



**ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY**  
**School of Graduate Studies**  
**Institute of Gender Studies**

**THE ROLE OF PRODUCTIVE SAFETY NET  
PROGRAMME IN EMPOWERING WOMEN  
IN  
FOOD SECURITY**

**THE CASE OF JAMMA WOREDA  
SOUTH WOLLO, ETHIOPIA**

**By Mulumebet Melaku Workagegnehu**

**July 2010**  
**Addis Ababa, Ethiopia**

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**A Thesis Submitted to the Institute of Gender Studies in  
Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of  
Master of Arts (MA) in Gender Studies**

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## Acronyms

AC	Appeals Committee
ADLI	Agriculture Development Led Industrialization
CFSTF	Community Food Security Task Force
CSA	Central Statistical Abstract
DAs	Development Agents
DS	Direct Support
FSP	Food Security Program
FSS	Food Security Strategy
FSCOB	Food Security Co-ordination Bureau,
IGA	Income Generating Activities
KFSTF	Kebele Food Security Task Force
MoARD	Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development
MoFED	Ministry of Finance and Economic Development
MoWA	Ministry of Women's Affairs
OARD	Office of Agriculture and Rural Development
PASDEP	Plan for Accelerated Sustained Development to End Poverty
PIM	Program Implementation Manual
PRS	Poverty Reduction Strategy
PSNP	Productive Safety Net Program
PW	Public Works
TGE/ PMO	Transitional Government of Ethiopia/ Prime Minister Office
VRP	Voluntary Resettlement Program
WOARD	Woreda, Office of Agriculture and Rural Development.
WOWA	Woreda Office of Women's Affairs
WFSTF	Woreda Food Security Task Force

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## ABSTRACT

*Ethiopia's economy has been challenged by frequent food insecurity for decades as a result of many interrelated environmental, socio-economic and political reasons. The increasing severe food insecurity in recent years forced the Ethiopian government to develop the Food Security Strategy (FSS) that could provide social protection for the rural community. Food insecurity has a gender dimension. Women are the most vulnerable section of the society to food insecurity as they lack adequate access to productive resources, services and less participation decision making. The Strategy recognized the negative impacts of the existing gender inequality in achieving food security. Therefore, one of the food security programs, PSNP, is designed to address the gender disparities. The PSNP implementation manual (PIM) sets out the framework for gender mainstreaming in the program. This study is an assessment and evaluation based research that aimed at assessing the role of PSNP in empowering women in food security by examining the implementation of the program in Jamma Woreda of the Amhara Regional State. Qualitative and quantitative methods were employed to generate and analyze data. Drawn through purposive and convenience sampling techniques a total of 371 people participated in the study out of which 263 are in the household survey, 45 in the interview and 63 in the focus group discussion. The result of the research shows that PSNP has contributed in empowering women economically and in social aspects of their life. Women equally contribute to their community development by their participation in PW and able to generate income for their households. This in turn brought them personal empowerment, community recognition and respect. However, on the other hand the most important gender provisions have not been properly addressed in the implementation process. To attain the anticipated results of PSNP the implementers need to be trained on gender mainstreaming and be well informed about the content of the PIM. Revision of the PIM would be instrumental to clear some issues that have given loopholes for not implementing the provisions strictly. The monitoring and evaluation system need to be strengthened and include gender sensitive indicators.*

# CHAPTER ONE

## 1 Introduction

### 1.1 Background

Ethiopia had been self-sufficient in food till the late 50's but since early 60's domestic food supply failed to meet the food requirements of the people (Debebe, 2001) and food insecurity has become critical problem in the socio-economic development of the country. Food insecurity in Ethiopia is caused by combination of factors such as adverse changes in climate, poor technology, soil degradation; policy induced and program implementation problems (FDRE 2003).

The rain-fed subsistence agriculture makes Ethiopia's economy very susceptible to frequent shocks. A change in weather adversely affects agricultural production immediately and creates food shortage at the household level particularly in the drought prone areas. Ethiopia has been suffering from frequent food insecurity problems for almost the last forty years. The fact that "the extent of food insecurity coverage in recent years during drought periods has reached as high as 45 percent of the population" (FDRE, 2003 p.2) has become alarming. Six million and two hundred thousand people are in need of food assistance in the year 2009/2010 as officially declared by the government (BBC 2009).

Food insecurity has become one of the critical development problems not only in Ethiopia but also in most of the developing countries. Therefore, governments are forced to develop, policies, strategies and programs that could provide social protection for their citizens in line with the United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights and meeting the MDGs.

Ethiopian government has developed Food Security Strategy back in November 1996 as a mitigation measure for the shocks and it is being implemented with various interventions since 2003. The strategy consists of three components: Resettlement (land Access), Productive Safety Net Program (PSNP) and Other Food Security Programs (OFSP) (FDRE, 2002).

The Productive Safety Net Program (PSNP), the concern of this study is aimed at addressing the basic food needs of food insecure farm households. PSNP provides social protection to the rural population by transferring resource to the people in chronically food insecure woredas in the way that prevents asset depletion at the household level and creates assets at the community level. The PSNP provides resources to households through, direct grants to labour poor, elderly or incapacitated households, and payment to able bodied member of households for participation in labour intensive public work (PW) activities. Other Food Security Programs (Projects) supplement asset building in PSNP beneficiaries households by providing credit for different, agricultural as well as non-agricultural production activities proposed by community members (FDRE,2002).

Rural women greatly contribute to food security as food producers, providers and contributors to the household nutrition requirements. They have a substantial role in crop production, livestock maintenance, management, and marketing. However, in Ethiopia, the patriarchal social relations discriminates women from accessing productive resources and decision-making. As a result of this women are the most affected by the consequences of food insecurity.

The Food Security Strategy recognizes that the existing gender inequality in accessing productive resources negatively affect in achieving food security. It stressed that development interventions are more likely to benefit male headed households than female headed households. This recognition in fact is a step forward in addressing the issue of gender inequality.

PSNP implementation manual contains many gender provisions that could reduce the inequality. However, according to reports from the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development (MoARD 2007, 2008, 2009 and FSCOB 2007), marginalization of gender issues has been observed in the implementation process and there is little demand for reporting on the gender aspects of the program, hence most of the reports are not gender disaggregated.

This study focuses on the role of PSNP in creating favorable conditions to empower women in food security by assessing the program implementation process in Jamma Woreda, South Wollo Zone of Amhara regional state.

## **1.2 Statement of the problem**

Ethiopian women constitute 49.5% of the population, most of which (83.5%) live in rural areas and earn their living from agriculture (CSA, 2008). Ethiopian rural women make significant contribution to the agricultural production and to ensuring food security. They participate in all aspects of crop and livestock production. They take part in land preparation; carry out weeding, harvesting, transportation, threshing, processing and storage activities. They also perform most of the livestock management activities, feeding, cleaning, milking, processing dairy products and management of poultry.

It is very true to say that there is no agricultural production activity without women's involvement. However, despite their significant contribution to the agricultural production and ensuring food security in any other ways, women suffer from the consequences of invisibility of their roles. Gender bias and gender blindness still persist. Farmers are generally perceived as "male" by policy makers, project designers and agricultural deliverers (UNESCO, 2004).

Gender issues in agriculture and food security has become concern of everybody because the causes for food insecurity and gender inequality are interwoven. Factors that contribute for food insecurity in Ethiopia are lack of access to information, inputs, credit, basic services, market technology, income generation opportunities and alternatives, land degradation and low productivity (FDRE, 2002). Differential access to these factors is the main causes for gender inequalities. Thus food insecurity and gender inequality are concerns that should be addressed altogether to ensure sustainable development in Ethiopia.

Women's vulnerability to food insecurity is apparent as their access to productive resources is mostly remote. Whenever there is food shortage in the household, women are the first to suffer. They immediately fail to provide food for family members since they are with no alternatives to overcome the problem.

The Food Security Strategy recognizes the important role being played by women in determining and guaranteeing food security as food producers, food providers and contributors to household nutrition and security. The strategy stressed that food insecurity problems will be alleviated if gender inequality issues are properly addressed.

Productive Safety Net Program (PSNP) is one of the components of the Food Security programs of Ethiopia which is to be applauded for being gender sensitive at the design level. The Program Implementation Manual (PIM) encourages women to participate in the program as beneficiaries as well as decision makers. It has established appropriate institutional frameworks for the promotion of gender equality to meet the needs of women in food insecure agricultural households (MoARD,2006).

The question is, does the implementation of this program go well in empowering women to ensure food security at their household as intended? What constraints and opportunities are there to meet the anticipated result? These questions are the concern of this research.

The persistent food insecurity in Ethiopia has attracted many scholars to do studies on the issue, Getachew (1995), Debebe (1995 and 2001), Yared (1999), Degefa (2002 and 2005.), Workneh, (2004, and 2008), Frehiwot (2007) are among the many. Others, Desalegn (1989), Fanaye (2000), Filmon (2001), Melesse (2007) and some others conducted studies specifically on gender and food insecurity issues. However, gender equality issues in PSNP were not the focus of in these studies.

This research is determined to assess the implementation and outcome of PSNP in empowering women in food security. This has been done by investigating the implementation of PSNP in Jamma woreda, South Wollo Zone, Amhara Regional state.

### **1.3 Research Questions**

1. What challenges women face and what role do they play in sustaining food security at the household level?
2. Does the PSNP empower women in food security? Does it contribute to women's empowerment in any other ways?
3. Are there any drawbacks and constraints in the process of implementation?

### **1.4 Objective of the study**

#### **1.4.1 General Objective**

The general objective of this research is to assess the role of the PSNP in creating favorable conditions to empower women in achieving food security.

#### **1.4.2 Specific objectives**

1. To assess women's challenges and the coping mechanisms in mitigating food insecurity in their households.
2. To assess the role of the PSNP in empowering women in terms of accessing resources and participating in decision-making.
3. To examine limitations and constraints in addressing gender issues in the implementation process of PSNP.

### **1.5 Significance of the Study**

Food insecurity and gender inequality are interrelated issues that should be addressed all together. The information and data generated by this study and the recommendation provided would be utilized in improving the implementation and outcomes of the PSNP. The improvements in the program implementation primarily

benefit poor women to secure food for their households and combat food insecurity to enhance sustainable development.

The result of this research is also instrumental, in making development planners and policy makers vigilant to gender issues, while dealing with food insecurity and sustainable development endeavors.

## **1.6 Scope and limitation of the study**

Since the research is constrained by time, finance and human resources; it is limited only to one woreda among 64 food insecure Woredas in Amhara Regional State. Given the diversity of the Amhara Region, in population size, agro-ecological climate and livelihood, the woreda selected might not fully represent the Region, but could reveal the major causes and dynamics of food insecurity as well as the impact and constraints of the Food Security Program implementation in the Region.

## **1.7 Organization of the Study**

This research has five chapters. The first chapter deals with background of the study, statement of the problem, objectives, research questions, significance, scope and limitations 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

### 2 LITERATURE REVIEW AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

#### 2.1 Concepts of Food Security

Food Security, as a concept originated in the early 1970s, during the time of global food crisis. It was officially defined for the first time in the 1974 “World Food Summit”, which adopted the Universal Declaration of the Eradication of Hunger and Malnutrition. Food Security was defined as “availability at all times of adequate world food supplies of basic food stuff... to sustain a steady expansion of food consumption and to offset fluctuations in production and prices” (UN, 1975).

In 1983, FAO expanded the concept to include “securing access by vulnerable people to available supplies, implying that attention should be balanced between the demand and supply side of the food security equation; ensuring that all people at all times have both physical and economic access to the basic food that they need.” (FAO, 1983)

The concept of food security has been defined and redefined in a number of ways by adding and omitting some aspects. In most cases the definitions include elements of availability, accessibility and utilization. In general, food security refers to a situation in which “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). Food security is multi-dimensional, it is about equitable access to markets, distribution of resources within households, among individuals, across communities and viable options and opportunities to take action and make decisions.

Food insecurity on the other hand is “a situation in which individuals has neither physical nor economic access to the nourishment they need” (Reutlinger, 1987 cited in Degefa 2002, p.11). The situation of food insecurity is categorized into two;

chronic and transitory. Chronic food insecurity is a continuous food inadequacy caused by the inability to acquire food. It affects households that lack the ability either to buy or produce enough food. Transitory food insecurity on the other hand is a temporary decline in a household's access to enough food. It is a phenomenon related to the cropping cycle or to a sudden shortfall in food access or availability (World Bank, 1998).

## **2.2 The Gender dimension of Food Security**

Gender is a socially assigned roles and behaviors of women and men. Gender affects the distribution of resources, wealth, work, decision-making and political power, and the enjoyment of rights and entitlements within the family as well as public life (DAW, 1999).

Review of the gender dimension of food security is very important since the different and complimentary roles and responsibilities of women and men are the basis in guaranteeing food security for households and communities. Analyzing women's and men's access to resources and benefits is fundamental in enhancing food security.

The International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI 1985) disaggregates food security into three pillars: food production, food access and food utilization. It is appropriate to see closely these concepts to understand women's role in food security.

### **2.2.1 Food Production**

Food availability largely depends on agricultural production. Agriculture through crop production as well as animal production is the main source of food. Both women and men participate in agricultural production. Although women actively participate in crop production and livestock management, their role in agricultural production is not recognized and valued. Generally farmers are perceived as 'male' by policy makers and development planners as well as implementers (UNESCO, 2004).

Women play key role in ensuring food security at the household level. Records show that women account for 70 to 80 % of household food production in Sub-Saharan Africa, 65 % in Asia and 45 % in Latin America and the Caribbean, though they suffer from unequal access to productive resources such as land, improved seeds, fertilizers and information (FAO, 1996).

