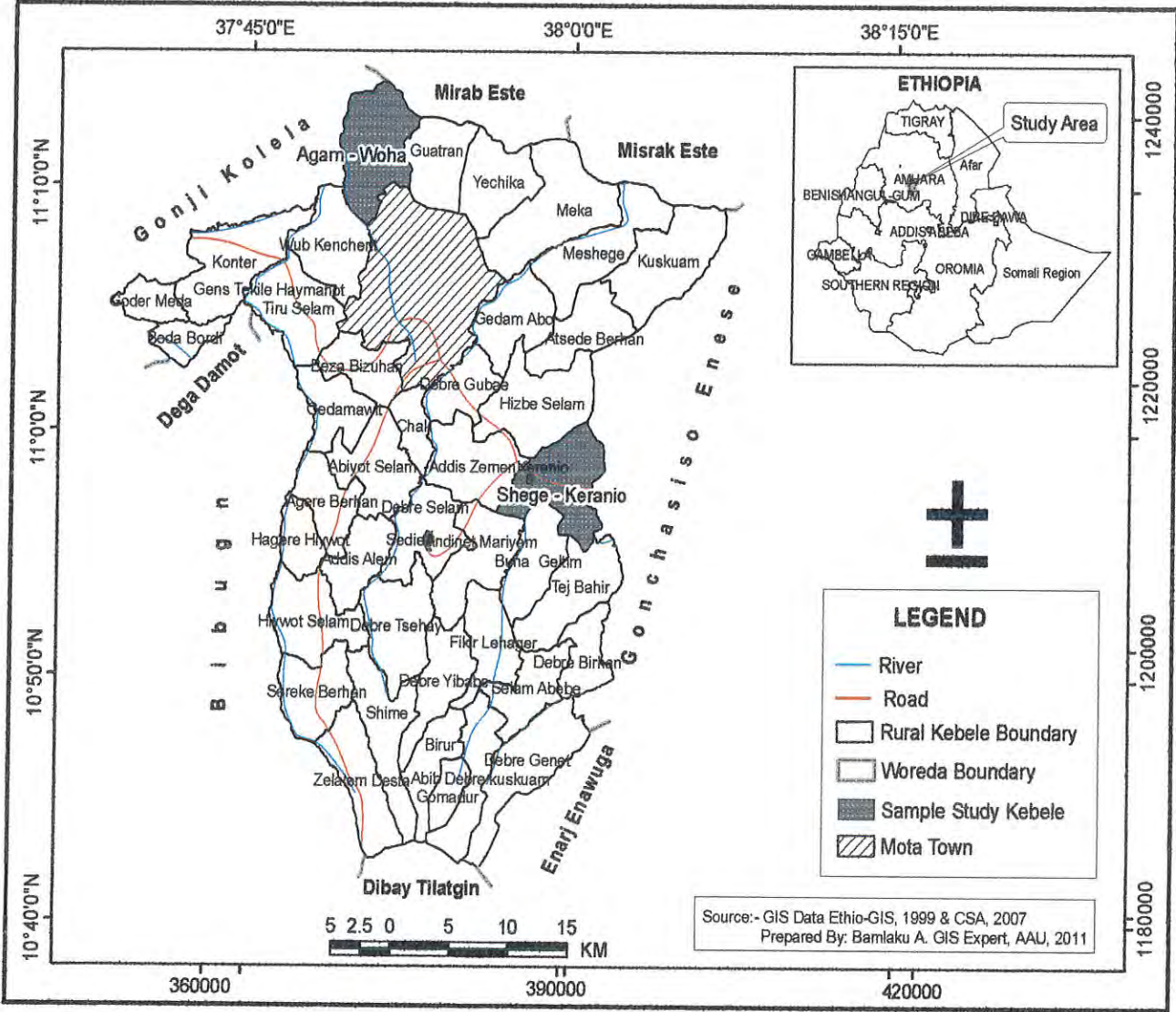
The altitude ranges between 4880-1282 meters above sea level. It consists three agro-climatic zones: Dega, Woyina dega and Kolla, which comprise about 38.7%, 32.2% and 29.1% of the area, respectively (OARD, 2010). The *Woreda* is bordered by South Gondar Zone in the north, West Gojjam Zone in the northwest, Bebugne *Woreda* in the west, Debay Teltat Gend *Woreda* in the south, Goncha Siso Ense and Enarge Enawga *Woerda* in the east and Abay River in the northeast. The people are engaged in mixed farming, crop production and livestock breeding.

3.6.2. Site Selection

Hulet Eju Enese was selected as a study area because it is one of the *woredas* where the food security program is not implemented yet and currently, particularly its Kolla part becomes one of the food insecure areas. The researcher's familiarity with the study sites is also an additional reason behind selecting the research site. All 44 *kebeles* in Huleteju Ense *woreda* are not under the food security program; two *Kebeles* were selected among them.

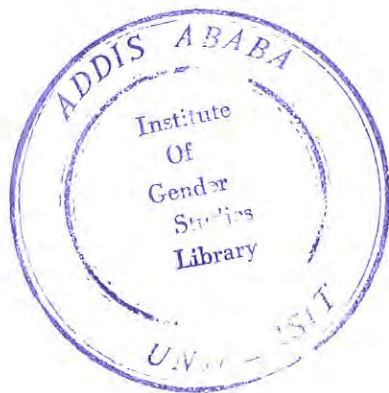
The *kebeles* (Shege-keranio and Agam-woha) were purposively selected for their representativeness in agro-climatic condition: Shege-keranio is Woyina-Dega and Agam-woha is Kolla. Distances from the *Woreda* capital and market accessibility were also additional criteria. The assumption behind is that distance from capital will matter economic activity, access to resource, information and food security situation, which create the room to discuss the problem from different perspective. Thus, Shege-keranio *kebele* is far (19 kilometer) from the capital and market accessibility while Agam-woha *kebele* is near (7 kilometers) to the capital.

Figure 3.1: Location of the study area



3.7. Data Analysis

Both qualitative and quantitative methods were utilized in analyzing the data. The qualitative data were categorized systematically for the purpose of thematic analysis. The data obtained from the structured household survey were coded and entered into a computer, and analyzed quantitatively using descriptive statistics. Quantitative data were presented in tabular form using frequency table, Pearson's correlation table and in the form of diagram using pie chart. Statistical Packages for Social Science (SPSS) was used to facilitate the quantitative analysis.



CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS

4.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the major findings of the study. It attempts to present the characteristics of women in the studied area.

4.2. Respondents' Socio-Demographic Facts

4.2.1. Age and Marital Status

The household survey respondents were female-headed household and in male-headed household from Agam-woha and Shege-keranio *kebeles*. Respondents' age ranges from 15 to 45 and above, where the majorities (60.0%) were between 36 and 45. Moreover, women from the WFHH fall under four different categories: single, divorced, widowed and separated where the majorities (61.2%) of them were divorced (Table 4.1).

Table 4.1: Distribution of Respondents by Age and Marital Status

Demographic characteristics	Respondents age and marital status distribution	
Age Group	Frequency	Percentage (%)
15-25	22	24.7
26-35	11	12.2
36-45	53	60.0
Other specify	3	3.4
Total	89	100.00
Marital Status	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Single	4	8.2
Divorced	30	61.2
Widowed	12	24.5
Separated	3	6.1
Total	49¹	100.0

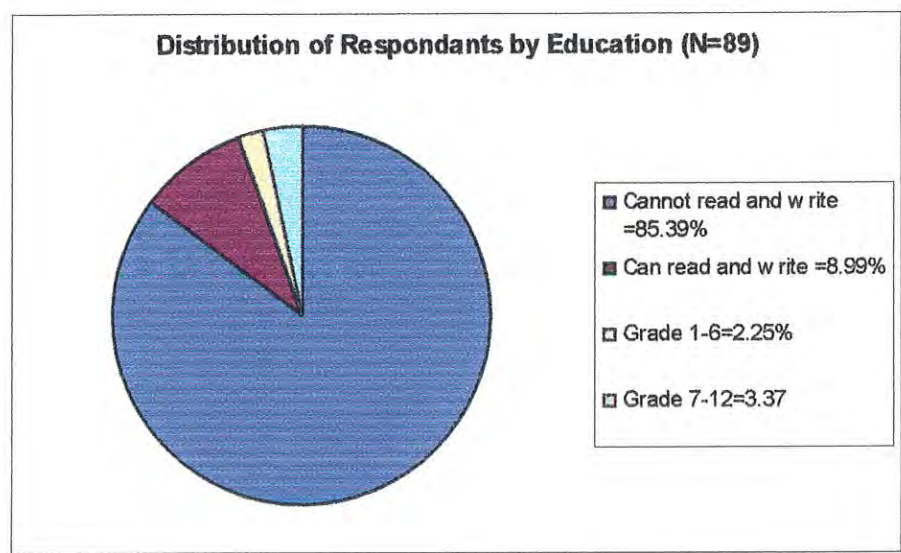
Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2011

¹ The total number of respondents in marital status is 49, because the remaining 40 respondents are from male-headed household and thus they are married (wives).

4.2.2. Educational Background

Women in Ethiopia for different socio-cultural and economic reasons have less access to education and information, which affects their socio-economic and food security status.

Figure 4.1: Distribution of Respondents by Educational Background



Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2011

As indicated in figure 4.1, the majority (85.39%) of respondents could not read and write. Those who could read and write were 8.99% and only 5.62% had had formal education. Illiteracy and low level of educational status had kept women in a disadvantaged position in every aspect of their livelihood. Moreover, the total number of the respondents' family members is 343 where, 146 with an average of 3 and 197 with an average of 5 family member in WFHH and WMHH respectively.

4.3. Women's Access to Resource

A number of questions were included in the survey and qualitative tools to collect data on women's access to land. Questions focused on women's access to land are ways of getting access to land and size of landholdings and gender disparities in relation to access to land were also included.

4.3.1. Women's Access to Land

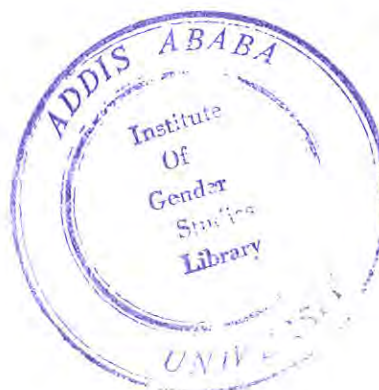
Land is one of the most important natural resources for rural women. Thus, access to this resource is one of critical aspects of ensuring food security. On the other hand, lack of access or limited access to land is the major factor for women to be more vulnerable to food insecurity.

Table 4.2: Distribution of Respondents by Access to Land and Kebele

Kebele	Item	Variable	Household Types			
			FHH		MHH	
			Frequency	Percentage (%)	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Shegie-keranio	Access to land	Yes	20	80.0	20	100.0
		No	5	20.0	0	0
		Total	25	100.0	20	100.0
Agam-woha	Access to land	Yes	14	58.3	12	60.0
		No	10	41.7	8	40.0
		Total	24	100.0	20	100.0
Reasons for no		Divorce	15	65.2		
		Bureaucrat	3	13.1		
		Underage	5	31.7		
		Total	23	100		
Ways of getting access to land (for yes)		Inherited from parent	20	30.3		
		Through land distribution	39	59.1		
		From spouse	7	10.6		
		Total	66	100		

Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2011

Table 4.2 shows that majorities of respondents in Shege-keranio *kebele* (80.0% of FHH and 100.0% of MHH) have got their own land while 20.0% of FHH do not have access to land. On the other hand, in Agam-woha *kebele*, 62.5% of FHH and 80% of MHH respondents have got their own land while 37.5% of FHH and 20% MHH of respondent do not have. Thus, in both *kebeles*, there is disparity between FHH and MHH with slight difference between *kebeles*.



The 1996 land redistribution in the Amhara region creates more opportunity for women's access and control over land. Since then, land user certificate in the *woreda* is being registered in the couple's name, which guaranteed women to have equal right over the land. Female heads of households were entitled to have the certificate in their own name.

According to ECA (2009), access to land, which is a natural capital, is the base for sustainable rural livelihood. Moreover, Liberal Feminist Theory also asserted that women's equal access to resource and equal economic opportunity as men brings women's equality to men. Though women's access to land in the study area is not equal to men; women in two *kebeles* are in a better position than before in accessing land.

However, women's marital statuses and their difference in family structures influence women's access to and control over land. During the survey, respondents were also asked to provide their major reason for why they did not get access to land if they do not have access to land. The major reasons described by respondents were reasons divorce, bureaucracy and underage.

Literature also shows that bureaucracy was one criterion in 1996 land redistribution in Amhara region. For instance, according to Yigremew (1999), the 1996 Amhara region land redistribution was to correct the imbalances existed between farmers in land holdings and the sole criteria stated was political but not the family sizes such as bureaucrat. On the other hand, Almaz (2007) also asserted that women's direct access to land is related to their marital status.

With regard to application of customary rules in the region, any civil dispute that may arise in connection with landholding or use right shall priority be seen and resolved in arbitration even though the selection of arbitrator and the process of resolution agreement may be executed by the agreement of the parties (ANRS, 2006). Moreover, in the community whenever there is divorce, the process is held by arbitration.

During the process, the land is often given to the husband and the wife is left without land. Such practices have made women more vulnerable to loss of access to land. Thus, from 23

women without land, 65.21% have no access to land because of divorce. Research works on women's access to land also confirm that customary practice affect women's access to land. For example, according to Almaz (2007) and Yigremew (2003), customary laws limit women's rights on land to secondary rights mainly derived from their membership in patriarchal households.

On the other hand, qualitative information obtained from focus group discussion on access to land revealed that divorce to be one of major reasons that brought loss of access to land to rural women. Thus, male-headed household discussants discussed that during divorce they give priority to arbitrators to resolve the disputes and most divorced women left without land.

They stated that this is because all of arbitrators are men due to culture and they forced women to leave the land to a husband by explaining reasons mainly women cannot plough. Therefore if there is divorce, by any means women are the disadvantaged group because they cannot get their equal share from land, livestock, crop, house and other existing property.

This show that there is still biased while the law says women shall have the right to acquire, administer, control, enjoy and dispose of property. They shall, in particular, have equal rights with men regarding the use, transfer, administration and control of land FDRE, (1995: Art 35:7).

The impact of divorce on women's livelihoods in the studied area was described by female-headed household discussants in the following ways.

After divorce, women became very poor and they cannot feed themselves and their children because land is often given to men almost in all cases because of cultural practices. You know if there is no land, there is no crop and food to eat.

Further, the focus group discussion with men on rural access to land also stated that if divorce happened, because of local practice, land would be given to men rather than women. The stated reason was that women cannot cultivate and manage properly. FGD men discussants explain the situation in the following ways.

Whether you trust us or not, in our community, if the land is not fertile and is not cultivated on time, one can say that the land is women's land. They also described that, it is known that women's land is not productive because she cannot apply fertilizer and she cannot plough.

Thus, this shows that divorce deprived women's access to land if it is resolved by cultural practice. This in turn, made them poor and exposed them to food insecurity. Further, the information obtained from case study stated that divorce makes women landless.

Case study one: A 36 years old interviewee from Shege-keranio kebele said:

From my own experience, I can say that divorce causes lack of access to land; lack of access to oxen and it also makes women homeless. When I was married, we had 8 timads² of land and the land certificate was by the name of my husband and me. We also had a very nice house, 4 oxen, 3 cow, 9 hens, and more than 10 sheep with 5 children. You know, at that time we were rich and I did not know any problem within my life. However, at the time of divorce, my husband left me without land, oxen and cow but my 3 children are with me. When I start to accuse him, he said 'why you are doing that? We can finish it with arbitrators, what do you need? Ask me with arbitrators and I will give properties to you if you want'. I agreed with his idea and selected arbitrators together. Surprisingly, they gave me 2 quintal of teff, 4 hens and 5 sheeps. At that time, I disagreed with the division of our property, but they forced me to sign and they promised to go other steps to full division of remaining properties such as land, house, crop and livestock. However, after sometime, when I asked them to finish with the share, 'You can do it with him. We cannot convince him; when we asked him about the issue, he said, 'I can finish with her it is not your issue but it is our issue'. Therefore, what can we do it is his problem please leave us' arbitrators said.

² Timad is a type of local land measurement tool; 1 timad=0.25 hectare

From my own experience, I can say that divorce causes lack of access to land; lack of access to oxen and it also makes women homeless. When I was married, we had 8 timads² of land and the land certificate was by the name of my husband and me. We also had a very nice house, 4 oxen, 3 cow, 9 hens, and more than 10 sheep with 5 children. You know, at that time we were rich and I did not know any problem within my life. However, at the time of divorce, my husband left me without land, oxen and cow but my 3 children are with me. When I start to accuse him, he said 'why you are doing that? We can finish it with arbitrators, what do you need? Ask me with arbitrators and I will give properties to you if you want'. I agreed with his idea and selected arbitrators together. Surprisingly, they gave me 2 quintal of teff, 4 hens and 5 sheeps. At that time, I disagreed with the division of our property, but they forced me to sign and they promised to go other steps to full division of remaining properties such as land, house, crop and livestock. However, after sometime, when I asked them to finish with the share, 'You can do it with him. We cannot convince him; when we asked him about the issue, he said, 'I can finish with her it is not your issue but it is our issue'. Therefore, what can we do it is his problem please leave us' arbitrators said.



Figure 4.2: Interview, with Divorced Women

I have already signed, I have no option to get my property and I am poor. My elder brother has given me this small house, and now I live here. Thus, my life looks like this.

On the other hand, key informants interviewee about divorce depicted that most of the time divorce is solved by arbitrator and it is not land administrators responsibility; their responsibility is only giving information about land certificate; show demarcation of the land and explain

² Timad is a type of local land measurement tool; 1 timad=0.25 hectare

Our staff members are eager to accept and resolve any civil disputes in the community. However, there are priorities to arbitration resolution of any civil dispute in the region and divorce is one of these disputes, which is mostly resolved by community arbitration based on the consent of the couples who are in conflict. Though it is possible to resolve divorce in court, societies prefer to resolve it in community arbitration process. Therefore, we give resolution if and only if the couples who are in conflict come to our service, i.e fair distribution of all properties. Moreover, until they bring their case to court we are not accountable to injustices of community arbitration because we have no idea about that unfair distribution except one of the couples who are in conflict informs us about the unfairness. If they inform us and bring their case to court, our office gives immediate response of their conflict and fair distribution of all properties and even children consider in the division of property. However, only few women came to us and got justice even if there is Woreda Women's Affaires Bureau which facilitates their case and gives training to them.

To strengthen the above information, the researcher went to observe regular court and cases in the Woreda Court Office. After two weeks of observation, there was only one case. The case was returned to community elders and arbitration resolution.

Furthermore, an official from the Woreda Women's Affairs Office expressed the problem of divorce as:

It is a way of depriving women right from land and other properties. Rural women are uneducated and even they do not come to our service. Our bureau gives training and have branch in each kebele. However, whenever there is divorce and arbitration resolution, it is clear that women are disadvantageous group due to rural women's initiation to use our service is very low. I think rural women's lack of intention to inform us about their problem and male arbitration are major problems. Currently, we give training in wide range for women about their right and our service and give training for some selected men. I think there will be change in the near future.

Traditionally rights to property pass through the male line in Ethiopia. This implies that women's status is generally inferior to that of men. Deprivation of women's land right through customary practices regarding land inheritance and property distribution after divorce is a major challenge to women. Hence, it shows that community customs and traditions become major challenges to women's land acquisition.



During the 1996 land redistribution, one could get land if his/her age was 18 years and above. On the other hand, one could not have access to land right whose age was below 18 years. According to the Amhara National Regional State Land Redistribution Proclamation No.6, the age limit to have access to land is 18 years. “Any person, who is 18 year residing in the region and engaging in agriculture have the right to freely access to land” (ANRS, 2006). Out of the total respondents who have no land, 21.74% were found to be less than the age of 17 during the land redistribution processes. Thus, they remained landless.

Qualitative data obtained from FGDs and interview confirmed that age was taken into consideration during land redistribution process. Women and men who participated during the FGDs described as:

Landowners should be 18 years old and above at that time to get land. Further, interviews also revealed that age is criteria to have land during land redistribution time.

A 63 years old women interviewee from Agam-woha *kebele* also mentioned that age is criterion to own land during the 1996 land redistribution. “Age is a criterion to get land, one can get land after 18 years of age”, she explained. My key informants also stated that age is one of the criteria to have access to land during land redistribution. One of the land administration and management expert in the *woreda* said, “One can get land if she/he is 18 years old and above at the time of land redistribution, this had been the rule of the day”.

Moreover, during land redistribution process, the landholding size of a bureaucrat was reduced to four *timad* without considering the number of family size. According to the survey data, 3 (13.1 %) bureaucrat parents do not have access to land

According to key informants and discussants, a bureaucrat is a person who had had political power during Dreg régime (1974-1991). This problem is common to male and female family members if they have bureaucrat parents.

The information obtained from FGDs, interview, case stories and key informants stated that land-holding size of any bureaucrat was reduced to four *timad* during land redistribution without considering family size. All discussants: women in female-headed household, women in male-headed and men discussed that many bureaucrats had had up to 12 *timad* land during the Derg and there was land size reduction whether they have large family size or not during 1996 land redistribution. They depicted as “to make fair redistribution government puts rule which reduced bureaucrats’ land holding. We can say that almost all bureaucrats had large land and lost some part of it during the land redistribution time”.

Key informants interviews with *woreda* agricultural expert and *kebele* land administer confirm that bureaucracy was one criterion during the 1996 land redistribution. In an interview held with a *kebele* land administer in Agam-woha, it was reported that:

There were administration processes to reduce bureaucrats’ land holding to four timad and it was applied on bureaucrats. This was to make fair distribution of land, because every bureaucrat has more than 12 timad land while others have nothing or less during Derg regime. So, the land taken from bureaucrat was distributed for others who have no land, youth and women. However, the sons and daughters of bureaucrats were given land if they fulfill requirements such as age. The rule has applied only on bureaucrat parents, themselves.

Almost all of my key informants agreed that there was no family member consideration during the land redistribution process of the region. Furthermore, the following case study highlights how being a bureaucrat was a reason to be landless:

Case study two: is about 21 years old woman in male-headed household living in Agam-woha *Kebele*. She was willing to tell her story when I approached her. She expressed her story as follows:



My parents had eight children, three were females and the remaining five were males during the 1996 land redistribution. My father was a bureaucrat. My parents had 8-timad land before the land redistribution and have only 4 timad after the land redistribution. I was a student and under age at the time of the land redistribution. Thus, I and all my brothers and sisters had no access to land due to under age at that time. After the land redistribution, our life became insecure. I discontinued my education and the entire family member started to work in various dimensions. However, we could not sustain our life. Because of large size of our family and our income is based on land, we could not recover from our harsh situation. I am married and living with my husband and my three children. My husband also has no land; our life is based on rent land, which is harsh. I do not know how I can explain. As I stated above, our parents have only four timad, therefore, no one has inherited land from parents. Thus, due to bureaucracy all of my parents, sisters and brothers including myself are poor and have insecure life.

Therefore, divorce, age and bureaucracy were found to be the major reasons that caused landlessness to rural women in the study area even though age and bureaucracy are common reasons to both women and men.

4.3.2. Ways of Getting Access to Land

In Amhara region both formal (statutory) and informal (customary) ways of acquisition have been exercised. In the study area, land can be owned through inheritance, land distribution, marriage and in the form of sharecropping basis. Accordingly, respondents described that they could access their land through inheritance, land redistribution and spouse.

At the time of the survey, respondents were asked to express ways of getting access to land if they have access to land. Consequently, more than half (59.1%) of respondents get access through land redistribution, followed by 30.3% and 10.6% of respondents inherited from parent and from spouse, respectively (Table 4.2). The total farmland size of the respondents' in female-headed household is 99 *timad*, with an average of about 2 *timad* per household while in male-headed household is 163 *timad*, with an average of 4 *timad*.

It was found out that women in male-headed households tended to have larger farmland size than female-headed households due to various cultural practices. Thus, female-headed households still have less access to land. Research works conducted on rural women's

access to land support this result. For instance, according to Yigremew (2006), “rural female-headed households are generally found to have smaller holdings”. Almaz (2007) and Abererra (2002) also asserted this finding.