Women in rural Africa, as compared to men, are responsible to 20% of plowing, 50% of planting, 60% of domestic animal care, 60% of harvesting, 70% of weeding, 85% of processing and storing crops (Dankleman, 1991). It is estimated that 78% of the women in Africa are active in agriculture compared with only 64% of men (Gittinger, 1990).

In Ethiopia, food security largely depends on agriculture where 83% of the population derives its livelihood. Women who constitute 49.5% (CSA, 2008) of the population have an important role in determining and guaranteeing food security. They actively participate in all aspects of agricultural production activities. They play prominent role in the process of grain production and livestock management. Women make critical contributions to agricultural production with limited access to necessary resources, to decisions on allocation and utilization of the resources

However, despite their enormous contribution to the agricultural production and food security, women in Ethiopia are not considered as farmers. 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).

### **2.2.2 Food Access**

Availability of food is a prime factor for food security. However, global food availability doesn't ensure food access at a national level; and availability at the national level does not automatically translate into food security at the household and individual levels (IFPRI, 1995). A nation may suffer from food shortage while adequate food is available in the world market, and a household may fail to access

food where adequate food is available in the country. This happens due to less purchasing power and inequitable market access.

Food access has also a gender dimension; available food in the household is not equally accessible to household members. It will be misleading to assume that household members would have equal access to household food. The allocation of resources for income generation and food acquisition and distribution of income and food within the household is affected by gender relations. Heads of the households, mostly men have more power in determining the use of food resources (Maxwell and Smith, 1992). In most of Ethiopian rural societies men are the major decision makers in the allocation of resources for food. Moreover men are served first with the best quality and adequate amount of food while women are served last with the left over after children.

### **2.2.3 Food utilization/ nutrition security**

Food security is not ensured only by accessing physical resources, it has also other dimensions. Women take the responsibility of securing nutrition in the household. Food preparation in rural areas calls women for collecting fuel wood and fetching water, preparing ingredients and cooking which altogether take much of women's time and energy.

Food security also includes the availability of non food resources, like health, child care, access to clean water and sanitation. Paying adequate time and attention to meeting the physical, mental, and social needs of growing children and other household members is a crucial input to good nutrition (UNDP, 1994), which women take the responsibility as a result of gender based division of labor.

Furthermore, women engage in other income generating activities, like selling local drinks, firewood, handicrafts, and other petty trading to supplement family income. Their engagement in those activities will be more intense at times of food scarcity. Women's role in food utilization and nutrition security is well described by FAO, (1996),

*Food processing contributes to food security by assuring ongoing diversity of diet, minimizing waste and losses and improving marketability of foods, enable women to participate in the trade of food products. Their marketing activities translate directly into improved family nutrition, as studies have shown that women tend to contribute a far greater percentage of their cash income to household food requirements than men do.*

In short, women shoulder extensive responsibilities to secure food for their households. Time allocation studies have shown that women work longer hours than men do in supporting the family livelihood (Zewdie and Junge, 1990, TGE, 1993).

A number of studies denoted that women devote a substantial part of all their income to household food and other basic needs, while men devote a relatively small part of all their income to household food expenditure (Dejene, 1989; Fetenu, 1989).

### **2.3 Factors that Affect Women's Role in Food Security**

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). Women's limited access to extension services deprived them from gaining adequate knowledge and skill in modern agriculture that is required to sustain food security in their household.

The first factor that affect women's role in food security is that their needs and priorities are not considered in development policies and planning. The different roles and contributions of women & men in agricultural production and food security is not equally recognized and valued by policy makers and planners. Women's role in food security has remained practically imperceptible to many policy makers (Senait, 2001),

Secondly, women's inadequate access to productive resources put them in a more vulnerable position than men and limits their contribution to food security. Women's control over productive resources such as land and control of income, marketing of major assets, labour and capital promotes their status and decision-making power which in effect could enable them to secure food for their households. (Ostergaard 1994).

Third, lack of access to modern and appropriate technologies has an impact on women's contribution to food security and sustainable development. Their access to technologies is repressed by lack of attention of researchers to the needs and priorities of women in technology generation and adoption. Technologies have been designed and developed by researchers who have little or no understanding of gender roles in agricultural production. Carr (1991) indicated four failures of scientists in addressing gender with regard to technology development.

*There is a general failure to address women's real priorities, failure to include input from women in the planning or design of new technology, failure to provide women with a choice of alternative and failure to establish any viable communication networks at the local level to assess community-level impact*

Fourth, inadequate access to basic services such as, water supply, sanitation, health, education, agricultural extension and income earning opportunities limits women's potential to contribute for food security. Women's illiteracy and low educational attainment deprived them from having opportunities to be employed to sustain food security in the household (World Bank, 1986).

## **2.4 Food Security in Ethiopia**

Globally food security has been well defined from different aspects but, the researcher couldn't find broadly accepted clear definition of food security in Ethiopian context.

Section 4.2.2 of the safety net Program Implementation Manual (PIM), qualifies food insecure households as follows:

- households who have faced continuous food shortages (usually 3 months of food gap or more) in the last 3 years and who have received food assistance prior to the commencement of the PSNP programme,
- households who suddenly become more food insecure as a result of a severe loss of assets and are unable to support themselves for the last 1-2 years, and
- Any household without family support and other means of social protection (MoARD 2006).

Contrary to the global definition of food security which says “*all people at all times have to access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food*”, food shortage for less than three months for two years in a household is tolerable in Ethiopia as per to the above classification.

Degefa (2005) recommended the following definition to better contextualize food security to the Ethiopian case.

*Households can be described as food secure 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.*

Causes of food insecurity in Ethiopia are usually attributed to natural calamities: shortage of rain or high rainfall, frost and pest epidemics. However, different scholars explained it from different perspectives. Yared (2001) explained the causes of food insecurity in three categories, as biophysical, socio-economic and political constraints. Degefa (2002) classify the causes of food insecurity in Ethiopia as environmental problems, demographic factors, economic constraints, infrastructural constraints and social factors. Workneh (2008) categorize the causes of food insecurity into short term and long term structural factors. As to him the frequent drought is take as the short term, while the long term factors include population

growth, environmental degradation, diminishing of land holdings, lack of farm technological innovations and lack of off-farm income sources.

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 & 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, volume 1).

Close examination of the causes for food insecurity reveals that food insecurity and gender inequality are highly interconnected. All problems indicated above are also causes for gender inequality in Ethiopia. It could be said that the persisting gender disparity is one of the causes for food insecurity.

## **2.5 Food Security Related Policies, Strategies and Programs**

It is agreed by many that Food security problems are the result of interrelated socio-economic and environmental factors. Apart from these, Senait (2001), Degefa (2005) and Workneh (2008), argued that government policy failure is the main reason for the persistence of food insecurity in Ethiopia. Workneh emphasized that “lack of appropriate and effective policies and strategies in the last three decades have exacerbated the effects of food insecurity factors in Ethiopia”(Workneh, 2008 p.1). Degefa underscored that “the persistence of famine in Ethiopia especially during the second half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century clearly indicates the policy failure to tackle the root causes of food insecurity” (Degefa, 2005, p 4). Policy failure as a cause for food insecurity was also highlighted by Senait; “judging from the persistence of large food deficits and high rates of malnutrition, it appears that policies pursued have largely been unsuccessful in resolving the problem of food security in Ethiopia”(Senait, 2001,p.63).

There is an indication in the Food Security Strategy that the Government has acknowledged policy failure has impacted the food security status of the country, by saying “policy induced” has resulted in serious and growing problems of food

insecurity in Ethiopia” (FDRE 2003, volume1) and growth of the agriculture sector in Ethiopia was hampered by a series of policy and structural constraints (MoFED, 2006).

### **2.5.1 Policy Frameworks for Food Security in Ethiopia**

Different policy measures have been taken in view of mitigating food security problems in the country. The National Disaster Prevention and Preparedness Strategy was enacted in 1993, and Food Security Strategy was developed in 1996. The strategy was improved and updated in 2002 to make it compatible with the Poverty Reduction Strategy Program (PRSP-1). The country's development policies and strategies are now geared towards eradication of poverty and food insecurity in order to meet the MDGS.

### **2.5.2 Agricultural Led Industrialization (ADLI)**

Ethiopian economy largely depends on agriculture, hence the economic policy; Agricultural Development Led Industrialization (ADLI) is deep-rooted in the development of the rural economy. “Agriculture is found to be the starting point for initiating the structural transformation of the economy” (FDRE 2002, pp.1). Development of agriculture is viewed as an important vehicle for industrialization by providing a market base, as a source of raw material and capital accumulation (FDRE 2001). Through ADLI, it is presumed that conditions for national food self-sufficiency will be created to eradicate poverty.

### **2.5.3 Rural Development Policies and Strategies**

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). “The central plank of the policy was that the country’s over all development was to be agriculture and rural centered while the basis for rural sector was to be agriculture-led development” (Dessaegn, 2008 p.131).

The main objective of the policy is to bring about growth in the agriculture production, to be self-sufficient in food. The policy is based on a number of strategies: increased agricultural extension services, extensive utilization of human labor, sound land management, provision of area specific technological packages, encouragement of production of market oriented farm goods are the major ones (Ibid). Effective utilization of women's and youth's labor is highly emphasized.

#### **2.5.4 National Policy on Ethiopian Women**

The National policy on Ethiopian Women was enacted in 1993, with three main objectives: facilitating conditions for women's human rights and rights to own property, facilitating necessary conditions for rural women to access basic social services to lightening their work-load and to eliminate prejudices as well as customary mal- practices so that women could hold public offices and participate in decision making at all levels (TGE/ OPM 1993).

The policy aims to institutionalize the political, economic and social rights of women by creating an appropriate structure in government offices and institutions so that the public policies and development interventions would be gender sensitive and can ensure equitable and sustainable development of the society.

The policy paves the way for other actions to be taken. The 1995 constitution of Ethiopia guarantees all persons equality before the law, and prohibits any discrimination on grounds of gender. Article 35 ensured women's equal access to economic opportunities including the right to equality in employment and land ownership (FDRE 1995). Other social and legal actions have been taken to promote gender equality. Ethiopia has also signed the United Nations Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) and endorsed the Beijing Plan of Action.

The National Action Plan for Gender Equality (NAP-GE) which was developed for the effective implementation of the Policy was integrated in the PASDEP document. NAP-GE specifies actions to be undertaken by each sector together with indicators. Ethiopia identifies seven priority areas among the Millennium

Development Goals (MDGs) that need to be tackled in order to ensure gender-equitable development, one of which is poverty reduction and economic empowerment of women and girls (MOWA 2007). The NAP-GE clearly specifies the role and constraints of women in securing food for their households and indicates measures to be taken to promote their capacity.

### **2.5.5 Plan for Accelerated Sustained Development to End Poverty**

Plan for Accelerated Sustained Development to End Poverty (PASDEP) is the leading strategy for economic growth and development. PASDEP defined the country's overall strategy for development for five years (2005/06-2009/10). It laid out the major programs and policies and actions to be taken in each of the major sectors with the ultimate objective of eradicating poverty (MoFED,2006). The PASDEP is explicitly supportive to gender mainstreaming and the objectives of gender equality. Gender mainstreaming is one of the eight pillars of PASDEP.

The potential of women in contributing for agricultural development and poverty eradication is highly recognized in PASDEP. It is stated that, to empower rural women “safeguarding rights such as access to land, credit and other productive resources are central to the strategy as is protecting women from the multiple forms of other deprivations” (MoFED 2006, Pp 171).

The main vehicle for improving agriculture is the extension program. Therefore, in view of promoting gender equity and equality in the agricultural development, 2.69 million female headed households and 30% of women in male headed households are targeted for extension service, 30% of membership in cooperatives has been set for women in the PASDEP (MoFED, 2006).

### **2.5.6 Food Security Programs**

Food Security Strategy was developed in 1996, revised in 2002 and under implementation since 2003. The main objective of food security strategy is to ensure food security at household level. The strategy rests on three basic pillars:

- To increase the availability of food through increased domestic production.

- To ensure access to food for food deficit households; and
- To strengthen emergency response capabilities. (FDRE 2002)

The strategy consists of three component resettlement, Productive Safety Net Program (PSNP) and Other Food Security Programs (OFSP).

#### **2.5.6.1 Resettlement**

The resettlement program aimed at accessing fertile land to chronically food insecure households to enable them attain food security. The major objective of the resettlement program is “to enable up to 440,000 chronically food insecure households attain food security through improved access to land” (FDRE 2003, Volume II).

#### **2.5.6.2 Productive Safety Net Program (PSNP)**

PSNP focuses on protecting asset depletion at the household level and asset creation at the community level. The objective of the Program is to “provide transfers to the food insecure population in chronically food insecure woredas in a way that prevents asset depletion at the household level and creates assets at the community level” (MoARD, 2006, p.1).

The implementation of PSNP started in 2005 in 262 woredas targeting 5 million chronic food insecure people (MoARD 2006). PSNP has two components; Public Works (PWs) and Direct Support (DS). Public Works are labor-intensive community activities that are designed to provide employment for able-bodied member in chronically food insecure households to generate income. Those household who are labor-poor mostly FHH, elderly and disabled persons would be provided with resources through Direct Support program. These households will be entitled to unconditional direct transfer of equal amount of cash or food as to the public work beneficiaries (Ibid).

The beneficiaries of the programme are resource-poor and vulnerable to shocks, and often fail to produce enough food even at times of normal rains in the country. The responsibility of protecting these citizens is vested on the Government. Therefore, the Government designed this program to mitigate chronically poor farm

households from starvation and supports them to manage their livelihood shocks. This indicates that the objective of this program is rooted in the principles of social protection.