Regarding ways of getting access to land, qualitative information also stressed that major ways of getting access to land for rural women are inheritance from parent, through land redistribution and from marriage. On the other hand, men can get access to land through rent, inheritance, land redistribution and marriage.

A man interviewed from Shege-keranio *Kebele* who was 64 during the interview, stated how he able to get access to land in the following ways:

I have no access to land before marriage. I was bureaucrat and I had 12 timad land before the land redistribution and only 4 timad land after the land redistribution. I had 9 children at that time and life was too difficult. My wife was relatively well to do, two of our last children started to live with her parents and they got 2 timad land through inheritance. Moreover, I left the village and migrated to this kebele to work. While working, I found a woman who has 6 timad land and whose husband was died. When I asked her for marriage, she was willing and she married me. Now, the land certificate is in our name. Hence, we have 6 timad land in common. I also have 4 timad land through renting system from two women who cannot plough. Thanks to God today I am better off. On the other hand, my x-wife also has husband who has 8 timad land. Currently, they have around 12 timad and all my 7 children live with them. Their life is good.

The above information confirmed that women have access to land through inheritance and marriage. Moreover, it also suggests that unlike women, men can have access to land through rent. A 41 years old woman interview from Agam-woha also confirmed that major ways of access to land to women are through inheritance from parent, through land redistribution and through marriage. According to her, women have no rental access because women cannot plough and they rather rent out their land. She expressed how she got access to land as:

I was married when I was 13 years old. During that time my husband had around 6 timad land and I had 2 timad land which I have accessed through inheritance from my parents. However, women's access to land through rent is impossible because women cannot plough; it is a way of getting access to men only.

4.3.3. Major Access to Land Disparities among Male and Female Head Household

In addition to ways of getting access to land, survey respondents were asked about the equality of access to land. They were also asked to provide reasons of inequality. Based on that, there is gender disparity between women’s access to land and men’s access to land in the study area.

More than half (57.8 %) of the respondents from Shege-keranio *kebele* and 63.6% of respondents from Agam-woha *kebele* described that there is no equality between female-headed and male-headed household’s access to land. The stated reasons were that women cannot plough, women’s low participation in land administration processes and cultural constraints (Table 4.3).

Table.4.3: Distribution of Respondents by Access to Land Disparity and *Kebele* (N=54)
Multiple Responses is possible

Kebele	Item	Variable	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Shege-keranio	Access to land by MHH is equal to FHH	Yes	19	42.2
		No	26	57.8
		Total	45	100
Agam-woha	Access to land by MHH is equal to FHH	Yes	16	36.4
		No	28	63.6
		Total	44	100
Major reason for disparity (for no)		Women can not plough	37	68.5
		Cultural constraint	26	48.2
		Women’s low participation administration	18	33.3

Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2011



Qualitative information also avowed access to land is not equal to men's access to land. Thus, men, female-headed household and women in male-headed household discussants reveled that women's access to land is not equal to men's access to land. Women discussant from Agamwoha *kebele* described as:

It is clear that there is difference in women's access to land and men's access to land. Land administrators are men and hence they give favor to them. In addition to this reason, women cannot plough due to culture and women have low social acceptance to own and control land. Thus, women's access to land is less when we compared it to men.

During FGDs, all women discussants were upset and there were no good feelings as the researcher could observe and understand from their facial expression. In addition to facial expression, the researcher could observe the land size of female-headed households and male-headed households, which were not equal via inspection to assert the discussions.

Thus, according to the data, women's access to land is not equal to their men counterparts. According to Marxists Feminist Theory, women's oppression and subordination relates with their work status (Tong, 1998). Thus, gender division of labour (women cannot plough) and women's concentration in household shore put women in a more vulnerable and disadvantaged position. Hence, women's access to land has direct impact on their food security situation. Research works include ECA (2009), Aberra (2002), Mulumebet (2010) also support this finding.

4.3.4. Women's Access to Livestock

Livestock is the most important form of wealth and it represents livelihood resources in a number of ways such as a source of draught power, as a means to accumulate capital, as sources of food, income, serve as a buffer in times of stress and as a sign of social status (Tarekegn, 2006). Moreover, the use of livestock for transportation, for harvesting process, manure for fuel and for fertilizer increases productivity. In the study area, most households own animals such as oxen, cows, goats, sheep, donkey and chicken.

Table 4.4: Distribution of Respondents by Access to Livestock and Kebele

<i>Kebele</i>	<i>Item</i>	FHH			MHH	
Shege- keranio	Access to livestock	Variables	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Frequency	Percentage (%)
		Yes	10	40.0	16	80.0
		No	25	60.0	4	20.0
		Total	25	100	20	100
Agam- woha	Access to livestock	Yes	8	33.3	15	75.0
		No	16	66.7	5	25.0
		Total	24	100	20	100

Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2011

In Shege-keranio *kebele*, majority (60.0%) of respondents (female-headed households) and 20.0% of male-headed households respondent have no access to livestock, while in Agam-woha *kebele*, 66.7% of FHH respondents and 25.0% of MHH respondents have no access to livestock (Table 4.4).

Thus, female-headed households in both *kebeles* have less access to livestock than male-headed households with slight difference between *kebeles*. Cow, sheep, goat, donkey, hen and oxen are the major types of livestock the survey respondents have. Sheep constitute the largest portion of the animals that owned by women followed by goats, hen, cows and oxen. Female-headed household’s access to livestock particularly to oxen is almost nil which is critical factor to rural household food security. According to Aberra (2002), power is generated from oxen predominantly and an individual household’s access to ox is critical in crop production. This also shows that female-headed households’ have less financial capital which is one of the livelihood assets.

Qualitative information obtained from interview, FGDs, key informant interview confirmed that rural women’s access to livestock in general, and oxen in particular is less. Women discussants in female-headed households described:

Livestock is means of crop production and income generation in our community. Mainly, without ox, agriculture is questionable because our plough is based on oxen. However, women cannot plough, ox is value less to them and they do not have it. Moreover, women are busy by various household chores, agricultural activities and reproductive activities. Consequently, women face difficulties to manage and to provide fodder to livestock. Thus, if women cannot plough, cannot provide fodder to livestock and cannot manage by themselves, it is valueless. Moreover, most of the time women sell livestock to cope with various problems such as food shortage. Therefore, initially access to livestock mostly to ox is low.

Thus, all these show that in the study area, rural women's access to livestock is less than men's access due to gender division of labor, and women's concentration on household activities.

4.3.5. Women's Access to Credit

Access to credit and saving (financial capital) constitutes the financial resources that people use to achieve their livelihood objectives. Many households in the study area reported that there are credit services such as Amhara Credit and Saving Association (ACSA). However, women's access to credit is restricted as they are not entitled to land rights and house as collateral.

As indicated in Table 4.5, the majority (79.6%) of women respondents in female-headed household and 15% of male-headed household respondents have no access to credit. On the other hand, 85% of male-headed household respondents and 20.4% of female-headed household respondents have access to credit. This in turn shows that female-headed have less access to credit (financial livelihood asset) than male-headed households have.

Moreover, there are also variations among women because of distance from market and town. Women in Shege-keranio, which is far from the town, have less access to credit than women in Agam-woha, which is close to the town, have. On the other hand, 88.8% of respondents in Shege-keranio and 11.4% of respondent in Agam-woha have no access to credit, while 11.1% in Shege-keranio and 88.63% in Agam-woha have access to credit, which is a great variation (Table 4.5).

Table 4.5: Distribution of Respondents by Access to Credit and Kebele

Item	FHH			MHH	
Access to credit	Variables	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Frequency	Percentage (%)
	Yes	10	20.4	34	85.0
	No	39	79.6	6	15.0
	Total	49	100.0	40	100.0
Access to credit	Respondents in Shega-keranio			Respondents in Agam-woha	
	Yes	5	11.2	39	88.6
	No	40	88.8	5	11.4
	Total	45	100	44	100

Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2011

Qualitative data confirmed that with no land-title and house as collateral, it is very difficult for female farmers to get access to credit. For instance, at the time of men’s FGD, discussants stressed that women have less access to credit. They explained their idea as follows.

Women have no equal access to men, because they cannot utilize as men, rather they consume and spend borrowed money unnecessarily. Moreover, female-headed households have less access to livestock and land, which serve as collateral. Thus, they have less access to credit.

Further, women’s FGD also asserted that majority of female-headed household have less access to credit than men and women in male-headed households. They discussed as “women have less access to credit, this is due to the fact that women have less collateral. Most of the time women are responsible to provide food and if they have money, they spent for food and other home consumption rather than business. Thus, women are not profitable and they have no such intention to have credit”.

Based on the above information, culturally women are considered as having less skill for financial management than men. Furthermore, women’s collateral such as land, livestock,

house and other property is less than men's do because of cultural constraint. Thus, women have less access to credit.

Additionally, interview with 51 years old women in Agam-woha asserted that though there is some attitudinal change; women have still less access to credit in the study area. She expressed in the following ways:

Women have less access to credit, but there is change today as we compare it with earlier days. There is formality to take credit from credit association such as land, livestock, house, or other properties. One must have land, house, or livestock in order to be a group member and to get access to credit otherwise, it is impossible to form group. The current government provides equal right land and other property to women but still there are challenges to get access to credit in our community.

Key informant interview with Woreda Credit and Saving Association expert confirmed that women have less access to credit though there is change.

He expressed his idea as:

There are rules and regulations in relation to our service such as forming group, having collateral and progress payment of credit. Most of the time, female-headed households have less collateral, initiation to take credit and social network to form groups which put them to have less access than men. However, by this time, there is increment in number of women customers. Further, there is variation among kebeles. This means that those kebeles around woreda town have good access to credit when we compare it with other kebeles far from the capital.

The researcher asked key informant interviewee to explain the reasons that bring variation. His major reasons were information gap and market distance to participate in business.

Both qualitative and quantitative data show that in the study area, rural women particularly female-headed households have less access to credit due to less access to collateral and less social network (social capital) to form group even if there is change.

4.3.6. Women's Access to Modern Agricultural Inputs

Increasing agricultural production is the most important step to be taken to ensure food security. Farm households are encouraged to use fertilizers and improved seeds in order to enhance agricultural productivity.

All respondents, interviewee and discussants in this study have had some knowledge about the advantage of using modern agricultural inputs such as fertilizers and improved seeds to increase agricultural production. However, about 87.1% of FHHs and 37.7% of MHHs of the respondents do not use modern agricultural inputs because of unaffordable price of modern agricultural inputs (Table 4.6).

This shows that female-headed households are highly affected by high price of modern agricultural input even though it is a common problem. There is no significant variation between *kebeles*.

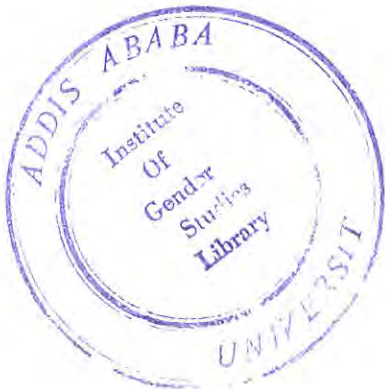
Table 4.6: Distribution of Respondents by Modern Agricultural Input and Kebele
Multiple responses is possible (N=31 FHH and 8=MHH)

Kebele	Item	FHH			MHH	
Shege- keranio	Use fertilizer	Variables	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Frequency	Percentage (%)
		Yes	2	8.0	19	95.0
		No	23	92.0	1	5.0
		Total	25	100.0	20	100.0
	Use improved seeds	Yes	4	16.0	19	95.0
		No	21	84.0	1	5.0
		Total	25	100.0	20	100.0
	Use pesticides	Yes			19	95.0
		No			1	5.0
		Total	25	100.0	20	100.0
Agam- woha	Use fertilizer	Yes	4	16.7	18	90.0
		No	20	83.3	2	10.0
		Total	24	100.0	20	100.0
	Use improved seeds	Yes	6	25.0	18	90.0
		No	18	75.0	2	10.0
		Total	24	100.0	20	100.0
	Use pesticides	Yes	2	91.7	19	95.0
		No	22	8.3	1	5.0
		Total	24		20	100.0
Reason for no		High price	27	87.1	3	37.5
		Do not cultivate	24	77.4	2	25.0
		Total	31	100.0	8	100.0

Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2011

Qualitative information also stressed on unaffordable price and gender division of labour such as women cannot plough their land by themselves and cannot sow their land by themselves. A 41 years old woman interviewee from Agam-woha Kebele, confirmed that unaffordable price is a major constraint to women’s access to modern agricultural inputs. She expressed her idea as follows.

Modern agricultural inputs such as improved seed and fertilizer are costly where female-headed household’s income is low. Therefore, how can women particularly in female-headed household balanced the expenditure and use modern agricultural input. From my experience, it is difficult.



Moreover, woman discussants from Shege-Keranio *Kebele* discussed that female-headed households have less access to modern agricultural inputs because of gender division of labour and unaffordable price. They clarified their idea as:

Women have less access to modern agricultural input. Because of cultural practices, women's access to land is limited; women cannot plough and sow their land by themselves. The price of modern agricultural inputs (fertilizer, pesticides and improved seed) is high which is more difficult to female-headed households than male-headed households. Thus, due to the aforementioned reasons female-headed households have less access to land than male-headed households.

Furthermore, one key informant interviewee from agricultural development agents also mentioned high price and ploughing (women cannot plough their land by themselves due to cultural constraints) as major constraint to women's less access to modern agricultural inputs.

He expressed his idea as

Modern agricultural inputs are important to farmers to improve their agricultural output. However, female-headed households often rent their lands to male-headed households since they cannot plough and sow due to culture. Consequently, the man who receives rental land from female-headed household is responsible to provide modern agricultural inputs. Therefore, female-headed households who do not cultivate or do not plough by themselves are not responsible to provide modern agricultural inputs. On the other hand, price of modern agricultural inputs is high which is unaffordable to female-headed households, though it is difficult for both male-headed and female-headed households. These major reasons can constrain access to modern agricultural inputs to female-headed households.

Thus, these all show that rural women's particularly female-headed households' have less access to modern agricultural input, due to less access to land, cultural constraints such as women cannot plough and sow fertilizer and unaffordable price of modern agricultural inputs. Both women in female-headed and male-headed households are affected by unaffordable price of modern agricultural inputs, but it is more pronounced to female-headed households.

4.4. Rural Households Role to Improve their Food Production

In agrarian society, men and women work together in agricultural fields, although there is division of labor. Women participate in most of the agricultural production activities and in other income generating activities to secure food for their households (Tilaye, 2004). Despite the importance of women's role in agriculture, any activity performed by men has given higher value by both gender groups.

4.4.1. Women's Role in Agriculture

In the study area, regarding agricultural activity there are gender specific tasks. For instance, according to respondents, only men are engaged in ploughing, sowing seeds and sowing fertilizer while women cannot be engaged. On the other hand, clearing the farmland, weeding, digging, harvesting, threshing, transporting, storing and marketing can be performed by both genders. All survey respondents confirmed that women are not supposed to engage in some agricultural activities such as ploughing, sowing and fertilizing.

They also provided that cultural division of labour is one of the major constraints that hinder women's agricultural activity. Despite equal access for women to land rights in the current land policy, there is a notable difference in the manner of land use between male-headed and female-headed households. The female-headed households face limitations in using their land. This is linked to the division of labour between women and men that prohibit some types of work for one sex, i.e. traditionally, it is considered inappropriate for women to plough land although they do all other tasks on the land (Askale, 2005).

Further, qualitative data also articulated that there is cultural gender division of labour. For instance, both men and women discussants asserted that ploughing, sowing and fertilizing are exclusively grouped as men's activity. "Women cannot plough and sow seed and fertilizer because culturally the societies believe that the farmland could not grow. Moreover, it is a shame to women to plough and sow" they said. A 57 years old women interviewee from Shege-keranio also said,



By this time, urban women perform various activities, which previously considered as men's activity. For example, the head of Woreda Women's Affairs Bureau is a woman. There are also women who are nurses and teachers. However, ploughing, fertilizing and sowing in rural area is still not changed and I think it is shame for woman if she ploughs or sows. In our culture, women can perform household shore and other agricultural activities, but ploughing is not her activity.

4.4.2. Women's Role in Community Based Activities

Women play major role in sustaining family life in the society. They are responsible for providing food and water for the household. In addition, women highly participate in community-based activities such as *eder*, *eqube* and *mahiber* and other public activities.

Quantitative information gathered on community-based activities confirmed that by this time women participate in various community-based activities. As indicated in Table 4.7, 8.0%, 40.0% and 48% of FHH participate in *equb*, *edir* and *mahiber* respectively in Shege-keranio *kebele* while 25.0%, 33.0% and 25.0% of FHH participate in *equb*, *edir* and *mahiber* in Agam-woha *kebele*.

On the other hand, only 5.0% of MHH participate in *edir* and *mahiber* in Shege-keranio *kebele* and 20.0% and 10.0% of MHH participate in *edir* and *mahibe* respectively in Agam-woha *kebele*. Thus, the participation of MHH is less than FHH in both *kebeles*. This result shows that community based of female-headed households is being increased with slight variation between *kebeles*.

Table 4.7: Distribution of Respondents by their Community Role and Kebele

Kebele		Variable	Participation in <i>edir</i>		Participation in <i>equb</i>		Participation in other (<i>mahiber</i>)	
			Frequency	Percentage (%)	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Shegekeranio	FHH	Yes	10	40.0	2	8.0	12	48.0
		No	15	60.0	23	92.0	13	52.0
		Total	25	100.0	25	100.0	25	100.0
	MHH	Yes	1	5.0			1	5.0
		No	19	95.0			19	95.0
		Total	20	100.0			20	100.0
Agamwoha	FHH	Yes	8	33.3	6	25.0	6	25.0
		No	16	66.7	18	75.0	18	75.0
		Total	24	100.0	24	100.0	24	100.0
	MHH	Yes	4	20.0			2	10.0
		No	16	80.0			18	90.0
		Total	20	100.0			20	100.0

Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2011

Qualitative information also confirmed that the rural women's participate in various community based institutions and leadership activities. Almost all the informants confirmed that currently women's role in community-based activities is getting increase. During FGD discussion, discussants emphasized that women's participation in community based activities and leadership position is improving over time and social acceptance of their activity also increased.

A 60 years old man discussant from Agamwoha *Keble* discussed as:

These days, women participate in leadership. For example, my neighbor, Hibret is a member of our equb committee. The equb takes place in her house. I can give other example; Senait is also a member of the edir committee. Women in female-headed households have the chance to be members as well as leaders of community-based activities though there is problem in male-headed households. However, poor women particularly landless women are not supposed to be member or leader in community based activities in our community, because their social acceptance is low. Most of the time husbands are not willing to wives participation in leadership activities fearing that their position will cause problem on their marriage. Consequently, male-headed households are not supposed to be leaders or members.

Moreover, a 58 years old women Shige-keranio explained:

Currently, women's role in community based and leadership activity is increasing. I am happy when I see it. Time is good, I regret for friends who did not see it. At present women are human as men and they have power and acceptance. As we can see and hear, in the towns, there are women who have formal job as male. Moreover, as my daughter told me, she is a class monitor. Moreover, rich women and women in female-headed households are leaders and committee members in edir, equb, and Kebele Peasant Association, because there is no body refusing women's participation. Therefore, they can participate. However, when we see women in male-headed households, there is problem to participate in such activities such as transportation to go to the town whenever there is meeting. Husbands are not willing to give money to the transport, as they are not willing for women's power. Further, they may lost their house and property by their husbands. Most of the time rural women have no their own income, therefore, it is difficult to them. Otherwise, female-headed households are chanceful that they participate in leadership and other activities. Thus, I can say that age is a mirror that we women see this change.

Another key informant from Woreda Women's Affairs Bureau confirmed that the role of rural women has changed due to change in their right, opportunity, access and education in the following way:

Today women have the right to say no. I know a woman who refused her husband when he refused her role in Kebele Peasant Association member and she joined the member. Her husband refused her role in Kebele Peasant Association fearing that her role will have impact on their family. Their marriage was new; she has her own farmland, which was enough for the family though he has his own which was smaller than her. Our office gives training for some selected women about their right, opportunity, and participation before that. Based on that, she knows that she has the power to decide because she has her own property and she does not want to be oppressed by her husband forever. Therefore, she refused her husband and became one of the five members in the kebele Peasant Association in Selam-Abebe Kebele for three years. Thus, I can assure that women's role in the Woreda is greater than before.

Moreover, the key informant also asserted that women have potential to be head and member as they are responsible, devoted and strong to manage many things at a time. “I can take Abebue, for instance, who is *Kebele* Women’s Affairs head in Shege-keranio *kebele*. Women lack opportunity and access not ability”. Further, she confirmed that there is difference between two rural *kebeles*. “Women in Agam-woha are more active than in Shege-keranio as they are closed to town and information”.

The researcher also observed that there is one woman members in the *kebele* Peasant Association and two women *edir* committee member in Agam-woha *kebele* while there is one woman rural Women’s Affairs head and one woman committee member in *equb* in Shege-keranio *kebele*.

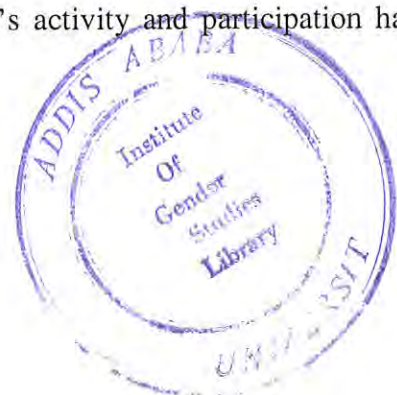
Thus, data from women’s community based activity revealed that there is increment of women’s participation in community-based activities because of increment in their economic position, which goes to Marxist Feminist thought, which believed that women first liberate economically. Further, it also goes with Liberal Feminist Theory, which believed that woman’s equal access and equal opportunity.

4.5. Rural Households Food Security Situation

4.5.1. Factors that Affect women’s Food Production

According to quantitative information, respondents’ income is based on agriculture and non-farm activities. They also responded that they do not produce enough food for their family. Thus, their food production is questionable which also has impact on food availability as food availability depends on agricultural production.

According to UNESCO (2004), generally, policy makers and development planners as well as implementers perceive farmers as ‘male’. Women make critical contributions to agricultural production with limited access to necessary resources, to decisions on allocation and utilization of the resources (Mulumebet, 2010). However, women participate almost in agricultural activities except plough and sow though men’s activity and participation have higher value in the study area.



Various factors affect women's food production. Factors identified by respondents are land size, infertile farmland, lack of modern agricultural inputs, lack of man labour, ox, rainfall, and access to credit. However, land sizes, lack of ox, man labour, and agricultural inputs are the major factors identified.

As indicated in Table 4.8, in Shege-keranio *kebele*, around 88.0%, 64.0%, 60.0% and 48.0% of FHH respondent believed that small land size, lack of ox, man labor and modern agricultural input are major factors of food production respectively. 75.0%, 20.0%, 20.0% and 70.0% of MHH respondents believed that small farmland, lack of ox, man labour and modern agricultural inputs are the major constraint of food production respectively.

On the other hand, in Agam-woha *kebele*, 83.3%, 58.3%, 54.2% and 41.7% of FHH respondents believed that small land size, lack of ox, man labor and modern agricultural input are major factors of food production respectively. 70.0%, 25.0%, 15.0% and 65.0% of MHH respondents believed that small farmland, lack of ox, man labour and modern agricultural input are the major constraints of food production.

This information shows that size of farmland highly affected female-headed households than male-headed household and conversely, lack of modern agricultural input is more prominent in MHH with little variation between the two *kebeles*.