The program is intended to be a short term one. The beneficiary households are expected to build their own assets and ultimately become self supporting and graduate within five years time. In order to enable them to graduate, PSNP beneficiary households need to be supported by Other Food Security Programs. However, there will be households, especially those benefiting from the Direct Support component that will not be able to graduate (FSCOB 2007).

The Program Implementation Manual (PIM) is a general guide for the implementation of the program. It sets out all the detail provisions that should be followed in the implementation process. It clearly stipulates the rationale for the PSNP, describes the program components, and indicates the institutional arrangements, critical implementation issues, the financial and procurement procedures in which gender concerns are clearly described.

According to the PIM Task Forces should be organized at all levels (Federal, Regional, Woreda and Community) with specific responsibility and duty for effective implementation of the program (MoARD 2006). The PIM provides a focus for mainstreaming gender in the PSNP program and established an appropriate institutional framework for the promotion of gender equity and for meeting the needs of poor women in food insecure agricultural households.

### **2.5.6.3 Food Security Project**

Other Food Security Programs (OFSP) were developed in recognizing that poor households might not be able to get out of food insecurity trap unless supported by other development interventions. Food Security Project is one of those interventions.

The objectives of the project are to build the resources base of poorer rural households, increase their employment and incomes and reduce their real cost of

food, and improve their nutritional levels especially for children under five years of age, pregnant and lactating women (MoARD, 2004). The project is expected to address major underlying causes of food insecurity at the community and household level by providing fund to generate income and build assets.

The project is built on the concept of community-driven development (CDD) approach whereby the communities are given the chance to identify their problems, set priorities, propose solutions, implement and manage resources by making resource allocation decisions with technical support of agricultural experts from the staff of woreda OARD and development agents posted at Kebele levels.

Households have the choice to be engaged in agricultural and/ or non-agricultural income generating activities with the fund provided to them. The project has a target of 25% for women beneficiaries in the project life time (MoARD 2004).

## **2.6 Gender Mainstreaming in Productive Safety Net Program**

The Food Security strategy clearly indicated that the existing gender inequality has a negative impact in achieving food security. It specifies that female headed household (FHH) are found to be more destitute than male headed households (MHH) because development interventions are more likely to benefit MHHs than FHHs. It further pointed out that additional efforts are needed to address the imbalance between male and female beneficiaries of development programs (FDRE, 2003). Community level participatory program design and planning are emphasized as a strategy to address gender issues in food security endeavors.

The PSNP implementation manual (PIM) sets out the framework for gender mainstreaming in the program. The PIM seeks to promote women's participation in public works as laborers and to promote women's voices in the structure of PSNP decision-making at all levels (Federal, Regional, Woreda Kebele and community). Women's sex role is also taken into account, it is clearly declared that pregnant women over 6 months and breastfeeding mothers up to 10 months should be

exempted from labor intensive public works and temporarily transferred to direct support. Pregnant women should be engaged in lighter works within 1km distance from their residence (MoARD 2006).

Women are overburdened with household activities which must be recognized and catered for reducing the number of hours in their working day. PW would be flexible to adopt to women's activities for example late arrival and early leaving for home. Section 4.3.1 of the PIM specify that priority should be given to activities which are assigned to enable women to participate in PW and which contribute to reducing women's regular work burden and increase access to productive assets(Ibid).

The PIM recognized that female headed households are labor poor and should be given priority during targeting. Section 2 of the PIM states that public works can be undertaken on private land owned by labor-poor female-headed households.

Women are also encouraged to assume leadership positions in working teams. The PIM clearly stipulates that, in the process of identifying and prioritizing problems in the community, the utmost care should be paid to women's needs and priorities (Ibid).

## **2.7 Conceptual and Theoretical Frameworks**

Theory guides 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 concept and theories that are basically linked with food security and gender roles. The concept of Empowerment, Social protection and from the feminist theories, Marxist feminist, Liberal feminists and Eco-feminist theories are taken to provide the research with theoretical context.

### 2.7.1 Empowerment

This research is highly linked with the concepts of empowerment. The concept has become popular in the development field, since mid-1980s, especially in relation to women (Moser, 2007). The concept of empowerment is multidimensional which is not easily defined in concrete terms. It gives different meanings to different people based on ones' socio-cultural and political background.

Kabeer define empowerment as “the expansion in people’s ability to make strategic life choices in a context where this ability was previously denied to them” (Kabeer 2001: p. 19). In this definition empowerment entail change from a previous state to a new state of greater freedom or choice.

Rowland, (2006) cited in Gough (2006) defines empowerment as; “the ability to make decisions that affects one’s own life.” He defined empowerment in tri-dimensional ways: **personal**, developing a sense of oneself and self-confidence; **relational**, the ability to negotiate and influence the nature of relations; and **collective**, working together to achieve a greater impact than that which could be achieved through individual effort.

Empowerment is also expressed as “the process of an individual enabling himself to take action and control work and decision making in autonomous ways; the state of feeling self-empowered to take control of one's own destiny”(Heathfield,2010 ). This definition indicates that empowerment is within oneself and a process. Favorable conditions might be created by others which help foster the ability and desire of an individual to act in empowered ways but it is the spiritual and economic strength of the individual or the community that brings about empowerment. On the one hand, empowerment might not come over night; it comes through cumulative changes.

Feminist activists define women’s empowerment in relation to capacity to control over material and intellectual resources, and challenge the ideology of patriarchy and the gender-based discrimination against women in all the institutions and structures of society (Batliwala 1995 cited in Moser, 2007).

Empowerment is multi-dimensional, in that it occurs within sociological, psychological, economic, and political dimensions. Empowerment occurs at various levels, such as individual, group, and community. Empowerment is a social process, it occurs in relationship to others. Empowerment does not occur to the individual alone, but has to do with experiencing a sense of connectedness with other people (Chamberlin, 2010).

Friedmann articulated empowerment in relation to development. He expressed that “Alternative development must be seen as a process that seeks the empowerment of households and their individual members through their involvement in socially and politically relevant actions”(Friedmann 1992 p 33). He further stated that “if poverty is a condition of relative disempowerment with respect to household’s access to specified bases of social power, then a key to the overcoming of mass poverty is the social and political empowerment of the poor” "( Ibid. p iii). The social and political empowerment of the poor as a path to alternative development is highly emphasized by Friedmann. It is true that empowered people take conscious and unyielding steps to improve their own lives which will be a driving force for development.

Friedmann identified eight bases of social power; defensible life space, surplus time, knowledge and skill, appropriate information, social organization, social networks, instruments of work and livelihood, and financial resources. He further asserted that, “social power become available for conversion to political power, and increase in the productive wealth of household’s converts directly to an improvement in their conditions of life and livelihood” (Ibid. p. 85).

Many scholars agreed that measuring empowerment is very complicated, because it involves economic, socio-cultural and psychological issues that cannot be easily captured by limited indicators. The fact that empowerment is “a slow process of change” (Moser, 2007) makes it very hard to measure. Narayana, expressing complexity of measuring empowerment said “one of the biggest challenges in measuring empowerment is that empowerment is a latent phenomenon. Its presence

can only be deduced through its action or its results”(Narayana 2006 p.10). Measuring women’s empowerment will therefore, take time and involves diverse indicators to fully understand the socio- economic and cultural context within which the social interaction and gender relations take place.

Different scholars recommended different approaches and methods of measuring women’s empowerment. Kabeer (1999) suggested a three interrelated dimensions to measure women’s empowerment: The first one is access to resources which she believes is the precondition for empowerment; second is what she called ‘agency’, the ability to use these resources to bring about new opportunities and thirdly, achievements (outcomes).

Malhotra (2003) cited in (Moser, 2007) suggested six dimensions for measuring women’s empowerment: economic, socio-cultural, familial-interpersonal, legal, political and psychological; where each of these in turn is measured at different social levels: individual, the household, community and ‘broader arenas’.

The empowerment of women in the kebeles under study is measured by inducing the economic, social and political dimension indicators. Their access and control over productive resources and household income, their access to employment, credit and market are the economic dimensions. Women’s participation in planning and decision-making in community development activities and their participation in women’s associations to claim their human and legal rights are taken as social and political empowerment. In the psychological dimension, indicators include self-esteem and psychological wellbeing. “Psychological empowerment is often a result of successful actions in the social and political domains” (Friedmann, 1992p. 33).

Most researchers agree combinations of multi-dimensional and multi-level indicators are needed to effectively measure women’s empowerment. Pradhan (2003) suggested that in-depth qualitative methods should be employed in measuring women’s empowerment since purely quantitative indicators may not be sensitive enough to capture the nuance of gender power relations inherent in empowerment processes nor can they measure an individual’s sense of agency or

self-worth. (Pradhan cited in Moser, 2007). In line with the suggestion of Pradhan in-depth qualitative methods, together with household survey were used in this research.

### **2.7.2 Social Protection**

Social protection as an agenda in social policy became popular in the years 1980 and 1990's, following the global reaction to various forms of economic and financial crisis (Barrientos & Hulme (2008). The idea of social protection is contained in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights which was adopted by the United Nations in 1948. Article 25.1 states that,

*Everyone has the right to standard of living for the health and well-being of himself and his family, including food, clothing, housing, and medical care and necessary social services, and the right to security in the event of unemployment, sickness, disability, widowhood, old age, or other lack of livelihood in circumstances beyond his control.*

In order to make these rights meaningful signatory governments have the responsibility to put in place effective and sustainable social policy that could ensure the wellbeing of citizens.

Social protection as defined by UN is, “a set of public and private policies and programs undertaken by societies in response to various contingencies to offset the absence of substantial reduction of income from work to provide assistance to families with children as well as provide people with basic health care and housing”(Barrientos & Hulme , 2008 p.4 )

Asian Development Bank defines social protection as the set of policies and programs designed to reduce poverty and vulnerability by promoting efficient labor markets, diminishing people's exposure to risks, and enhancing their capacity to protect themselves against or cope with hazards and interruption or loss of income (ADB, 2010).

The need for Social Protection policy is increasing especially in most developing countries to reduce vulnerability of citizens. Economies of developing countries are

usually negatively affected by globalization and forced to make structural adjustments in order to qualify for loans and economic aids. The most affected group by these structural adjustments is the poorest section of the society mostly women. Therefore, governments need to introduce sustainable social protection policy to make the poor less vulnerable to risks and to enable them participate in equitable economic growth. “Current interest in social protection among policy-makers developed in the context of the sharp rise in poverty and vulnerability in the 1980s and 1990s” (Barrientos & Hulme, 2008 P.4). Social protection policy is given high profile in most developing countries in order to meet the Millennium Development Goals which is focused on poverty and vulnerability reduction.

Social protection is therefore, another dimension of poverty reduction. This requires that governments employ social protection policies that could open opportunities for all its citizens so that all can participate and benefit from economic growth. Social protection portrays schemes that transfer income or assets to the poor, protect the vulnerable against livelihood risks, and enhance the social status and rights of the marginalized; with the overall objective extending the benefits of economic growth and reducing the economic or social vulnerability of poor, vulnerable and marginalized groups”(Barrientos & Hulme, 2008 P.70)

The Government of Ethiopia formulated a Social Welfare Development Policy in 1996, which targeted mainly children and women. The Food Security Strategy was also developed the same year with the intention of ensuring access to food for food deficit farm households and strengthening emergency responses for the vulnerable group.

### **2.7.3 Feminist theories**

#### **2.7.3.1 Marxist Feminist theory**

Marxist feminists, whose thinking is based on Engels and Marx thoughts, believe that women’s subordination position in society emanates from their economic control. Engles argued that “men’s control of women is rooted in the fact that he,

not she controls the property (Tong 1998: 103). It is very true that women's denial of access and control of productive resources suppress their social and political life.

Engles also said, "If wives are to be emancipated from their husbands, women must first become economically independent of men" (Ibid.). In Ethiopian societies which are predominantly patriarchal, women often hold low social status and exposed to abuse of power because of their economic dependency on men. Land the basic source of wealth for example is in the hands of men.

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" (Ibid, p.95). Women's confinement in domestic activities limits their access to information and understanding of the world. Women in Ethiopia because of their low level of education and most of them being housewives, with tedious household chores do not have time to access information. Most of them do not even know the rights they have been guaranteed by constitution and by other legal provisions.

### **2.7.3.2 Liberal Feminist Theory**

Liberal feminist's thoughts presume sameness between men and women, and asserted that women are able to do what men do, if they have access to what men have in society (Beasley, 1999). Women who participated in the PW in the study kebeles have attest this, women work the same job with the same quality.

Liberal feminists believe that unregulated inequality may lead to overly harsh social outcomes for some who are disadvantaged or less fortunate. Therefore, they advocate for government interventions and actions for women's economic and social equality.

Ethiopian Government has taken different social and legal actions that ensure women's equal access to resources. The constitution guaranteed women to own land. Land Use and Administration Proclamation include provisions that, land should be registered in the name of the couples. Other development programs like

PSNP have given women opportunity for economic access which promotes their economic and social status. Taylor, a liberal feminist, cited in Tong, asserted that,

*Married woman cannot be her husband's true equal 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. (Tong 1998, p.17).*

In the study kebeles, women equally participate in the PW and earn income for their households. Therefore, their role in household decision making has been increased.

### **2.7.3.3 Eco-feminist theory**

Eco-feminism is a theory which focuses on the interconnection between sexism, domination of nature and other social inequality. It states that there is a bond between the oppression of women and the degradation of environment. According to Warren cited in Tong,1998, “the relationship between human beings and nature have been shaped by an oppressive patriarchal conceptual framework, the purpose of which is to explain, justify and maintain relationships of domination and subordination in general and men’s domination of women in particular”(Tong 1998, P 247) . Warren further argued that patriarchal hierarchical, dualistic and oppressive mode of thinking has hammered both women and nature.