Table 4.8: Distribution of Respondents by Factors of Food Production

Multiple answers is possible (N=*, **, ***, ****)³

<i>Kebele</i>	<i>Item</i>	FHH			MHH	
Shege-keranio	Factors of food production	Variables	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Frequency	Percentage (%)
		Land size	22	88.0	15	75.0
		Lack of ox	16	64.0	4	20.0
		Lack of man labour	15	60.0	4	20.0
		Lack of modern agricultural input	12	48.0	14	70.0
		Total	25*	100.0	20***	100.0
Agam-woha	Factors of food production	Land size	20	83.3	14	70.0
		Lack of ox	14	58.3	5	25.0
		Lack of man labour	13	54.2	3	15.0
		Lack of modern agricultural input	10	41.7	13	65.0
		Total	24*	100.0	20****	100.0

Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2011

Alternatively, qualitative information asserted that too small farmland is the most important factor of food production though infertility, lack of credit, lack of modern agricultural inputs, and lack of access to man labour and ox and environmental degradation affect food production. Thus, during men FGDs, discussants explained that land size, access to ox, man labour and agricultural input is an important factor in food production. They expressed as “To produce more food, the size of landholding should be enough; there should be ox, man labour and also agricultural inputs”. They further, explained that accesses to credit and rainfall variation (environmental degradation) are factors in food production.

³ * Total Number of WFHH in Shege-keranio=25, ** Total Number of WFHH in Agam-woha =24; *** Total Number of WMHH in Shege-keranio=20 and ****Total Number of WFHH in Agam-woha =20

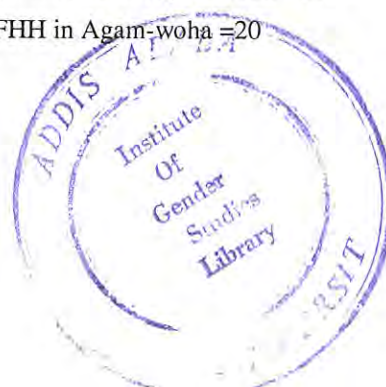




Figure 4.3: FGD with Men

Further key informant interview with Development Agents also confirmed that land size is one of the primary factors of production, which is followed, by other factors such as access to modern agricultural inputs, access to credit and soil erosion (environmental degradation). He said, “A farmer who has large land size with the help of access to modern agricultural input, access to livestock and access to credit produced more than those who have less access to land, no access to modern agricultural input and credit. Further this difference intensifies with difference in land size”.

Moreover, interview with women in female-headed households and in male-headed households emphasized on the above factors of production. A 27 years old women interviewee in female-headed household from Shege-keranio *Kebele* said, “Land size is the first major factor in production because without enough farmland one cannot produce enough food”.

Thus, based on the above information, the major constraints in food production is land size. Thus, rural women particularly female-headed household have less access to land and hence have less land size which result in small food production and purchase ability.

that access to land will affect not only productive outcomes but also the ability of the poor to access credit, make investments and benefited from the law in general. Moreover, access to credit, access to modern agricultural input and environmental degradation (soil erosion and rainfall irregularity) are identified as factors related to food production.

4.5.2. Food Shortage

According to the household survey, 80.0% of FHH respondents and 30.0% of MHH respondents face food shortage in Shege-keranio *kebele* whereas 58.3% of FHH respondents and 15.0% of MHH respondents faced in Agam-woha *kebele*. This implies that female-headed households are highly affected by food shortage than male-headed households. This is due to less access to land, small farmland size.

Furthermore, food shortage faced by rural women varies from one *kebele* to the other. Thus, it is more serious in Shege-keranio (majority 80.0% of FHH respondent faced food shortage) than in Agam-woha (58.3% of FHH respondent faced food shortage). According to respondents, this variation is because of distance from market, which can create conducive environment for non-farm activities and diversification such as producing and selling local drink and other market-oriented activities. Agam-woha *kebele* is near to the town and market thus, women in this *kebele* involve in non-farm activities (market) highly. Major reasons that cause food shortage are the same as Table 4.8 and in order to avoid redundancy, only other issues are discussed.

Table 4.9: Distribution of Respondents by Food Shortage

Kebele	Item	Variable	Household Types			
			FHH		MHH	
			Frequency	Percentage (%)	frequency	Percentage (%)
Shegie- keranio	Food Shortage	Yes	20	80.0	6	30.0
		No	5	20.0	14	70.0
		Total	25	100.0	20	100.0
Agam- woha	Food Shortage	Yes	14	58.3	3	15.0
		No	10	41.7	17	85.0
		Total	24	100.0	20	100.0

Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2011

On the other hand, qualitative information asserted rural women particularly female-headed households often faced food shortage on their life. Thus, during men and women FGDs, discussants explained women faced food shortage due to lack of access to land, ox, man labour and other factors. “To eat throughout the year and live, more food should be produced and to produce more, land is important factor. Moreover, access to livestock particularly ox, man labour, credit and agricultural input are important to produce food” they explain. However, women have less access to land; they do not plough, and therefore they have less food production. Thus, they faced food shortage.

Moreover, a 67 years old woman informant, who is a female-headed household from Sheger-keranio Kebele said:

I have faced food shortage at least 4 month in a year. I have only one timad of farmland. I have no ox, man labour and I cannot plough due to culture rather I rent out my lands I get only 1.5 quintal of teff which is not enough to five family members. I have no livestock, which is source of income. Market is far from my home so it is difficult to involve in non-farm activities and diversification (market-oriented activities) for me since I am old. Thus, I can say that I usually face food shortage.



A 41 years old woman interviewed from Agam-woha expressed that women often face food shortage. She said, "I face food shortage throughout my life. I always face food shortage because I have no land and livestock to sustain my life".

Key informant interview with development agent also confirmed that women faced food shortage, he said, "female-headed households are more vulnerable to food shortage than male-headed households are. This is due to cultural division of labor such as women cannot plough and sow". He also asserted that their distance from the capital is other factor to participate in non-farm activities and there is food shortage variation from *kebele to kebel*. Thus, food shortage is more serious in *kebeles* that are too far from market and town.

Thus, based on the above information, rural women particularly female-headed households face food shortage so many times because of less access to land and distance from market and town. Further, rural women's lack of access to credit, to modern agricultural and livestock aggravate women's vulnerability to food shortage.

4.5.3. Rural Women's Food Insecurity

At the time of survey, respondents were also asked their perception about their household food security situation. Based on that more than half (68.0%) of FHH and 40.0% of MHH respondents in Shege-keranio *kebele* perceive that their household is food insecure while 54.2% of FHH and 35.0% of MHH respondents in Agam-woha *kebele* perceive their household is food insecure (Table 4.10). This shows that female-headed households are more vulnerable to food insecurity than male-headed households and food insecurity situation of FHH vary from *kebele to kebele*. Thus, more serious in Shege-keranio than in Agam-woha.

Moreover, respondents were also requested to provide the reasons for their food insecurity. The major reasons provided were access to land (natural capital) take the first share (55.1%) in FHH and 52.3 in MHH followed by livestock 20.4%% in FHH and 22.5% in MHH (Table 4.10). Thus, food security is highly influenced by access to land though there are other factors.

Table 4.10: Distribution of Respondents by Food Security Status and Kebele

Kebele	Item	Variable	Household Types			
			FHH		MHH	
			Frequency	Percentage (%)	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Shegie-keranio	Household is food security	Yes	8	32.0	12	60.0
		No	17	68.0	8	40.0
		Total	25	100.0	20	100.0
Agam-woha	Household is food security	Yes	11	45.8	13	65.0
		No	13	54.2	7	35.0
		Total	24	100.0	20	100.0
Most important reason to say food secure or insecure		Access to land	27	55.1	22	55.0
		Access to Livestock	10	20.4	9	22.5
		Access to credit and saving	7	14.3	6	15.0
		Non-agricultural activities (diversification)	4	8.2	3	7.5
		Total	49	100.0	40	100.0

Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2011

Moreover, respondents’ seven days Food Consumption Score (FCS) also revealed that there is food consumption variation between FHH and MHH. Thus, average FCS of women in female-headed household is 17.7 whereas women in male-headed household is 24.6 (Table 4.11). According to WFP (2008)⁴, FCS of women in female-headed is poor food consumption and women in male-headed household lies borderline food consumption.

Table 4.11: Distribution of Respondents by Food Consumption Score

Respondents gender	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
FHH	17.7	49	9.1
MHH	24.6	40	12.9
Total	20.8	89	11.4

Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2011

⁴ FCS=(0-21) is poor food consumption; FCS=(21.5-35) is borderline food consumption and FCS=(>35) is Acceptable food consumption

Further, the qualitative information asserted that access to land, livestock, credit, and modern agricultural inputs are major factors of rural food insecurity. Hence, during FGD, woman in female-headed household discussants from Shege-keranio explain as follows:

In rural areas, if there is no farmland, there is no production, and there is less access to saving and credit, access to livestock. One can say that household is food insecure or poor if it has no land particularly for rural economy like us. On the other hand, if one has enough land, it is money and crop. Thus, if one rent out and one can buy livestock by selling crop or land itself. However, female-headed households have less access to land due to cultural practices and they are more vulnerable to food insecurity.

In another interview with a 34 years old woman from Agam-woha asserted that small land holding is a key factor in food insecurity. She expressed as:

Land is life for rural people. It determines all aspects of life. Thus if one has land, that person has social acceptance, has house, can borrow money from Credit and Saving Association and if one has large farmland size, has prestige in our community and considered as rich. On the other hand, if one has no or has small land size, he/she is poor and less access to credit, has less prestige and he/she remains poor. For instance, my land size is small that puts my family food insecured and I am very poor. I also have no livestock and I have no other option to sustain life without land.

Hence, as the data show that access to land is the first major reason to say household is food secured or insecured. Larger farmland size can measure social and economic status. Therefore, women's farmland size is less than men and their food production is less than men due to lack of access to land. Moreover, their 2009-2010 annual food production-consumption patterns show that negative result.

Thus, all these show that female-headed households are more vulnerable to food insecurity. According to ECA (2009), food insecurity particularly affects the victims of war, marginal populations in urban areas, and households on low incomes or dependent on precarious livelihoods. Within these categories, women and people living on their own or in low-income families are the worst affected.

4.5.4. The Link between Access to Land and Food Security Situation

Feder et al, (1988) as cited in Maxwell & Wiebe (1999), suggest that tenure security has impact on agricultural productivity of households by increasing their confidence that they will benefit from that security over the long time and it increases access to formal credit through the creation of tradable collateral. Thus, if own production increase, it also increase purchase as access to credit and saving increase.

During household survey, respondents were requested whether there is link between access to land and food security. Based on that, almost all of respondents both women in male-headed households and female-headed households believe that there is a link between access to land and food security.

Qualitative information also asserted that there is a link between access to land and food security. During the FGD at Shege-keranio, men discussant expressed that the link between access to land and security and they reason out as:

Land is a base to food production. If one produces enough food, one's confidence increases. Whatever, there are other factors that affect food production and food security, access to land is key and first important factor for us. Say you are farmer and have access to credit, modern agricultural input and access to livestock but without access to land, it is difficult even to think food production for a farmer. What is the use of modern agricultural inputs without farmland? What do farmers do by ox without land? What can farmers do by credit and production without farmland? On the other hand, if farmers have farmland, they can have access to every thing, can produce more, and be secure. In our society, land is highly valued and it can express social and economic prestige. We have never seen that a farmer who produced food and has access to modern agricultural inputs, access to credit and have livestock without farmland. Therefore, we can say there is a direct link between access to land and food production and then food security.

Other women discussants also confirm the above idea. Thus, woman discussants from Agam-woha explain as:

Land is our life; food security without land is unthinkable. If there is no land, how one can has ox? money, fertilizer and improved seeds and produce food? Therefore, I can say that food security is closely linked with access to land.

Further, both women and men interviewees have confirmed that there is link between food security and access to land. A 56 years old woman from Agam-woha explained:

Without land, there is no food and life for agrarian community. If there is land, one can have all other things. Land is money, food, house, livestock and all other necessities for me. I have got only 4 timad farmland through land redistribution. I have sold 2 timad land for 1300 birr for one year production and I have rented my 2 timad land and get half of its product, 3.5 quintal of teff. I can buy basic things for the household by that money. By doing so, our family can live. Therefore, for me economic status of rural family is based on land. To summarize my idea, land is a base for food production and rural life and thus, there is direct link between access to land and security.

Furthermore, as Table 12, Pearson’s Correlations also asserted that there is a direct and strong relationship between land size and food production. Pearson’s product-moment correlation coefficient, ‘r’ is the most common measure of relationship or association between scaled on an interval and ‘r’ range from negative 1 to positive 1⁵.