The patriarchic domination of nature leads to exhaustion of natural resources which in effect leads to reduction in food production. The theory argues that effect of environmental degradation directly affects women as they have more connection with environment due to gender based division of labour. Women have more contact with environment in the course of discharging their expected ‘responsibilities’ such as food and water supply for family (Gambel, 2001). In the study area deforestation, soil erosion and drought brought about environmental degradation in which women are excessively affected because of the gender division of labor.

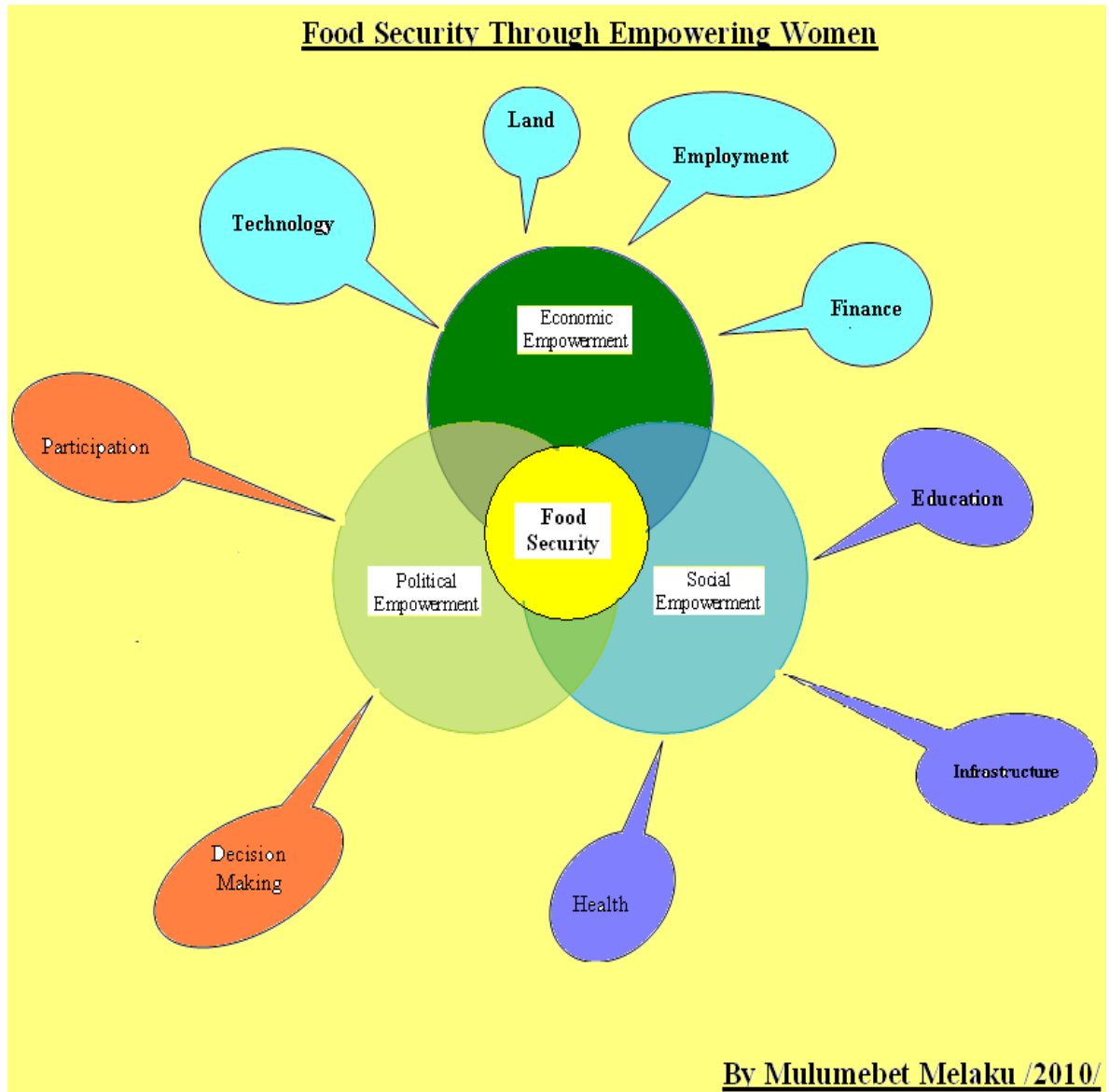
The above conceptual and theoretical frameworks have been used to explain and interpret the findings of the study as only one perspective can not fully explain the whole situation. This is because the subject under study involves multi facet interrelated economic, socio-cultural and environmental issues.

## **2.8 Framework: Food Security through Empowering Women**

Sustainable food security demands economic, social and political empowerment of women. The Framework charted out in the next page shows major components of women empowerment in food security. The major inputs for each aspects of empowerment are directed to the respective circles. Overlapping of these three circles indicates their interconnection and interdependent. Their intersection at the center shows the striking balance for food security, in other words sustainable development.

Women's access and control over productive resources (land, technology, finance and employment) is the base in the process of building up their economic status. Their access to education, health and infrastructures (road, potable water, electricity, communications etc) promotes not only their social empowerment, but also economic empowerment. Participation in community development and decision making at the household level enhances women's social and political empowerment. The inter-relationship and interaction between these three factors ensures women's empowerment which leads to sustained food security.

**Figure 1**



## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **3 METHODOLOGY AND THE STUDY AREA**

#### **3.1 Research Methods**

Qualitative and quantitative research methods were employed in the collection and analysis of data. Using both qualitative and quantitative approaches together yields more than the sum of two approaches used independently (Devereux et al, 2003). The researcher was able to produce hard 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 gender relations and other issues which are not easily captured by quantitative methods. The combination of the quantitative and qualitative methods enabled the researcher to triangulate the results.

##### **3.1.1 Qualitative Methods**

Qualitative methods involve the use of varied empirical resources such as; case studies, life stories, key informant interviews and 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 explore deeply the experiences and perceptions of participants. It also allowed participants to articulate their life experiences in their own view and language.

##### **3.1.2 Quantitative Methods**

In the quantitative method, questionnaire was used as a data collection tool. The questionnaire was instrumental to collect household demographic information; to assess women's access to and control over resources, assets created at household level; to understand the causes for women's vulnerability to food insecurity and their coping mechanisms. The quantitative method was also used to assess the implementation of PIM gender provisions in the study kebeles.

### **3.2 Data Source and Methods of Data Collection**

Data was generated from both primary and secondary sources. This has helped the researcher to examine the implementation processes of PSNP and broaden understanding of gender relations in the study area. By the primary sources it was possible to get first hand information and opinions of research participants who are close to the subject under study. The data obtained from different secondary sources were utilized to deepen understanding and ascertain the primary data

#### **3.2.1 Primary data Collection Methods**

Primary data was generated through, questionnaire, key informant interview, case studies, focus group discussions and observation.

##### **Questionnaire (House Hold Survey)**

Questionnaire was developed to generate a primary quantitative data. The questionnaire consists of 5 parts which contains 75 questions (Annex I). The main purpose of the questionnaire was to collect the necessary data from the sampled population about the economic and social conditions of female household heads and women in male headed households before and after being beneficiaries of the food security programs. The questionnaire contains both closed and open ended type of questions.

The survey was conducted on the selected 263 households (136 FHH and 127 MHH). The researcher was assisted by three enumerators who were briefed about the objective of the research and content of the survey before being engaged in the actual work. The enumerators were selected from development agents and teachers working in non- sample kebeles based on their experience in the area and communication skill.

##### **Key informant Interview**

Interview 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 people and the implementation of the program in the woreda as the interview was conducted by the researcher herself. Interview was conducted using developed interview guide

(Annex II) and most of the interviews were tape-recorded, with full consent of the interviewees.

The interview with agricultural experts and development agents was to assess women's access to credit and agricultural extension services. The interview with food security program implementers was undertaken to assess if gender concerns are addressed as it is provided in the PIM and to investigate the status of women beneficiaries, the level of their participation in PW, in planning and decision making of the community development activities. Kebele Managers and Land Administration unit heads were interviewed to investigate women's access to land. Women's Affairs head and experts were interviewed to assess their role and contribution for effective implementation of the food security program and women's empowerment in food security. The interview with men (husbands) was conducted to understand the attitude of the community towards women's empowerment. The profile of interviewees is shown in Annex III.

#### **Focus Group Discussion (FGD)**

Six focus group discussions were held, three in each kebele aiming at three main purposes. One was to assess the challenges and opportunities of women in securing food. Secondly, to assess the effectiveness of the food security program in enabling women to access resources for securing food in their households sustainably. Thirdly, to assess opinions of women themselves and of the community towards women's economic and social empowerment. Focus group discussions guide is in Annex II.

FGDs were conducted separately with female household heads, women in MHH, and men (husbands) in both kebeles. In shilafaf Kebele 8 female household heads, 10 married women and 13 men (husbands) participated in the FGD. The discussion was held in the OARD in the Kebele for two days. The focus group discussion in Faji Kebele was held in the compound of Farmers Training Center (FTC). The participants were; 11 female household heads, 9 married women and 12 men. In total 63 people participated in the six FGDs.

### **Case Studies/In-depth interview**

The case study was conducted to deeply comprehend women's effort and constraints to secure food for their households. It was also to assess their coping strategies 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 psychological and social empowerment of women. Five case studies were undertaken, two of which are presented.

### **3.2.2 Secondary data sources**

Secondary sources, such as, books, journal articles, web sites, were reviewed to understand the concept of food security and identify women's role in food security. Policy documents, unpublished reports and statistical information were assessed to identify policy frameworks that promote women's empowerment in food security. Reports and other archival documents such as register books, directives, minutes of FSTF meeting, correspondences of the woreda and the kebeles under study were used to supplement the primary data.

### **3.2.3 Observation**



*Women selling local drink "Arekie"*

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 and the food security conditions in the Woreda. 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.

The discussion with women while the researcher was conducting training on Assertiveness and Leadership for women civil servants in Dogolo, the capital of the woreda gave further insight of the socio economic status of women in the woreda.



*Women Civil Servants on Training*

### **3.3 Sampling procedure**

Purposive and convenience sampling methods were employed to select the survey areas (kebeles) as well as participants in the research. Sampling of the Kebeles was done in consultation with the Woreda Office of Agriculture and Rural Development and based on agreed criteria.

All the 23 kebeles in Jamma are under the food security program; two Kebeles were selected among them. The kebeles (Shilafaf and Faji) were purposively picked up for their representativeness in agro-climatic condition, severity of the food insecurity problem, and number of beneficiaries. Distances from the Woreda capital and market accessibility were also additional criteria.

The sample frame of the research was women beneficiaries of PSNP. An effort was made to make the sample a precise representative of the research population. With the premise: higher sample size makes good representation, the researcher tried to take as high sample size as conditions permit. Women beneficiaries of the program are not homogenous therefore, they were stratified into housewives (women in MHH) and heads of households from which samples were selected.

The selection was simple random by convenience. It was simple random in that they were picked arbitrarily to represent the *Gotts* and it is by convenience because only those who volunteered were considered. A total of 263 women (136 FHH and 127 women in MHH) were selected for the household survey. Key informants were selected purposively, based on their closeness for the appropriate information. Focus group discussions were conducted on voluntary bases.

### **3.4 Ethical Considerations**

Ethics was a concern of a researcher while planning, designing, conducting and writing the research report. Implication and consequences of the research on participants' physiological, psychological, social, political, religious, cultural and economic life should be seriously considered (Punch, 1994). In view of this, the researcher was committed to ethical principles.

The legal ground for the research was obtained from Institute of Gender Studies by a letter to all concerned bodies. MOARD was approached for cooperation. Considering the researcher's time and financial constraints, the Food Security Coordination Bureau in the Ministry (FSCOB) communicated the region by telephone for allowing the researcher to go directly to Jamma Woreda. With the Region's consent, FSOB again communicated the OARD and the Administration of Jamma Woreda to explain the nature and aim of the research and requesting for the Woreda's assistance to the researcher.

The Kebeles selected for the study were informed by the Woreda administration. PSNP beneficiaries in the selected kebeles were communicated through the Kebele agricultural extension supervisors. A briefing on the purpose and methods of the research was given to the beneficiaries in a gathering at FTCs. The researcher confirmed the confidentiality of the information they provide in the research process and their consent was asked. Those who volunteered to participate were listed for interview, focus group discussion and household survey based on their preferences.

The researcher also gave due consideration to feminist ethical consideration; minimization of the power relation between the researcher and the researched. Although it might not be totally possible; consciously an effort was made to minimize those effects. The interview and FGD were conducted using a guide, and the participants were let to speak out freely without interruption. While transcribing the tape-recorded interview and FGDs the researcher stick to what had been said rather than giving own meanings.

### **3.5 Description of the Research Area**

The Amhara National Regional State has an area of 170,150 Km<sup>2</sup> and is a home for a total population of 19,128,872 of which 9,585,646 are male and 9,543,224 are female. Administratively it is divided into 11 zones and 113 Woredas. The three basic agro ecological zones of the region are *Dega*, *Woyina-Dega* and *Kolla*. The dominant economic activity for the region is mainly agriculture followed by industry and the service sector. The rural population of the region earns a living from mixed agriculture: farming and livestock production (BoFED, 2006).

Amhara regional state is the most affected by food insecurity in Ethiopia. Among the 113 woredas in the region 64 (57%) are registered as chronically food insecure. Following the declaration of national Food Security Strategy, the region started implementing different food security programs. One of these programs is the PSNP, which is being implemented in the aforementioned 64 woredas, where the area under study, Jamma woreda is one of them.

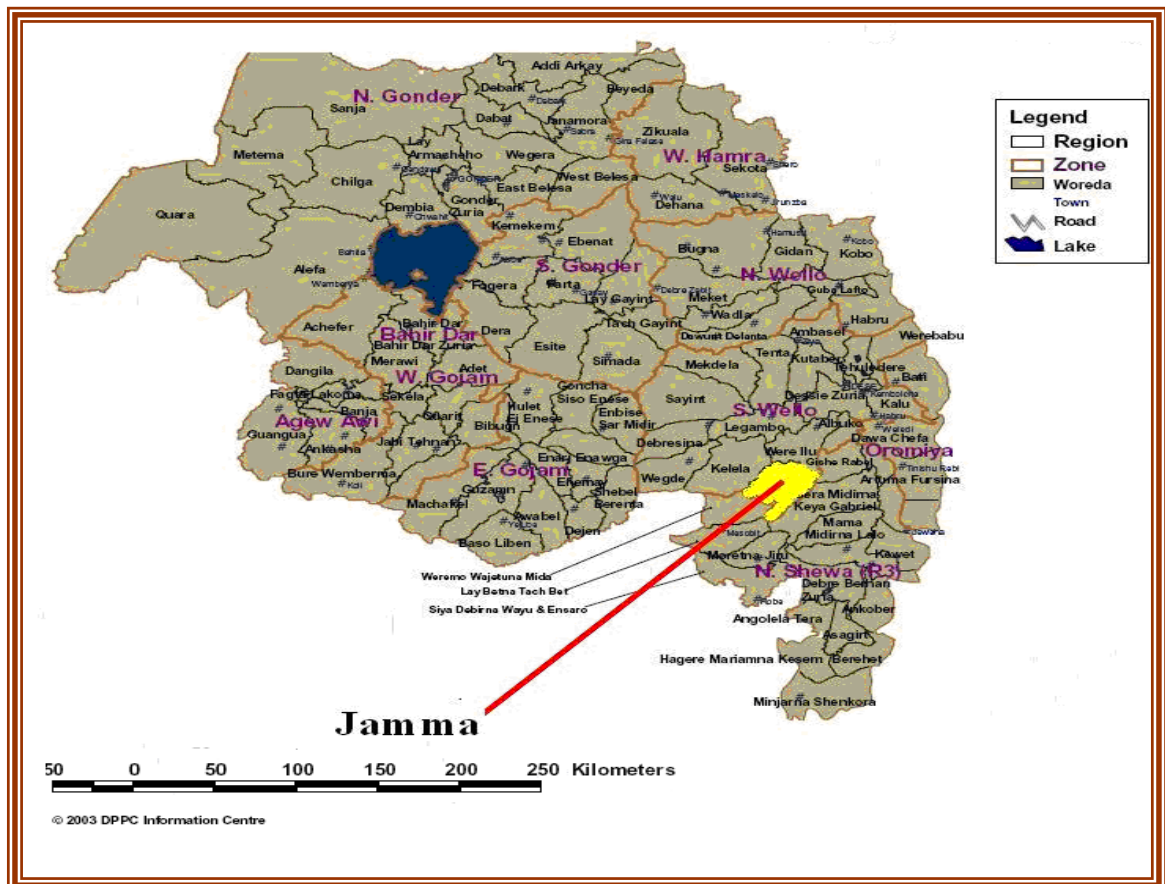
This research was conducted in Jamma Woreda, South Wollo Zone, Amhara Regional State. Jamma has been selected as a study area because it is one of the food insecure areas where the food security program is being undertaken. The information obtained through reports indicates that Jamma woreda is one of the places where PSNP is well implemented. The information from report & the geographical vicinity of the woreda aroused the researcher's interest to take the woreda as a study site.

The woreda has an area of 26,683 hectares with a total population of 127,467; 64024 women and 63443 men (CSA, 2008). The altitude ranges between 1600-2776 meters above sea level. It consist three agro-climatic zones: *Dega*, *Woynadega* and *Kolla*, which comprise about 51.7%, 39.2% and 9.1% of the area, respectively (OARD, 2009). The woreda is bordered by Woreilu in the north, Kelala northwest Mida in the south, Gishe Rabel in north east, Gera Mider and Keya Gebrieal in the east. The people are engaged in mixed farming, crop production and livestock breeding.

The woreda is connected with other adjacent woredas with all weather gravel roads and the kebeles in the woreda are connected by rural feeder roads. There are 27 health centers and one preparatory, one high school, 54 elementary schools and 12 satellites (nursery) schools in the woreda. Only the woreda town Dogolo has eclectic power and pipe water supply but without bank service. There is daily public transport to Woreilu and Dessie and twice a week to Addis Ababa.

The selected kebeles for the research are named Shilafaf (Kebele 15) and Faji (kebele 09). Shilafaf is 12.5 kilometers away from the woreda town with an area of 5949 hectares and population of 7862 (3248 female and 4614 male). It is among the *Kolla* agro-climatic zones. Faji represents the *Dega* agro-climatic zones, with an area of 6525 hectares and a total population of 8431(4124 female and 4307 male). Faji is 13.5 kilometer away form the woreda town Dogolo.

**Figure 2. Location of Jamma Woreda in Amhara Regional State**



### **3.6 Data Analysis**

Both qualitative and quantitative methods were utilized in data analysis as in the data collection. The qualitative data collected through different instruments 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. Statistical Packages for Social Scientists (SPSS) was used to facilitate the quantitative analysis.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **4 FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS**

#### **4.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents the key findings of the study produced by different data processing and analysis methods. Statistical Program for Social Science (SPSS), Spreadsheet and qualitative data analysis techniques were used in producing the results. The overall findings have been presented with respect to the gender sensitivity of the PSNP implementation process and its effects in empowering women in the selected kebeles.

#### **4.2 Respondent's Socio-Demographic Facts**

##### **4.2.1 Age and Marital status**

The household survey participants were women: 127 from MHH and 136 FHH. Women from the FHH fall under four different categories: single (11), divorced (74), widowed (47) and separated (4) (Annex Table 5). The respondents' age ranges from 18 to 75, where the majority (64%) are between 25 and 50. The total number of the respondents' family members is 1090, with an average of about 4 family members per household. It is found out that the younger couples tend to limit the number of children which shows that they understand the effect of family size on food security.

##### **4.2.2 Educational Background**

The survey result shows that the majority of the respondents (61.2%) from the total are illiterate (Faji 42.9% and Shilafaf 57.1%). Those who can read and write are 15.6% and only 23.2% have got formal education as shown in Annex Table 6. Illiteracy and low level of educational status had kept women in a disadvantaged position in every aspect of their livelihood. This was the result of the community's previous attitude on girls' education though it is dramatically changed at present.

Education is one of the tools for development and generation of empowerment. People would be socially empowered when they get access to information, knowledge and skill. Women in Ethiopia for different socio-cultural and economic reasons have less access to education and information which affects their social and economic status.

PSNP has given due emphasis to training for effective implementation of the program. On-the-job training is provided for all beneficiaries to develop their skill and knowledge to ensure that the planned works are carried out according to technical standards. The PIM specifies that priority be given to women and encouraged them for training as they lack experience and skill.

In the kebeles under study women's opportunity for different capacity building trainings through PSNP helped them to develop skill and knowledge that enhanced their self-confidence to make decision on their life, claims their rights and react not to accept dominance. Most discussants and interviewees confirmed that the knowledge and skill they developed through PSNP trainings, helped them to be efficient in the PWs and in other productive activities. They also stated that they became more aware of nutrition requirements and health of the family which promotes the food security status of their households. Informed women have a positive impact on food security of their households.

Women, who recognized the fact that their illiteracy has affected their personal and family life, are determined to educate their children by sacrificing their needs. This has been confirmed by interviewees and discussants that send their children to school at the age of six. Women are taking a conscious step to empower the next generation.

### 4.3 Women's challenges and Coping Mechanisms During Food Crisis

In Jamma, food shortage has become apparent for the last 10 years due to frequent drought in most parts and frost (*wurch*) in some part of the woreda. This brought substantial decrease in agricultural production that lead to food shortage in the Woreda. The drought affected the community economically, socially and psychologically. Virtually all interviewees and discussants asserted that they remained empty handed and unable to feed their families any more. As a result they were forced to consume whatever they had.

It is natural for people to positively or negatively react for any change in their livelihood. However, experience and coping mechanisms may vary according to the socio-cultural and environmental condition of the society. The coping mechanisms undertaken by the respondents are shown in Table1.

**Table 1 Measures taken at time of Food Shortage: Coping strategies**

Coping strategies	Households					
	MHH		FHH		Total	*Percentage from Total
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage		
Intensify household food production	45	54.22	38	45.78	83	31.56
Rent the land-out	29	40.85	42	59.15	71	27.00
Sale livestock products	38	47.50	42	52.50	80	30.42
Engaged in petty trading activities	59	44.36	74	55.64	133	50.57
Borrow money and grain form relatives	56	44.80	69	55.20	125	47.53
Sale personal and household valuables	18	52.94	16	47.06	34	12.93
Sale personal labor	29	52.73	26	47.27	55	20.91
Eat less preferred foods	50	48.08	54	51.92	104	39.54
Reducing number of meals	46	46.94	52	53.06	98	37.26
Send children to vicinal towns for job	20	37.04	34	62.96	54	20.53
Eat the reserve for seed	20	40.82	29	59.18	49	18.63
Selling farm tools	17	50.00	17	50.00	34	12.93
Migrate to town for begging	9	64.29	5	35.71	14	5.32
Waite for aid from the government	65	54.17	55	45.83	120	45.63
Others	7	29.17	17	70.83	24	9.13

Note: One can give multiple responses

- The total percentage is calculated from the total respondents

The time of food shortage is challenging to women especially to FHH in order to feed their families. They were forced to do anything using all possible means. They were forced to rent their land with a minimum price (59.2%), sale their personal labour and try to get loan from others. About 63% of them have sent their children to the near by town to search for a job while only 37. % of MHH did the same thing (Table 1).

In the MHH, when the problem gets worse men usually tend to move to other places in search of job, while women remain at home taking care of their children and elderly family members with empty hands. During FGD there were three women who confirmed that they had such experience. All women interviewees and discussants confirmed that they were socially degraded and psychologically humiliated by the crises.

The focus group discussion with women in MHH revealed that during the time of food shortage they were the first to be engaged in some other activities. They emphasized that their responsibility as a mother forced them to do any thing that enable them generate income to buy food for their children. They stated that they were the most affected at the time of food crisis. They faced psychological stress by the persistent demands of their children for food, and observing them starving; as one of them expressed it; *“it is not as simple as you imagine seeing a starving child in your hand; you might wish to commit suicide by jumping into a river.”*



*Focus Group Discussion, Women in MHH*

At time of food shortage women’s work burden increased in striving to save their family’s lives, as they would be engaged in various income generating activities. They also become physically weak since they eat less nutritious food (39.5%) and

reduce their number of meals (37.3%) in order to give priority to children and elders (Table 1).

Women in the kebeles under study have limited alternatives to generate income at times of food crisis, as the area is far from towns where they could look for alternative jobs. More than half of the respondents (50.6%) were engaged in other non-agricultural income generating activities like brewing local drinks and wawering as coping mechanism. They usually travel about 13-15 kilometers to the woreda town, Dogolo, to sell their products. The details of actions taken as coping mechanisms are enumerated in Table 1. Among those who have been engaged in petty trading activities FHH constitute the majority, about 56% while women in MHH are about 44%.

Still many households are engaged in many other activities to increase their income to get out from food insecurity problems. The survey data shows that 84.4% of the households are engaged in non-farm activities out of which the majorities (53%) are FHH. About 44% women in MHH engaged in other income generating activities, while men constitute only 10%. About 40% of the respondents are engaged in brewing local drinks (Annex Tables 2 & 3). Most interviewees and discussants women confirmed that they have limited alternative to supplement their income.

#### **4.4 Productive Safety Net Program (PSNP) in Jamma**

The PSNP implementation in the Woreda started in January 2005. The program consists of two components: Public Works (PW) and Direct Support (DS). The responsible body for the implementation of the program is structured under the woreda's Office of Agriculture and Rural Development.

The Food Security Task Forces (FSTF) at the woreda and Kebele level oversee the PSNP. The Woreda Food Security Task Force (WFSTF) which consists of 12 members, chaired by the woreda Administrator is accountable to the Woreda Council. Members of the task force are representatives from different offices of the Woreda Administration: Finance, Natural Resources Office, Capacity Building, Agriculture and Rural Development, Women's Affairs and NGOs. Head of the Food Security

Unit is the secretary of the task force. The task force prepares and consolidates the annual safety net budget plans and submits proposals to the Woreda Council for resource allocation.

The Kebele Food Security Task Force (KFSTF) is responsible for planning and follow-up of the implementation of the PSNP activities at the Kebele level. The task force members are: the Chairperson of the Kebele council, one member from the Kebele Council, one or more DAs, three elected women, representatives from elders and youth. The Kebele Council/Cabinet is the highest political decision-making body in the Kebele. Its responsibility includes creating a favorable ground for proper implementation of the program and ensures that the PSNP is linked and consistent with other food security programs.

The Community Food Security Task Force (CFSTF) is the lowest organ in the Food Security Structure. Its primary responsibilities are identification (targeting) of beneficiaries for PSNP and mobilization of the community for participatory planning of the PW. CFSTF consists of a representative from the KFSTF, one DA, two or three women's representatives, two or three representing men, one person from the youth and a representative from elders. An Appeals Committee (AC) is established with the intention of providing a window for community members to express their grievances about the targeting process and others. The committee is accountable to the Kebele Council, it also reports to the Woreda Agricultural and Rural Development Office. In AC one or more women should be represented.