Table4.12: Relationship between Land Size and Food Production
Pearson’s Correlations

		Respondent's Land- Size	Respondent's Food Production
Respondent's Land-Size	Pearson Correlation (r)	1	.88(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	89	89
Respondent's Food Production	Pearson Correlation (r)	.88(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	89	89

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

⁵ Pearson’s ‘r’ range from negative 1 to positive 1, which show whether the relationship is positive, negative, weak or strong. Thus, 0 value of ‘r’ shows that there is no relationship; value close to positive 1 shows that there is strong positive or direct relationship while close to -1 shows strong negative or indirect relationship.

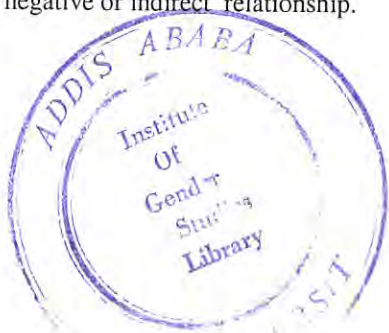


Table 4.12 shows that, there is positive strong correlation (0.88); and two asterisks next to 0.88 indicate a very significant correlation. Hence, one can conclude that there is a strong relationship/link between respondents' land size and their food production as respondents'; land size increases their food production also increases. Thus, as household's own production increase, household become food secured.

Above all, both qualitative and quantitative information explained that there is strong positive link between access to land and food production/own production. Moreover, there is a link between access to land i.e land size and food security of respondents. The following Pearson's correlation Table 4.13 shows that there is a link between land size and food security situation.

Table 4.13: Relationship between Land Size and Food Security Situation of Respondents
Pearson Correlations

		Respondent's Land Size	Food security
Respondent's Land Size	Pearson	1	.78(**)
	Correlation (r)		
	Sig. (2-tailed)		
	N		
Food security	Pearson	.78(**)	1
	Correlation (r)		
	Sig. (2-tailed)		
	N		

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The finding shows that, there is positive strong correlation (0.78); and two asterisks next to 0.78 indicate that there is a very significant correlation. Hence, one can conclude that there is a positive strong relationship between respondents' land size and their security situation. Thus, as respondents' land size increases their household become food secure.

Based on the above information, rural women's food production depends on their access to land and their food security situation is affected by their access to land. According to Maxwell & Wiebe (1999), access to food drives from opportunities to produce food directly or to exchange other commodities or service for food. This implies that ownership, control and use of resources which are important to produced food or exchanged for food. In other way, access implies sufficient over the long term.

Disparity in access to land between men and women would result disparities in food security situation of the two genders (ECA, 2009). WFHH in the study area have less access to land than WMHH, which puts them in a more vulnerable condition to food insecurity. Hence, there is a strong relationship between women's access to land and their food security situation.

4.5.3. Households Coping Strategies

It is natural for people to react positively or negatively for any change in their livelihood. However, experience and coping mechanisms may vary according to the socio-cultural and environmental condition of the society (Mulumebet, 2010). Social structure is based on the concept of mutual support, and has a variety of traditional mechanism to help each other. Thus, whenever there is food shortage, people use mechanisms such as selling land and other assets, engaging in wage labour, borrowing some money or grain from relatives and neighbors, reducing the number, amount and type of meals.



Table 4.14: Distribution of Respondents by Coping Mechanism (N=*, **, *, ****)⁶**
Multiple Answers is Possible

Kebele	Item	Respondents				
		FHH			MHH	
Shege-keranio	How do you cope with food shortage	Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Frequency	percentage (%)
		Selling assets	8	32.0	8	40.0
		Engaging in wage labour	9	36.0	8	40.0
		Borrowing	12	48.0	7	35.0
		Reducing number and amount of meals	23	92	4	20.0
		Producing and selling local drinking	8	32.0	2	10.0
Agam-woha	How do you cope with food shortage	Selling assets	7	29.2	3	15.0
		Engaging in wage labour	15	62.5	8	40.0
		Borrowing	4	16.7	2	10.0
		Reducing number and amount of meals	9	37.5	4	20.0
		Producing and selling local drinking	18	75.0	11	55.0
		Involve in marketing activities	16	66.7	10	50.0

Source: Fieldwork Survey, 2011

Respondents cope with food shortage by employing various mechanisms. Table 4.12 shows that majority (92.0) and 48.0% of FHH respondents in Sheg-keranio *kebele* cope with food shortage by borrowing and reducing number and amount of meals. On the other hand, majority (75.0%) and 66.7% of FHH respondents in Agam-woha *kebele* cope by producing and selling local drink and involve in various market activities. This shows that because of distance from town and market rural women have different coping mechanism.

⁶ * Total Number of WFHH in Shege-keranio=25, ** Total Number of WFHH in Agam-woha =24; *** Total Number of WMHH in Shege-keranio=20 and ****Total Number of WFHH in Agam-woha =20

Qualitative data gathered on coping with food shortage asserted that borrowing, selling assets, reducing amount, type and quality of meal, engaging in wage labour, migrating, non-farm activities, renting land, and skipping meals are the major ones. Thus, women FGD discussants in Agam-woha discussed that they have employed various coping mechanisms. They expressed their idea as:

Food shortage is worse which requires various coping mechanisms. During food shortage, you create various mechanisms without shame, because you have no choice. For instance, reducing quality, quantity and type of meal; divided and sold assets and children may migrate to town. Moreover, skipped meal, engaged in wage labour, borrowed cash and grain from relatives and neighbors are common in our community. NGOs also help for those who are identified as very poor by providing some food and other material like oil and sugar.

On the other hand, a 58 years old woman interviewee from Shege-keranio also confirmed the above idea. She said:

In our community, social life is strong and people help each other when there is any problem. I have faced food shortage particularly in 2001 when my husband was died. At that time, I borrowed grain from my relatives and neighbors and cash from the edir. Moreover, two of family members are engaged in wage labour and non-farm activities and reducing food quality, quantity and skip meal. My parents also gave me 2-quintal of teff as gift. By doing all the above mechanisms, our family is coping with food shortage and crisis.

According to her, there is no food aid from NGOs in Shege-keranio. However, there are NGOs in other *kebeles* who provide food and other aids.

Above all, women employed various coping mechanisms to coping with food shortage, as they are responsible to family food shortage. Moreover, there are clear gender disparities between the two genders. Female-headed households are more vulnerable to food shortage and thus food insecurity than male-headed households do though there is change these days.



CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMANDATION

5.1. Summary

Majority (60%) of respondent's age ranges from 15 to 45 and above. Regarding to marital status, majority (60.2%) of female-headed households were divorced. Out of the total respondents, 85.4% of respondents cannot read and write.

In both *kebeles*, majority of respondents have access to land through land redistribution, marriage and inheritance. There are gender disparities regarding access to land, credit, livestock, modern agricultural inputs and other resources in both *kebles*.

Women participate in agricultural and community based activities to improve their food production and then food security. However, due to cultural division of labour, there are some agricultural activities that women are not supposed to perform. All respondents responded that ploughing, sowing and fertilizing are exclusively as men's activities.

Around 88% of respondents in Shege-keranio and 75% of respondents in Agam-woha believed that land size is the first and most important factors of food production while the rest of respondents believed that lack of access to credit, modern agricultural inputs and man labour.

More than half of the survey respondents have faced food shortage. Thus, 80% of female-headed and 30% of male-headed household respondents in Shegie-keranio have faced food shortage while 58.3% of female-headed and 15% of male-headed household respondents in Agam-woha have faced food Shortage. Moreover, there is variation among Kebles regarding food shortage: Agam-woha is better than Shegie-keranio.

68% of female-headed household and 40% of male-headed household survey respondents in Shegie-keranio have perceived their household as food insecure while 54.2% of female-

headed and 35% of male-headed household respondents in Agam-woha have perceived that their household is food insecure.

Average Food Consumption Score of female-headed household is poor (17.7) food consumption while average Food Consumption Score is border line (24.6). Pearson's correlation coefficient shows that there is a direct and strong relationship between respondents' land size and food production and also between respondents' land size and food security situation.

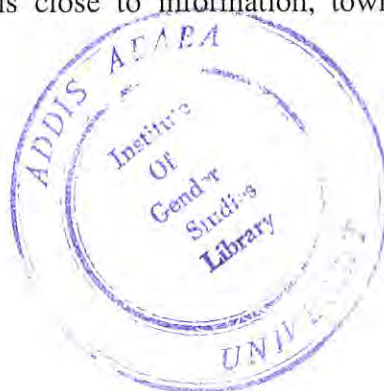
Respondents employ various coping mechanisms when they face food shortage and food insecurity such as borrowing, reducing number and amount of meals, producing and selling local drinking, selling assets, engaging in wage labour and involving in other market activities.

5.2. Conclusion

Women's access to land issue has gained attention in the gender discourse though women have less access to and control over land. In the study area, women can have access to land through inheritance, land distribution and marriage.

This study identified that there is clear gender difference in access to and control over rural land in Shege-keranio and Agam-woha *kebeles* despite the fact that there is change. Lack of access to land is the major challenge to both gender and constraint agricultural productivity at household, community and national levels. However, these constraints are more pronounced for women. Women's limited access to resources particularly to land is a major constraint for women's economic status.

Further, the study revealed that women have limited access to credit because of less access to collateral, livestock and less social connection. Women's access to credit in Shege-keranio is less than in Agam-woha, because Agam-woha kebele is close to information, town and market.



Moreover, in the study area, rural women in general, female-headed households in particular have less access to modern agricultural input, due cultural constraints such as women cannot plough and sow, even though there are improvements.

As per to this study, rural women play various roles in their food production. They engage in various agricultural activities; community based activities such as *edir*, *equb*, *mahiber* and other Peasant Association activities while there are activities that women are not supposed to engage due to cultural division of labour. Division of labour is other major constraint that put women in a more disadvantageous and vulnerable position than men. As Agam-woha *kebele* is close to capital of the *woreda* , women in this *kebele* are in a better position than in Shege-keranio *kebele*.

In the study area, majority of female-headed households faced food shortage at least for two to three months and most of them are food insecure because of less access to resources particularly land. Rural women's food shortage varies from *kebele* to *kebele* and thus women in Shege-keranio are more vulnerable than in Agam-woha. Female-headed households' food production is influenced by various major constraints in which access to land is one of most important factor.

Female-headed households have less access to land than male-headed households and thus their production is less than their male counterpart. Therefore, there is a link between access to land and food production, which in turn shows the way that there is a link between access to land and food security.

5.3. Recommendations

- Rural women's particularly, female-headed households' access to land is less than their male counterparts due to major constraints such as arbitration resolution of divorce. This should be solved through providing training to rural women, men, elders who serve as arbitrators, and other pertinent bodies in divorce and conflict. It is also important to train/educate and incorporate women arbitrators so as to reduce male domination and gender biases on decision and resolution. Besides, it should be given

to court/formal resolution of disputes rather than informal one and women should be aware of their rights to property.

- Further, female-headed households' access to credit is less due to less access to collaterals and less social network to form group although there are changes. This should be further promoted by increasing women's access to collaterals and providing education and training on the implication of social network to women and men. Likewise, training should also be provided to women and men on the significance of women's access to credit to society and their life. Providing information and training to women who live far away from the town is another measure to reduce the gap among *kebeles*.
- Besides, women's access to modern agricultural inputs is less than their male counterparts because of various major reasons related to division of labour such as women cannot plough, fertilize and sow. Moreover, there are agricultural activities in which women are not supposed to engage despite their various activities and leadership positions for the reason of cultural division of labour even though there is change. It requires socio-cultural change on gender division of labour by providing training, education and information to the society, women and men on cultural division of labour.
- Women's food production is influenced by various factors. However, the most important factors are less access to land and small farmland size. Therefore, women's food production can be improved by reducing factors that affect women's access to land and land size such as renting due to division of labour (women cannot plough and sow): through training and selling of land by providing other income through access to credit.
- In Hulet Ejue Enese woreda, all *kebeles* are not under food security program. However, there are *kebeles*, which seriously require food security program. Therefore, such *kebeles* should be under food security program.

6. References

- Aberra Aderie (2002) The Impact of the 1996 Amhara Region Land Redistribution on Productivity and Household Food Security, a Comparison between the Losers and the Beneficiary Households: The Case of Enebsie Sar- Midir Woreda, East Gojjam Zone. Unpublished MA Thesis. Addis Ababa University, Addis Ababa.
- Agarwal, B. (2003). "Gender and Land Rights Revisited: Exploring new Prospects via the State, Family and Market" *Journal of Agrarian Studies*: 3: 1-2, Jan-August.
- Agarwal, B. (1994). *A Field of One's Own. Gender and Land Rights in South Asia*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- Akuna, B. (2004). *Access to and control over land from a gender perspective*. A Study in the Volta Region of Ghana. Retrieved on December 22, 2010 from, <ftp://ftp.fao.org/docrep/fao/007/ae501e/ae501e00.pdf>.
- Almaz Eshetie. (1991). "Perspective on Gender and Development", in Tsehai-Berhanselassie (Ed): *Gender Issues in Ethiopia*, Institute of Ethiopian Studies, Addis Ababa University.
- Almaz Woldetensaye. (2007). "Women's Access to and Control over Land in the Current Land Administration System in Two Rural Kebeles In Ada'a Woreda of Oromia Region". Unpublished MA Thesis, Institute Of Gender Studies, Addis Ababa University.
- ANRS. (2006). *Land Use and Administration Manual*. Amhara National Regional State, Zikre Hig-No18.
- Askale Teklu. (2005). *Land Registration and Women's Land Rights in Amhara Region, Ethiopia*. Research Report 4, Russell Press, Nottingham, UK.
- Beasley, C. (1999). *What is Feminism? An Introduction to Feminist Theory*. SAGE Publication Ltd. 6 Bonhill Street London.
- Blanch .et al. (2006). *Research in Practices; Applied Methods for the Social Sciences*; Cape Town University; South Africa.
- BoFED. (2006). *Development Indicators of Amhara Region*. Bahir Dar, 2006
- Carney, D. (1998). *Sustainable Rural Livelihoods. What Contribution Can We Make*, DFID, London.

- Chambers, R. (1988). "Sustainable Rural Livelihoods: A Key Strategy for People Environment and Development" in Conray, C. and Litvinoff, M. (eds) *The Greening of Aid*, London; Earthscan.
- Chambers, R. & Conway, G. (1992). 'Sustainable rural livelihoods: practical concepts for the twenty-first century'. *IDS Discussion paper* 296. Brighton, UK: Institute of Development Studies, University of Sussex.
- Creswell, J. W. (1998). *Qualitative Inquiry and Research Design: choosing among five traditions*. London, Sage Publication.
- Creswell, J. W. (2007). *Designing and Conducting Mixed Methods of Research*. Sage Publication, United Kingdom
- Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research Designing: Qualitative, Quantitative and Mixed Methods Approach*. Sage Publication, United Kingdom.
- CSA. (2008). *Statistical Abstract*, Addis Ababa Ethiopia.
- Degefa Tolossa. (2000). *Environmental and Socio-Economic Causes to Households Seasonal Food Insecurity in Oromiya Zone of Amhara Region*. A Research Report Submitted to OSSREA, Addis Ababa.
- Degefa Tolossa. (2002). *Household Seasonal Food Insecurity in Oromiya Zone, Ethiopia: Causes*. Social Science Research Report Series-No.26, printed by Organization for Social Science Research in Eastern and Southern Africa (OSSREA).
- Degefa Tolossa. (2003). *Issues of land tenure and food security: The case of three communities of Munessa wereda, south-central Ethiopia*. *Norsk Geografisk Tidsskrift-Norwegian Journal of Geography* 57, 9-19.
- Degefa Tolossa. (2005). *Rural livelihoods, Poverty and food insecurity in Ethiopia: A case study at Erensa and Garbi communities in Oromia Zone, Amhara National Regional State*; Doctorial Thesis, Trondheim.
- Dejene Aredo. (1994). *Female-Headed Farm Households in Two Contrasting Regions in Ethiopia Access to and Management of Resource*. Research Sponsored by Center for Research Training and Information for Women in Development (CERTWID/IDR/AAU, Addis Ababa.



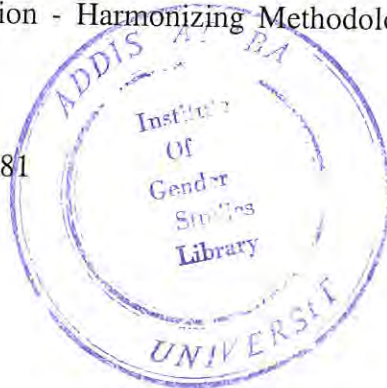
- Dejene Aredo. (1999). "Property Rights in land: Theory and Evidence from Rural Ethiopia", *Ethiopia Journal of Development Research* vol. 21, No. 2.
- Dejene Aredo & Teferi Regassa. (2005). "Customery Land Rights in Africa: A Survey and Selected Case Studies From East Africa", *Ethiopia Journal of Development Research* vol. 27, No. 2.
- Dessalegn Rahmato. (1984). *Agrarian Reform in Ethiopia*. Uppsala: Scandinavian Institute of African Study.
- Dessalegn Rahmato. (1989). Rural Women in Ethiopia: Problems and Prospects, paper prepared for the Seminar on Gender issues in Ethiopia, Institute of Ethiopian Studies, Addis Ababa.
- Economic Commission for Africa. (2009). Land Tenure Systems and their Impacts on Food Security and Sustainable Development in Africa. Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.
- Ehlers, E. And Kreutzmann, H. (eds) (2000). *High Mountain Pastoralism in Northern Pakistan*. Erdkundliches Wissen 132, Stuttgart
- Emebet Mulugeta. (2008). *Crossing the Hurdle: Survival Strategies of Poor Women in Addis Ababa*. Eastern Africa Social Science Research Review, Volume 24, Number 1, January 2008, pp. 41-79.
- FAO. (1983). World Food Security: A Reappraisal of the concepts and approaches. Director Generals report. Rome.
- FAO. (1996). *Rome Declaration on World Food Security and World Food*. Rome, Italy.
- FAO. (2002). *Law and sustainable development since Rio: Legal trends in agriculture and natural resource management*. FAO Legislative Study, No. 73. Rome.
- FAO. (2006). National Workshop on Women's Property Rights and Livelihoods in the Context of HIV/AIDS Proceedings. Lusaka, Zambia.
- FAO. (2009). The State of Food Insecurity in the World. Economic Crises – Impacts and Lessons Learned. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, Rome.
- FAO. (2010). Crop and Food Security Assessment Mission to Ethiopia. Special Report, Rome.
- FDRE. (1995). Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia. Proclamation No. 1/1995. *Proclamation of the Constitution of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia*, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

- FDRE. (1997). Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia.. *Rural Land Administration and Use Proclamation*. Proclamation No. 89/1997, Federal Negarit Gazeta, Addis Ababa.
- FDRE. (2001). Policies, Strategies and Approaches to Rural Development. Ministry of Information, Addis Ababa.
- FDRE. (2002). Food Security Strategy. Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.
- FDRE. (2003). The New Coalition for Food Security in Ethiopia, Food Security Program. Volume 1, Addis Ababa.
- Girmachew Adugna. (2006). Livelihood and Survival Strategies among Migrant Children in Addis Ababa. Masters Thesis, Trondheim, Norway.
- Hadera Tesfay. (2007) .Women's Land Right and Women's Access to Land: Gaps in Policy and Practice in three Regional State in Ethiopia. Network of Ethiopian Women's Associations (NEWA) study Report, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. Social Science Research in Eastern and Southern Africa (OSSREA).
- Haregewoin Cherinet. (2003). Gender and Food Security: (ed) Tesfahun Fenta and Osman Ali Challenges and Prospects of Food Security in Ethiopia, UNCC, Addis Ababa, August 13-15, 2003. professional associations' joint secretariat (pajs), addis ababa , Ethiopia, pp67.
- Hoben, A. (2002). Ethiopian Land Tenure Recisted: Continuity, Change and Contradictions: Workenh Negatu, et.al. (ed): Proceedings of Workshop on Current Issues on Land Tenure in Ethiopia: Access, Food production and Natural Resource Management. IDR, Addis Ababa University.
- Maxwell, D. & Wiebe, K. (1998). Land Tenure and Food Security: A Review of Concepts, Evidence and Methods. Research Paper No 129, Madison: University of Wisconsin.
- Maxwell, D. & Wiebe, K. (1999). Land Tenure and Food Security: Exploring dynamics Linkages. *Development and Change* 30, 825-849.
- MoFED. (2002). Ethiopia: Sustainable Development and Poverty Reduction Program. Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia, Ministry of Finance and Economic Development. Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.
- Moyo S. (2002). The Land Question and Land Reform in Southern Africa. The Practice and Effectiveness of Development Policies in South Africa. Conference Paper presented



- on Implementing Development, National Institute for Economic Policy (NIEP). Pretoria, South Africa.
- Mulugeta Bezabih. (2009). Rural-Urban Linkages in Central Ethiopia: A Case of Welenkomi Town and its Hinterland. VDM Verlag, Germany.
- Mulumebet Melaku. (2010). The Role of Productive Safety Net Programme in Empowering Women in Food Security The Case Of Jamma Woreda South Wollo, Ethiopia. Addis Ababa University, Unpublished Thesis.
- Mulunesh Woldemariam. (2001). Gender, Sustainable Livelihood and Food Security In Rural Ethiopia. "Food Security And Sustainable Livelihoods in Ethiopia", edited by Yared Amare, pp 163-176, Printed by FSS, Addis Ababa.
- NFSS. (2002). Unpublished Government Paper.
- OARD. (2010). Six Month Performance Report, Office of Agriculture and Rural Development, Hulet Eju Enese. Unpublished.
- OAU. (2003). Organization of African Union. *Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa*. African Commission on Human and Peoples' Rights Protocol to the African Charter. The 2nd Ordinary Session of the Assembly of the Union, 2003, Maputo. Retrieved on January 12, 2011 from <http://www.africa-union.org>
- Punch, M. (1994). Politics and Ethics in Qualitative Research. In Denzin, N.K. and Lincoln, Y.s(eds). *Hand Book of Qualitative Research*. London, SAGE Publication.
- Robson, C. (1995). *Real World Research: A Resource for Social Scientists and Practitioner Researchers*. Cambridge, Massachusetts, USA.
- Scoones, I. (1998). Sustainable Rural Livelihood: A Framework for analysis, IDS working paper No. 72, Sussex, UK.
- Spring, A. (2000). *women Farmers and Commercial Ventures :Increasing Food Security in Developing Countries*. Lynne Rienner Publisher, United States of America.
- Tarekegn Shado. (2006). Challenges of Sustainable Livelihood: The Case of Fishing Communities around Lake Chamo. Unpublished Masters Thesis, Addis Ababa University.
- Tilaye Teklewold. (2004). Food Insecurity: Extent, Determinants And Household Coping Mechanisms In Gera Keya Wereda, Amhara Region. Unpublished Thesis, Addis Ababa University.

- Tong, R.P. (1998). *Feminist thought* Second edition, Colorado USA Westview Persus Book Group.
- UDHR. (1948). *Universal Declaration of Human Rights*. General Assembly resolution 217 A (III), retrieved on December 23, 2010, from, <http://www.un.org/Overview/rights>.
- UN. (1994). Human Right, Discrimination against Women: the Convention an the Committee; Fact Sheets No. 22; (November 1994).
- UN. (1975). Report of World Food Conference, Rome 5-16 November 1974, New York.
- UN/DESA/DAW. (1995). United Nations Division for the Advancement of Women Department of Economic and Social Affairs: *Fourth World Conference on Women, Beijing 1995*, retrieved on January 3, 2011, from, http://www.un.org/women_watch/daw/beijingdeclaration.html.
- UNESCO. (2004). Documentation of Gender Sensitive Development Initiatives. Retrieved on February, 2011 from <http://www.Flivisms.Nets.staticispex?Langen>.
- UNHCR. (2003). United Nations Higher Commission on Human Rights *Commission on Human Rights Resolution 2003/22*, Retrieved on November 22, 2010, from, <http://web.amnesty.org/library/Index/ENGIOR410042004?open&of=ENG-373>.
- USAID. (1999). Food Security Indicators for the Use in the Monitoring and Evaluation of Food security Program.
- Wibke, C. & Benedikt, K. (2008). Ethiopia: Reforming Land Tenure. *Review of African Political Economy No. 116:203-220*, ROAPE Publication.
- Workneh Negatu. (2001). Land tenure and food security: the case of Adamitullu-Jido Kombolcha wereda in east Shewa Zone: Workenh Negatu, Yared Amare and Yigremew Adal (ed). *Peocidings of Workshop on Current Issues on Land Tenure in ethiopia: Access, Food production and Natural Resource Manegment*. IDR ,Addis Ababa University.
- World Bank. (2005). Food Aid and Food Security in the Short- and Long Run: Country Experience from Asia and sub-Saharan Africa. Discussion Paper No. 0538, world Bank Institute.
- World Bank. (1993). *A Situation Report: Ethiopia*. Washington, D.C.
- WFP. (2008). Measures of Food Consumption - Harmonizing Methodologies. Interagency Workshop Report WFP – FAO. Rome.