**Table 4 FSTF & AC at the Woreda and Study Kebeles**

		Woreda	Faji (Kebele 09)	Shilafaf (Kebele 15)
1	FSTF members			
	• Women	1	1	3
	• Men	11	8	4
	<b>Total</b>	12	9	7
2	Appeal Committee members			
	• Women	-----	1	1
	• Men	-----	3	4
	<b>Total</b>		4	5

Source: Woreda & Kebele Administration Archive, compiled February, 2010

The program is being implemented in all the 23 kebeles of the Woreda and supports a total of 8405 households. Out of these 6837 households (2553 FHH and 4284 MHH) are the PW beneficiaries and the remaining 1567 are (1047 FHH and 520 MHH) are that of DS. A total of 29,793 people (15391 female and 14402 male) benefited from the program (OARD, 2010).

As mentioned earlier PSNP has two objectives, decreasing asset depletion at the household level and enhancing asset creation at the community level. There are a number of community development works performed under the PW in the woreda. The highest priority was given to soil and water conservation and afforestation activities. The report from the Woreda administration shows that 1299 km of terracing, 29.3 km of trenching, 54.75 km of flood diversion canals were constructed and about 18, 843,538 different types' of trees are planted (Ibid.).

The Second highest priority was given to road construction. 175 km rural feeder roads have been constructed to connect 15 kebeles and maintenance of 280 km of roads has been done. A total of 24 new primary and pre-primary schools (nursery) and a health center have been built. 14 primary schools and 6 health centers were repaired. Building and improving of water wells are other activities being considered in the PWs. Nine potable water wells were built, 12 spring water wells were improved and 780 boreholes were developed (Ibid).

Under the PSNP program beneficiary households supported by OFSP, are expected to create assets and graduate within a short period of time. The Graduation Guidance Note produced by Food Security Co-ordination Bureau (FSCOB) of MoARD in December 2007, which sets out the indicators and criteria for graduation from PSNP, is gender neutral. Introductory part of the Guidance Note states that it should be read in conjunction with the PIM. However, the guidance note also states that "... in the case that there are contradictions between this Guidance Note and the PIM, the reader should refer to this Guidance Note" (FSCOB, 2007, P.2). This implies that the Guidance note is not taking into account the gender sensitive provisions in the PIM.

The responsibility of identifying the food security status of households for graduation is given to the CFSTF. The Task Force registers the assets for households and reports without considering the gender difference. Graduation is a two-stage process and of two types. The first stage is graduating from the PSNP and the second one is from OFSP. A household graduates from the PSNP, when it is in a position to meet its annual food needs and able to withstand modest shocks. This implies that the household has improved its food security status and labelled as 'Food Sufficient' (FSCOB, 2007)

In the Woreda, a household is considered as food sufficient, and eligible to graduate when it attains the benchmark; a minimum annual income of Birr 4200 per person. Self graduation is also possible. In the PWs each eligible person within a household is allowed to work for 5 days per month and earns Birr 60. When a household feels that it is able to generate more income by being engaged in activities other than PW, they could leave the PWs voluntarily.

There were two rounds of PSNP graduations in the woreda. The first one was in 2008 where a total of 173 households (35 FHH and 138 MHH) were graduated and the second in 2009, 979 (105 FHH and 874 MHH) graduated (OARD 2010). In 2009, 20 FHH graduated from the two Kebeles (9 from Faji and 11 from Shilafaf). FHHs graduates have complained that they are targeted for graduations before they accumulate adequate assets to sustain their household food security. The researcher met five women (two from Faji and three from Shilafaf) who appealed for retargeting.

More than half of the beneficiaries of the PSNP (54.8%) are supported by OFSP to augment asset building. Credit is provided to those households against approved project proposals in connection with agriculture (fattening, sheep/goat rearing, etc) and non-farm activities (handicrafts, petty trading, etc). Graduated Households remain eligible for OFSP interventions and get priority to enable them continue the process of household asset-building to sustain the household food security.

## 4.5 Access to productive Resources: Economic Empowerment Factors

Empowerment implies control over resources and decisions. Kabeer (1999) asserted that access to productive resources is the precondition for empowerment. When people accessed to resources they will be motivated to produce more to get out of poverty and ensure food security. This has been proven by many women in the kebeles under study.

### 4.5.1 Access and Control over Land

Access to land is critical for ensuring food security in an agrarian society. Limited access to land is the major factor for women to be more vulnerable to food insecurity. The 1995 Constitution guarantees women in Ethiopia to equally use, transfer, administer, and control land. The constitution also ensured women's equal right of sharing the land in case of divorce and inheritance.

In the woreda, land was used to be registered only in the name of the household head, male in most cases. The 1996 land redistribution in the Amhara region created more opportunity for women to access and control 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 are entitled to have the certificate in their own name.

The study shows that 77.6% of the respondents have got their own land-use right, through different conditions. Most of them (65.8%) got land through land redistribution, 21.2% through parents' inheritance and 10% through spouses (Annex Table 9). Table 7 shows the land holding status of respondents disaggregated by marital status.

**Table 7 Respondents Land Holding Status**

Responses	Marital Status				Total	
	FHH		Women in MHH			
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Yes	115	42.8	89	33.8	204	77.6

No	21	8	38	14.4	59	22.4
Total	136	50.8	127	48.2	263	100

Currently one can say that women in Jamma woreda are in a better position than before in accessing and utilizing land. The kebele administrations are still providing Land-use Right Certificates to households, Table 8 shows households with land use certificate in the Kebeles under study.

**Table 8 Households with Land Certificate in Faji and Shilafaf**

<b>Farm Households with land certificate</b>	<b>Faji (Kebele 09)</b>	<b>Shilafaf (Kebele 15)</b>	<b>Total</b>
Female Headed	670	431	1101
Male Headed*	1461	216	1677
Both (Spouses)	730	883	1613
Total	2861	1530	4391

Source: *Kebele Administration Archives, Compiled February, 2010*

\* *Couples, the land-use certificate registered only in the husband's name*

The data in Table 8 shows that women are still in a disadvantaged position in gaining access to land. Majority of the households resisted to include the name of their wives in the land-use certificate. The data from the FGD and interview implies that most of the women were excluded from the registration on conscious planned activities of husbands in collaboration with some corrupted people in the administration. The key informants replied, “*it is difficult to force a man to include the name of his wife once the land is registered in his name.*” This implies the attitudinal rigidity of implementers is still there.

The average household land holding in Jamma woreda is estimated to be 1.78 hectares (OARD, 2009). The Land Administration Unit heads in both kebeles claimed that the land was redistributed fairly to both women and men but in the FGD and interview FHH complained that their holdings are much smaller in size as compared to those of men.

#### **4.5.2 Access to Agricultural Extension Services**

One of the major reasons for women’s vulnerability in food insecurity is their limited access to agricultural extension and appropriate technology services. The

Government has developed a strategy to extend the agricultural extension more effectively by building farmers training centers (FTCs) in each kebele and assigning three development agents (DAs) in each FTC. Both kebeles have built FTCs. The FTCs are built from corrugated iron sheet and poorly equipped; there are no benches to sit on in order to make the training convenient. In both kebeles the area of the FTCs is very small which is not enough for demonstration. Until now there is no demonstration work done in the FTCs.

The agricultural extension supervisors in both Kebeles emphasized that they regularly organize trainings on a quarterly bases on crop production, animal husbandry and natural resource extension packages for all farm households and attention was given for both FHHs and women in MHHs to meet the PASDEP target.

Nevertheless, the study found out that almost half (49.8%) of the respondents (54.2% FHH and 45.8% women in MHH) didn't have access to agricultural extension services.

**Table 10 Access to agricultural extension by Marital Status**

Responses	Marital Status				Total	
	FHH		Women in MHH			
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Yes	65	48.9	67	50.8	132	50.2
No	71	54.2	60	45.8	131	49.8
Total	136	51.7	127	48.2	263	100.0

As confirmed during the FGDs, FHHs fail to participate in the agricultural extension programs because they usually rent or crop-share their land and lack of financial (credit) access hinders them to use new technologies such as improved seeds, fertilizers and pesticides. Access to agricultural extension varies among the kebeles under study, 63.6% in Faji and 37.3% in Shilafaf.

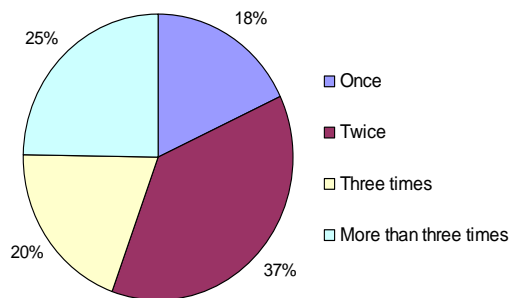
The issue of women's participation in agricultural extension training was a point of hot debate during men's FGD in Shilafaf kebele. More than half of the discussants

believed that women’s full participation in the agricultural extension has a positive impact to ensure food security. The remaining discussants believes that, training for

women is wastage of time and adding burden to them, since most of the times they may be pregnant or lactating. The discussants boldly state that women’s participation in agricultural training programs doesn’t add any value to the agricultural production. Men in Shilafaf kebele tide with traditional thinking puts pressure on their wives which hinders women from getting access to appropriate resources that could enhance their capacity to ensure food security. This shows that how the entrenched social norms negatively affect women’s access to resources and their economic and social empowerment.

The household survey data confirmed the opinions of the discussants about 63% women in Shilafaf didn’t participate in agricultural extension trainings in the last two years while women’s participation in Faji is 63.6% (Annex Table11).

**Figure 3 Frequency of Agricultural Extension Training**



This figure shows trainings attended by those who had access to agricultural extension service in the years 2008 and 2009. Frequent capacity building trainings were organized for guiding PW and OFSP

beneficiaries in which women’s participation is more. Both FHH and women in MHH participate in these briefings and trainings as it is a must to receive the guides and the skill to remain eligible. The PIM states that training priority should be given to women as they lack skills and practical work experience. Virtually all interviewee and discussant women confirmed that they had benefited from these trainings. They asserted that they get information and develop their skill from the briefings and on the job trainings. They said, “*These are an eye opener for us.*”

### 4.5.3 Access to Technology

#### 4.5.3.1 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. The advantage of using fertilizer and improved seeds to increase agricultural production is recognized by all who participated in this study. However, 59.2% of the respondents (Table 12) don't use modern agricultural inputs. Among these 67.6% couldn't use modern agricultural inputs because of the unaffordable cost and 9.4% because of unavailability of the input (Table 13).

**Table 12 Access to Agricultural Inputs**

Responses	Marital Status				Total	
	FHH		Women in MHH			
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Yes	35	38.8	55	61.1	90	40.7
No	79	60.2	52	39.7	131	59.2
Total	114	51.6	107	48.1	221	100

About 59% of FHH and 41.5 % of MHH couldn't use inputs because of high price (Table 13). This shows that FHHs are highly affected by the expensive price of inputs. More than half of interviewees and discussants usually allot certain amount of their income from PSNP to purchase inputs.

**Table 13 Reason for not using modern agricultural input**

Responses	Marital Status				Total	
	FHH		Women in MHH			
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Unavailability	8	61.5	5	38.5	13	9.4
The price is high	55	58.6	39	41.5	94	67.6
I don't need	15	53.6	13	46.4	28	20.1
Others	2	50.0	2	50.0	4	2.9
Total	59	42.4	80	57.5	139	100

#### 4.5.3.2 Improved Household Technologies

Eco-feminists argue that women are more affected by natural resource exhaustion because of their responsibility to provide food for the household due to gender based division of labour. Women in the kebeles under study are challenged by environmental degradation and spend much of their time in fire wood collection and fetching water from far places. The problem is severe in Shilafaf as it is in the lowland (*kolla*) agro ecological zone. This has affected women's efficiency in productive activities.



*A girl Child going back home  
Collecting Firewood*

In both Kebeles, the common source of energy for cooking is animal dung and firewood. Most of the respondents (70.3%) don't use energy saving stoves either for cooking and baking "*Injera*" because of the limited access to the technology. Among those who use energy saving stoves the majority (62.8%) are from Faji. The technology would have been very helpful for women in Shilafaf as they suffer from fire wood shortage but only 39.5% have access to the energy saving stoves (Annex Table14). The extension of this technology would have been of double benefit in that it would reduce deforestation and women's work burden. The survey data shows that more FHH (17.2%) use the technology than MHH (14.4%). As confirmed in the FGD women in MHH need to have the consent of their husbands to buy the technology whereas the FHH do it at their own discretion.

#### 4.5.4 Access to PSNP Resources

##### 4.5.4.1 Identification of Beneficiaries (Targeting)

The PSNP has given special consideration to FHH, recognizing the fact that they are resource poor and more vulnerable to food insecurity shocks. The PIM stipulates that special attention should be given to labor poor FHHs in the identification process and be included in the Direct Support component of the program.

The targeting process starts at the community level called “*Gott*”, verified by the KFSTF and endorsed by the Administration. The study result shows that 41.5% of the respondents agreed on the point that special attention was given to FHHs at time of targeting, whereas 30.4% don’t agree and the other 28.1% replied that they were not aware of the fact. Equal percentage of FHH and women in MHH (15.2%) responded that there was no special consideration for FHHs. Table 1 shows the details.