- Yared Amare. (2001). Livelihood Strategies and Food Security Policy in Ethiopia, paper presented on the symposium of Food Security and Sustainable Livelihood in Ethiopia, Forum for Social Studies, Addis Ababa.
- Yigremew Adal. (2001). Land Redistribution and Female headed Households: a Study in Two Rural Communities in Northwest Ethiopia. Forum for Social Studies (FSS), IDR, Addis Ababa University.
- Yigremew Adal. (2001), 'Some Queries about the Debate on Land Tenure in Ethiopia', in Demeke, Mulat & Woldehanna (eds.), *Explaining Growth and Development in Ethiopia*, Proceedings of the Tenth Annual Conference on the Ethiopian Economy, 2-5 Nov 2000, Addis Ababa: Ethiopian Economic Association (EEA), 51-68.
- Yigremew Adal. (2002). Review of Landholding Systems and Policies in Ethiopia under the Different Regimes. Working Paper No 5, EEA/Ethiopian Economic Policy Research Institute.
- Yigremew Adal. (2003). Land Tenure and Food Security in South Wello (Wollo) and Oromiya Zones, Amhara Region, Ethiopia. Peter D. Little and Workneh Negatu(ed):Summary Proceedings of the Workshop on the BASIS/IDR Research Programme in Eastern Amhara Region, Ethiopia. Held at Bahirdar, Amhara Regional State 17-18 June, 2003 Papyrus Hotel, Bahirdar.
- Yigremew Adal. (2006). Rural Women's Access to Land in Ethiopia. In: Land and the Challenge of Sustainable Development in Ethiopia. Forum for Social Studies. Addis Ababa.
- Yigremew Adal. (2007). Women's Access to Farm Land: Mechanism and Problems. Paper Presented at a Confrence on Women's Land Rights and Women's Access to Land: The Gap between Policy and Practice. Organized by Network of Ethiopian Women's Association (NEWA). Addis Ababa.



Annexes



Annex I

Household Survey Questionnaire

I. Introduction

I am a 2nd year MA student in Gender Studies at Addis Ababa University, Institute of Gender Studies and now I am doing my thesis on ‘Rural Women’s Access to Land and Their Food Security Situation in Hulet Ejue Enese *Woreda*’. Dear respondents, the main purpose of this study is to assess rural women’s access to land and their food security situation in Hulet Ejue Enese *Woreda*.

The information obtained from you is meant for academic purpose and the quality of this study strongly relies on your genuine responses. Therefore, you are kindly requested to provide as much as accurate information as possible. Your response will be treated with the highest confidential. Moreover, be confident that the information provided by you will be only used to analyze this research but not for other purpose. I appreciate your cooperation and thank you for sharing your indisputable idea and precious time.

Thank you in advance for your cooperation!

2. General Direction

This questionnaire has four parts and you are kindly requested to answer all questions as much as possible and no need of writing your name. Please circle the letter of your answer and write the answer on the space provided.

Enumerator Code: _____

Keble: _____



3. Household Survey Questions

PART I: Household Basic Information

1. Age: A. 15-25 B. 26-35 C. 36-45 D. 46 and above
2. Marital Status: A, Single B, Divorced C, Widowed D, Separated
3. Educational status: A. Unable to read and write B. Can read and write C. Grades 1-6
D. Grades 7-12 E. Above grade 12 F. Others, specify _____
4. Number of permanent household members at the time of survey?
A. Female _____ B. Male _____ C. Total _____

PART II: Access to and Control over Resource

A. Access to Land

1. Do you have your own farmland? A. Yes B. No
2. If your answer to Question 1 is "No", why is that? _____

3. If your answer to Question 1 is "Yes", how did you own the farmland? Multiple answers are possible. A. Inherited from parents B. Through land distribution C. From spouse
D. Renting E. Others (specify) _____
4. What is the size of your total farmland? In *timade/gemed* _____
5. Do you think that women's access to land is equal to men's access to land?
A. Yes B. No
6. If your answer to Question 5 is "No", what are the major reasons? _____

B. Access to Livestock

1. Do you have livestock? A. Yes B. No
2. If your answer to Question 1 is "Yes", which livestock you own?



No	List of livestock	1=Yes , 2=No	How many for yes
1	Oxen		
2	Cows		
3	Sheep		
4	Goats		
5	Horse		
6	Donkeys		
7	Hens		
8	Others, specify		

3. Do you control/mange your livestock by yourself? A. Yes B. No
4. If your answer to Question 3 is “No”, what are the major reasons?_____
- _____
- _____
- _____

C. Access to Credit

1. Do you have access to credit? A. Yes B. No
2. If your answer to Question 1 is “No”, what are the major reasons?_____
- _____
- _____
3. If your answer to Question 2 is “Yes”, have you taken credit? A. Yes B. No
4. What are the major reasons to Question 4? _____
- _____
- _____

D. Access to Modern Agricultural Inputs and Agricultural Extension Training

1. Do you have access to modern agricultural inputs? A. Yes B. No



2. If your answer to Question 1 is “Yes”, which type of input do you use? Multiple answers are possible. A. Fertilizer B. Improved seed C. Pesticides D. others, specify_____

3. If your answer to Question 1 is “No” what are the major reasons?_____

Part III: Women’s Agricultural and Community Role

1. Which of the following activities perform by women, men and both?

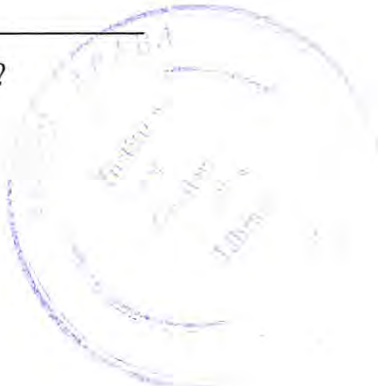
No	Activities	By women: 1=Yes , 2=No	By men: 1= Yes , 2=No	By both: 1=Yes, 2= No
1.1	Clearing the farmland			
1.2	Ploughing			
1.3	Fertilizing			
1.4	Weeding			
1.5	Digging			
1.6	Harvesting			
1.7	Threshing			
1.8	Transporting/storing			
1.9	Marketing crops			
1.10	Others, specify			

2. Are there agricultural activities that women are not supposed to engage in? A. Yes B. No

3. If your answer to Questions 2 is yes, what are those activities?_____

4. Depending on Q3, what are the major reasons that prohibit women from engaging in those activities? _____

5. Do you have any leadership position in traditional and formal organizations?



A. Yes B. No C. If yes, specify_____

6. If your answer to Question 5 is “No”, what are the major reasons?_____

7. Do you think that your participation in *Kebele* Peasant Association and Community Based Organizations (CBOs) is important to secure your rights and benefits?

A. Yes B. No

8. If your answer to Question 7 is “Yes”, what role do you play to participate in your *Kebele* Peasant Association?_____

9. What are your suggestions to overcome gender disparity?_____

Part IV: Food Security

1. What is your major income ? _____

2. Do you produce enough food for the family? A, Yes B, No

3. What are the major factors affect your production?

4. How do you perceive your household? A. Food secure B. Food insecure

C. Varies from one year to another D. Varies from season to season

E. others, specify _____

5. If you perceive your household as food insecure what are the major reasons to perceive like that?

A. Lack access to farmland

B. Lack of oxen

C. lack of men labour

D. Lack of access to credit

E. Others specify_____

6. What looks like household’s production and consumption pattern 2009-2010?

No	Crop item	Annual Production in quintal	Annual consumption	Annual expenditure	Balance (annual food production-annual food consumption- annual expenditure)
6.1	Teff				
6.2	Maize				
6.3	Wheat				
6.4	Barley				
6.5	Beans				
6.6	Paeans				
6.7	Sorghum				
6.8	Chickpeas				
6.9	Others, specify				
6.10	Total				

7. How many times your families have eaten per day? During

A. Summer (June-August)_____

B. Autumn (September-November)_____

C. Winter (December-February)_____

D. Spring (March-May)_____

8. Did you face food shortage? A. Yes B. No

9. If your answer to Question 8 is “Yes”, what were the major causes of your food shortage?

No	Potential reason for food insecurity	1=Yes , 2=No
9.1	Failure to properly utilize own production and other earnings	
9.2	Lack of rain fall	
9.3	Small land holding and land infertility/lack of social capital	
9.4	Lack of oxen/lack of physical capital	
9.5	Lack of man labor	
9.6	Lack of modern agricultural input	
9.7	Lack of access to credit	
9.8	Environmental degradation	
Others		

10. What looks like the food consumption pattern during food shortage in the household?

No	Food consumption	1=Yes , 2=No
10.1	The household consumed less preferred food.	
10.2	Reduced the quantity of food served in this household	
10.3	Reduced quality of food	
10.4	Reduced the quantity of food served to children in this household	
10.5	Members of this household skipped meals	
10.6	Others, specify	

11. How many times you eat the following foods for last seven days. Put in number.

- A. Staple _____
- B. Pulse_____
- C. Vegetable _____
- D. Fruit_____
- E. Animal (meat and fish)_____
- F. Sugar_____
- G. Dairy_____
- H. Oil _____

12. How did you cope with that food shortage? Multiple answers are possible.

- A. Engage in wage labor B. Rent land C. Sale assets/property
- C. Borrowing cash or grain from relatives/neighbors
- D. Reduced number and amount/quality meals E. Migration
- F. Non-farm activities G. Others, specify_____

Part V, linkage between food production and access to land

1. Do you think that there is the link between access to land and food production?

- A. Yes B. No

2. What is your reason to your answer for Q1above?_____

3. What is most important determinant of food production?

A, Land size

B. Access to Modern agricultural input

C, Environmental degradation

D, Access to Man labour and ox

E, Low access to credit and saving F, Others specify

4, Do you think that there is link between access to land and food security?

A, Yes

B, No

Thank you!!



Annex II

Interview Guide to Female -Headed Households

- 1) Do you have access to land through land redistribution? If have, how is fairness and its productivity? What is the impotence of access to land?
- 2) Who have more access to land, oxen, credit, modern agricultural input? Why is that?
- 3) What are your major roles in agriculture and community based activites?
- 4) Do you manage your resources by your self or not? Why is that?
- 5) What is your source of household income?
- 6) Have you ever faced labor shortage? Whose labor is the most important? Why is that?
- 7) Who are the most vulnerable to food insecurity? How do you perceive food secure or insecure? Why is that?
- 8) Is there gender difference? If there is, what are the major gender differences?
- 9) What do you suggest to improve your access to land and food security situation?

Annex III

Interview Guides to Key-Informants

- 1) Do you think that rural women have access to land? If so, is it fair? How?
- 2) Do you think that their access to land is enough to their household? If so, how?
- 3) How is women's role to sustain their food security?
- 4) How is female-headed household and male-headed household food security situation?
- 5) What is the link between rural women's access to land and their food production?
- 6) How is gender gap? If there are, what are major causes and how can gaps be minimizing?
- 7) What are your suggestions to improve rural women's situation?

Annex IV

FGD Guiding Questions

- 1) How is rural women's access to land?
- 2) Are there constraints to women's access to land? If there are, what are major constraints hinder women's access to land?
- 3) What are major roles rural women plays to realize their land access?
- 4) How is rural women's food production? Why is that?
- 5) What are coping mechanisms of rural women exercise when they face food insecurity?
- 6) How is gender equality?
- 7) What are major solutions to over come gender disparities?