**Table 15 Special consideration for FHH in Targeting**

Marital Status		Yes	No	To some extent	I do not know	Total
Married	Count	26	40	24	37	127
	%	9.9%	15.2%	9.1%	14.1%	48.3%
Single	Count	6	3	1	1	11
	%	2.3%	1.1%	.4%	.4%	4.2%
Divorced	Count	17	22	15	20	74
	%	6.5%	8.4%	5.7%	7.6%	28.1%
Widow	Count	8	11	12	16	47
	%	3.0%	4.2%	4.6%	6.1%	17.9%
Separated	Count	0	4	0	0	4
	%	.0%	1.5%	.0%	.0%	1.5%
Total	Count	57	80	52	74	263
	%	21.7%	30.4%	19.8%	28.1%	100.0%

In the process of targeting there was a high possibility of exclusion of the needy and inclusion of the non eligible for different reasons. Especially FHH might be excluded during screening as they lack the awareness and capacity to challenge the process. Though, there was no well documented data in both kebeles, it has been observed that there were many complaints. About 42% of the respondents confirmed that there were complaints in general and 40% know that FHH appealed to the committee for being excluded from the list of beneficiaries. More than 23% of the respondents know that the applicants were included in the beneficiary list after appealing to the committee and 14% responded that no action was taken while 36% do not know what has been done. The rest never knew that there was a right to appeal to the committee (Annex Table 16).

In the FGD the issue of targeting was very controversial. Almost all men discussants believed that FHH were extremely favored at the expense of men, while women discussants stated that ‘though it seems in words it was not to the fullest extent’.

The KFSTF asserted that the maximum care has been taken not to exclude eligible FHH. The problem was mismatching of the actual need with that of the resource. Because of this mismatching they were forced to leave out some. They confirmed that whenever they found two households on the same position, priority was given to FHH. But one of the women interviewee from KFSTF at Faji recalled that there was a big resistance to vote in favor of women as the majority in the task force members are men. Men interviewee in the same kebele said that, “*unexpectedly we were challenged by women members of the committee on this issue.*” The kebele Administrator, who is the chair person of the committee, appreciates two women who were very energetic in confronting the other committee members at time of re-targeting.

This verifies the Marxist feminist assertion that men knowingly hide women’s economic exploitation in order to ensure the hierarchy between female and male (Cara, 2003). If the committee members were all men, the probability of excluding eligible women from the beneficiary list will be high. PSNP’s framework which allows women’s participation in decision making process of the program enables their access to resources and services which in turn minimize gender inequality and bring women’s empowerment.

Interviewed appeal committee members confirmed that there were many applicants from FHH and MHH, and only few of them were re-targeted. In total 242 FHH are targeted as PSNP beneficiaries in both kebeles out of whom 109 are in Shilafaf and 133 in Faji. Thirty two labor poor FHH are supported through the Direct Support component (26, Faji and 6 in Shilafaf).

The PIM acknowledges that female are more vulnerable to HIV/AIDS risks than other members of the community and need to be benefited from the safety net program without being exposed to any stigma and discrimination. Neither the Woreda Office nor the administration in both kebeles has record on this issue. However, it is assumed that they would benefit with the sick women who are supported under the Direct Support component.

#### 4.5.4.2 Access to Labor

The 1996 land redistribution gave an opportunity to majority of women to have their own land. Most of the FHHs who owned farm land failed to produce enough food for their household because of labour constraint. Due to cultural taboos and lack of appropriate technology to fit women’s physical strength, women are unable to plough and forced to rent out their land for cash or crop share.

About 78% of the respondents (Table 17) couldn’t produce enough food due to different interrelated factors. The labor constraint is the major one especially for FHH. More than 60% of the FHH responded that they have labor shortage to work on the farm and forced either to rent or crop-share the land. The survey data shows that 52.1% of the total respondents (Table 18) do not have enough family labour to work on the farm and produce enough food. Tables 17 shows responses for the question “Do you produce enough food for your household?”

**Table 17 Households Food Production Status**

Responses	Marital Status				Total	
	FHH		Women in MHH			
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Yes	30	51.7	28	48.3	58	22.1
No	106	51.8	99	37.6	205	77.9
Total	136	51.7	127	48.2	263	100

The PIM states that, labour poor FHHs should be provided with labor through public works. PW need to be undertaken on the private land of FHH to enhance their productivity for sustainable food security. However, 91.3% of the respondents replied that no public work had been done on private land of FHH. Most of the FHH discussants and interviewees are ignorant of the privilege that the PIM

provides them. One can conclude that the community does not have adequate and proper information about the content of the PIM.

**Table 18 Access to Labour FHH Vs MHH**

Responses	Marital Status				Total	
	FHH		Women in MHH			
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Yes	52	41.3	74	58.7	126	47.9
No	84	61.3	53	38.7	137	52.1
Total	136	51.7	127	48.3	263	100

Some of the key informants in OARD admitted that the attention was given to activities that are of communal nature such as road construction, water wells development, construction and repair of schools and health centers. Most of the experts and DAs do not know this provision. Some of them even question why PW is to be done on private land of FHH. This implies that the implementers do not know the content of the PIM and they also lack gender sensitivity.

#### 4.5.4.3 Mode of Payment (Transfer)

Payment for the PWs as well as DS is made either in kind (food) or in cash. Among the respondents 62% (Table 19) prefer the payment to be made in kind for two major reasons; the food material is ready for immediate consumption by the family and women specially in MHH can control the food item than cash. About 47% of women in MHH prefer the payment in food item.

**Table 19 Transfer Preference by Marital Status**

Responses	Marital Status				Total	
	FHH		Women in MHH			
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Food /in kind	86	53.0	77	47.2	163	62.0
Cash	38	56.3	14	43.8	32	12.2
Both	32	47.1	36	52.9	68	25.9
Total	136	51.7	127	48.2	263	100.0

More than 56% of FHH prefer the payment to be made in cash to cover other expenses like school fees, health and down payment for the purchase of agricultural inputs. During the FGD in both kebeles with women in MHH, the majority prefer payment to be in kind/food for the reason that the husband will bring the whole and will be consumed in the house. They argue that if the payment is in cash, men tend

to use some of it for other expenses which are not acceptable to women. The balance would not be sufficient to be able to buy enough food for the family because of nonstop price escalation of food items.

Almost all men discussants in both kebeles asserted that they prefer the payment to be in cash as it gives a room to cover other household expenses and claimed that they hand over all the money to their wives without spending a coin. Few of them honestly admitted that they take some amount for drinks and give the balance to their wives.

In 2009, the Appeals Committee in both kebeles received complaints from wives, three cases in Shilafaf and five in Faji. The Committees decided that men to be banned from taking the remuneration from PW and replaced by their wives. This indicates that the PSNP structure has helped women to challenge the patriarchal domination and promote their self and social empowerment.

Most of the beneficiaries,(80%) complain that the payment is not sufficient enough for living. An able bodied person is allowed to work for 5 days in a month with a daily payment of Birr 12 which amount to Birr 60 per month. Delay in payment is one of the problems faced by the beneficiaries, 88% complained that the payment is not timely effected (Annex Table 20). This has exposed them to unnecessary expenses, because they would be forced to borrow money from other people with interest for immediate needs. The key pillar of the program, which is asset protection, cannot be achieved unless the beneficiaries are paid on time. The payment is made at Degolo, the woreda capital, which is about two and half hours walk from the kebeles. Usually the payments are arranged for Mondays, the market day, which is advantageous for the beneficiaries, in that they don't need spend another day to collect payment. There is no complaint about distance of payment place as they can manage to return back home the same day.

#### **4.6 Asset Possession Before and After PSNP**

Assets refer to material properties, both physical and financial. Properties such as land, housing, livestock and savings enable people to withstand shocks. The limited physical and financial assets of women put them in a position vulnerable to food insecurity.

The assets registered by the respondents' prior to implementation of PSNP were insignificant since the respondents were in a destitute condition before PSNP as confirmed by all key informants and discussants. Some of the beneficiaries said that, "*we don't want to die of starving while having something to sale and buy food.*" Most of them were forced to consume all assets they had for survival.

Household assets that are registered after being beneficiary of PSNP were also insignificant; 65 households (18FHH and 47MHH) have an ox, 78 households (36 FHH and 42 MHH) have a cow, 19 households (13 FHH and 6 MM) have 3 sheep (Annex Table 21). Among the respondents 72% don't have any saving. In the FGD most of them said that "*we don't have extra to save and we don't get the service even if we wish to, because there is no Bank in the Woreda.*"

Key informants in the woreda and in the kebele administration agree that the respondent's assets are low because those beneficiary households who had created considerable assets had graduated in the last two years. The next graduation might take longer time, probably two years, as most of the beneficiary's assets are low.

Although assets created in their household are very minimal, women feel that they are economically empowered because of their contribution to the household income. They are grateful for the program that they are able to feed their families and send their children to schools.

#### **4.7 Access to Services: Promoting Social Empowerment**

People would be socially empowered when they have access to information, to acquire knowledge and skill, social services and alternative opportunities to generate incomes for their households (Friedmann, 1992). People with good health,

education, and market and information access are more empowered than who lack those resources. To empower women social services like access to potable water, health services, education and alternative opportunities to diversify their income are important.

One of the objectives of PSNP is to create asset at the community level that includes enhancement of basic social services such as schools, health services, roads, potable water, and environment conservation. These community assets have immense contribution in empowering women socially and economically.

The survey result shows that 86.3% of the respondents have benefitted from the different out puts of public works. These respondents more benefited from road construction (53.2%) and clean water development (25.1%). The roads give them access to markets and health centres while the near by water points reduce their work burden and save their time.

**Table 22 Public Works Beneficial to Women**

<b>Responses</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
Not benefited at all	36	13.7
Clean water	66	25.1
Road	140	53.2
Biomass	8	3.0
Milling centers	4	1.5
Health centers	7	2.7
Toilets	1	.4
Others	1	.4
Total	263	100.00

In Shilafaf 30 water points of different kinds (spring, pump, pond) were developed and improved, about 10 km feeder road was constructed to connect the kebele with the woreda town, and three schools were constructed by the PW during the last four years. In Faji, about 6 km feeder road was constructed to connect the Kebele with the main road. Forty seven water points were developed and improved, 4 schools were built and 1 health center was repaired.

Women in both kebeles expressed their contentment about the benefit they got from the PW activities. They believed that apart from the income earned, they benefited more by the out puts of the PW. The service facilities such as schools, roads and health centers improve their life. The schools constructed in their vicinity make them comfortable to send their children specially daughters to school without fear of violence. They enjoyed the opportunity of attending meetings which give them exposure to the public sphere. Most of the discussants and interviewees are very optimistic to have a better life in the future and confirmed that they are ready to pay any sacrifice to contribute for the community development and realization of food security in their household.

**Box 1. A Woman from Faji expressed her benefit from PSNP**

*I married at the age of 13. I lived for 10 years with my husband and gave birth to 3 children. After all these years of marriage life, he kicked me out to marry another woman who had land. I was empty handed, had nothing to feed my children and we suffered a lot from hunger and health problems. No one was around to support us. While I was under this severe condition, I joined the PSNP to participate in PW. I worked for 20 days per month and earned fairly enough money to feed my children. I was also granted a credit of Birr 1500 from the Food security project and engaged in petty trading. I became very successful and paid back the entire loan within two years time. I was granted again a loan amounting Birr 4500 for another project. I bought a cow and 2 sheep which is a big asset for my household. I still work in PW and run the petty trading to repay the loan. I am now in a very good position. I can feed my children three times a day. All my children attend school. Thanks to PSNP. Moreover, my participation in the PSNP gave me strength and courage to do more and better. I feel proud of myself. Every body in the community talks about my success.*

The experience of this woman shows the impact of PSNP in changing women's life in the program areas. She developed self confidence and got respect among her fellows and the community, as a result of her access to productive resources through PSNP.

## **4.8 Participation in Planning and Decision-making: A Prelude to Political Empowerment**

People would be empowered politically, when they begin to participate in choices and decisions in matters that directly affect their livelihood. “Political power concerns the access of individual household members to the process by which decisions, particularly those that affect their own future, are made” (Friedmann 1992, p. 33).

### **4.8.1 Women’s Participation in the PSNP Structure**

The PSNP as stated in the PIM established from the very beginning the institutional framework to promote gender equality. The manual set up guidelines for the inclusion of women in PSNP as beneficiaries and decision-makers. Women are made to be represented at Federal, Regional, Woreda and Community levels of the PSNP operational structure. Women representatives in these structures pave the way to promote women’s needs and priorities in the PWs and develop their decision making capacity.

In the kebeles under study, women are represented in the KFSTF, CFSTF and in the Appeals Committee (Table 4). The PIM specifies that at least three women to be represented in KFSTF and one in the Appeals Committee. In CFSTF one woman is represented from each ‘*Gotte*’ except two in Shilafaf. Women are also encouraged to take leadership roles in the Work Teams of PW. At present there are only three women team leaders (1 in Shilafaf and 2 in Faji). Women’s limited number as team leaders is ascribed to their low level of education.

Women’s participation in community meetings is highly encouraged, to keep them informed and to enhance their participation in community development activities. Some of the key informants complained that though there is an effort to encourage women to participate in public meetings, most of them failed to come regularly and air their views in meetings. Some of them on the other hand assured that women’s participation in the planning and decision-making of community development activities is progressively increasing in the last two years. Most men discussants expressed their pleasure to see women’s drastic change in attitude and in capacity.

They expressed that in the last two years women’s attendance and participation in discussion has been increasing. They also expressed their admiration on the ideas women forwarded on community development issues in general and issues that particularly concerns women. One of the discussant said that, *“it is beyond our (men’s) imaginations that some women come up with sound idea.”* The woman kebele manager in Faji is a role model in the woreda for her efficient management capacity. Most women interviewees and discussants confirmed that women’s participation has been increasing from time to time and they are proud of those women who are represented in the committees. One of the discussant said, *“I don’t get words to express my feeling when I see the women seated beside men in the public meetings. If I were able to read and write I would be one of them.”*

The survey data shows that about half (50.6%) of the respondents are being involved in the planning and decision making of their community development activities. FHH have more participation than women in MHH as seen in Table 23.

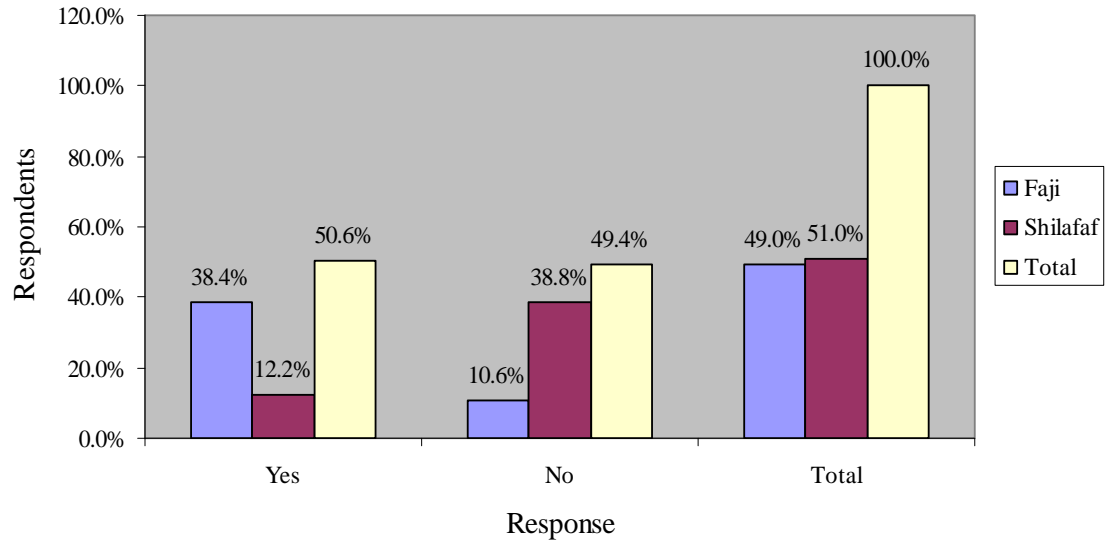
**Table 23 Women’s Participation in Planning and Decision-making by Marital Status**

Responses	Marital Status				Total	
	FHH		Women in MHH			
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Yes	70	52.6	63	47.4	133	50.6
No	66	50.8	64	49.2	130	49.4
Total	136	51.7	127	48.2	263	100.0

The study result shows big variation between the Kebeles in women’s participation in planning and decision-making of community development.

Figure 4

### Women's Participation in Planning and Decision –making



Women's participation in Faji is 38.4% and in Shilafaf 12.2%. When calculated within the Kebeles, in Faji women's participation reached 78.3% while in Shilafaf only about 24% of the respondents participate in the selection and planning of community works (Annexe Table 24).

This difference shows that women in Faji have more access to information than those in Shilafaf. The cultural difference and economic status of the communities contributed to the variation. In Shilafaf the attitude of the community towards women has impacted their participation in the public sphere.

Key informants confirmed that Shilafaf kebele being among the lowland (*Kolla*) agro ecological zone has limited resources, where women live in a very severe condition. They also indicated that the social norms put pressure on women.

Women discussants in Shilafaf indicated that they are willing to attend public meetings, but they couldn't make it because of two reasons: workload, and husband's restriction. They complained that they have to carry water at least twice a day from very far places to secure food for their households and participate in the

PW as well, thus they don't have time to spare for meetings. Women in MHH have additional pressure from their husbands. Most of the husbands do not want their wives to be seen in public. The patriarchal notion is high in Shilafaf than in Faji.

FHHs have a better chance to attend meetings as they decide by their own and it is mandatory for them to get up-to-date information. This has given them the opportunity to widen their exposure and information flow which in effect contribute for their self and social empowerment. The above facts go with the feminist assertion, that in patriarchal society, women spend much of their time on the reproductive and community management roles and they have less time to involve in the productive role. Women's confinement in domestic activities limits their access to resources and information, which in turn affects their social and economic status. A woman was said that "*the advantage of participation in the PW is not only for economic benefit but also for social interaction*". Further she stated that,

*When we meet in the PW we always discuss our problems and share experiences, which have great contribution to our livelihood. Our presence in the public meetings, give us opportunity to understand the policies of the government that gives rights for women. At present we know our rights.*

Women's Associations in the kebeles are other forums where women discuss their issues, share experience and exercise leadership and public speaking. More than half of the respondents 55.1% are members of Women's Associations in their respective kebeles. The study shows that FHHs (55.9%) participation is higher than women in MHHs (44.1%). Respondent's membership in Faji is 62.1 % while it is much less in Shilafaf (37.9%) Among the total respondents 40 of them served in the leadership positions of the Associations during the last 10 years.

## **Box 2. Experience of a Woman in Shilafaf**

*I usually don't go to community meetings before because I have a lot to do at home and in the field. One day there was a call for community meeting from the administration. The meeting was in another 'Gott' far from my place. I wanted to go and listen to what it is all about. I was discouraged by my neighbors, but I was determined to go. When I reached there every body stared at me. I was so frightened and took a seat behind a man whom I never seen before. He asked me if my husband is here too, I said "no" politely. He smiles and said "now I understand." I asked, 'what do you understand?'. He said "You are here because you don't have a husband." I was so mad! While I was thinking what to say, the Kebele administrator started making his speech by introducing two guests from woreda Food Security Office. They briefed the audience how to get organized in a group to be eligible for a loan from the Food Security Project.*

*In the middle of the discussion one of the guests commented that there are only 6 women attending the meeting; 'are they the only ones in the kebele? He asked. He then appreciated our presence and he advised the Kebele administrator to call upon women in such kind of meetings so that women could get clear information about what is going on in the community and they could access the available resources. He repeatedly appreciated our presence. I felt very proud and commended myself for attending the meeting despite discouragement from neighbors the aforementioned man sitting beside me. I looked at him with less respect.*

*Since then I don't miss meetings unless I am not able to. When there is a meeting I go around my village to call upon women. These days many of them have joined me. Some women do not go to meetings simply to please their husbands. I learnt a lot from meetings. We should start exercising our rights, and we have to start challenging those who want us remain subordinates.*

*In the public Works, we are doing the same works as men. This is an example of our being equal to men. I am among the few women who graduated last year. I always encourage women to take their own decision on their life.*

The experience of this woman shows that personal empowerment comes within oneself. She made her own decision to go to the meeting regardless of other's discouragements. She realized that she has to change and break her perception that tied her for so long; being in harmony with the social norms of the community; i.e women are not for the public. She is a role model in her community she also motivates women to participate in the public meetings and agricultural training

programs so that they could get information and skill to change theirs and their family life.

In Ethiopian societies which are predominantly patriarchal, women's participation in the public sphere and their role in decision making are very minimal. This study found out that, women through time are now emerging to assume leadership positions in their community. The Kebele manager at Faji and many other women who served in the CFSTF and KFSTF in both kebeles proved that women are capable of assuming leadership positions. All interviewed men and most of the discussant came to believe that women have the potential to do any thing if they given the chance. In addition they believe that women are 'compassionate and all rounded' while making decision and 'unlikely to be corrupted.'

In general, the institutional framework of PSNP paves the way for women's political empowerment by providing the opportunity to participate at the different stages of planning and decision-making in their community.

#### **4.8.2 Women's Decision making role in Households**

Women are equally participating and earning equal pay with men in the PW. In the kebeles under study, it has been observed that women do the same type and amount of work; and they perform it with the same quality. This attested that they are capable of doing things which were not considered women's work. Their equal participation in PW with men and the income to the household help them to get appreciation from the community and fair treatment from their husbands. These days, husbands consult their wives in decision making. From MHH respondents, 36.2% of them make decisions with their husbands on equal terms, 42.5% consulted by their husbands in order to make decisions and 9.4% make decisions by themselves (Table 25).

Almost all men beneficiary interviewees and discussants affirmed that they consult their wives before making any decision. One of the interviewee said that *“a wise man is who consults his wife, women are fast in comprehending.”*



*Men Focus Group Discussant*

Currently, women have recognition in their community and they are seeking leadership positions in the community and kebele administration.

This goes with the Marxist and Socialist feminist assertion that women’s economic independence emancipates them from male domination. In the study kebeles it is observe that women’s economic status brought them social recognition and respect which in turn changed their social and political positions in their community.

**Table 25 Household Decision making**

		Myself	My husband	Myself and my husband	Myself and my children	My self and my husband, but my husband takes the lead	My self and my husband, but I take the lead	Total
Married	Count	12	11	46	2	54	2	127
	% within Marital Status	9.4%	8.7%	36.2%	1.6%	42.5%	1.6%	100.0%
Single	Count	11	0	0	0	0	0	11
	% within Marital Status	100.0%	.0%	0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	100.0%
Divorced	Count	60	1	1	4	7	1	74
	% within Marital Status	81.1%	1.4%	1.4%	5.4%	9.5%	1.4%	100.0%
Widow	Count	43	0	0	4	0	0	47
	% within Marital Status	91.5%	.0%	.0%	8.5%	.0%	.0%	100.0%
Separated	Count	4	0	0	0	0	0	4
	% within Marital Status	100.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	100.0%
Total	Count	130	12	47	10	61	3	263
	% within Marital Status	49.4%	4.6%	17.9%	3.8%	23.2%	1.1%	100.0%

## **4.9 Limitations in the implementation Gender Provisions**

The PIM focuses on mainstreaming gender in the PSNP and established an appropriate institutional framework for the promotion of gender equity to meet the needs of poor women in food insecure agricultural households. The PIM has four sets of gender-related objectives; promoting women's participation in the PW and in the structure of PSNP decision making, consideration for women's reproductive status, reducing women's regular work burden and accommodation of women's needs and interests in the design of PWs activities.

### **4.9.1 Public Works and Women's Productive Role**

Women's productive role is appreciated by almost all key informants, men interviewees and most discussants. Women participate in most of the agricultural production activities, PW and engaged in some income generating activities to secure food for their households.

In the kebeles under study women's agricultural productive activities are challenged by societal norms. Though women are seeking to, they are not accepted to plough and sow. FHH have, therefore, depend on men's labour for those activities. Some of the discussant claims that they can plough if it was not for breaking the social norms. They argued that ploughing is not different from what women are doing in the PWs. One of the discussant asked "*We do the same kind of work with the same standard! What is different with ploughing? It is totally our lack of initiation that we are renting and crop sharing our land. If not for lack oxen I would have ploughed my land.*" Some others argued that for women to plough, the tools need to be improved to fit women's physical strength. Most FHHs deeply regret renting their land for cash or crop share. Two key informants informed that they know some women who plough their land by themselves in other two kebeles. The survey revealed that 71% of FHH work most of the farming by themselves while 83.3% women in the MHH do farming together with their husbands (Annex Table 26). The discussant asserted that forced by the condition (food crisis) they realized their potential to do any thing.

#### 4.9.2 Public Works and Household Chores

Women play prominent role in the society in sustaining the life of their family. They are responsible for providing food and water for the household. They suffer disproportionately when these resources are scarce. Water and fuel source availability as well as its location has direct impact on women.

One of the gender objectives of the PIM is reducing women’s regular work burden by making available necessary resources. As indicated earlier a number of PW have been done to prevent natural resource degradation and to increase basic social services such as water. Women in Shilafaf kebele compared with Faji kebele, suffer a lot from shortage of water. During the dry season they fetch water from far places by travelling up to one hour twice a day which is spending four hours a day. The improvement of water sources in the kebeles under study gave easy access and helped them in saving time to some extent.

The PIM states that since women are over burdened with household and other communal activities, their condition must be recognized and catered for by reducing the number of hours in their work day. It also indicates that flexible working time should be adopted for women allowing them for late arrival and early leaving. However, in the kebeles under study, there is no flexible working time for women, and the attendance is very strict. If one arrives late she/he is not allowed to work and then forced to return home after travelling 2-3 kilometers. Most of the discussant confirmed that women are victims of this situation. More than 85% of the respondents confirmed that they work equal hours and 82.5% of them do the same job as men. Table 27 shows the details.

**Table 27 . Gender Provisions of the PIM and the Implementation**

Response	Women Do Same work		Women Do Equal hours		Pregnant and lactating women exempted PW	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Yes	217	82.5	224	85.2	38	14.4
No	30	11.4	28	10.6	190	72.2
I don’t know	16	6.1	11	4.2	35	13.3
Total	263	100.0	263	100.0	263	100.0

About 67% of the respondents asserted that they do the household work after they came back from the PW. Women's burden increases when they have small children. In addition to their regular activities they have to get up early to prepare food and other amenities for the child before going to PWs, as they are forced to leave the child at home either with elder children (44.9%) or with neighbors (11.4%) because there is no child care center at PW sites (Annex Tables 28 & 29).

Most men discussants and interviewees felt the unfairness that women are made to work equal hours and the same kind of job without considering their household responsibility and physical strength; but said "it is beyond our capacity to change the situation." One of the discussants speaking angrily said, "*Brothers we can do a lot if we are determined to change the situation. We can work longer hours at our discretion replacing our wives/ mothers/ sisters/ rather than competing with them.*"

Women in both kebeles demanded their husbands' participation in the household work to share their work burden. . Most men cognizant of women' role in PW and the income they generate for the household responded positively. Most of the discussant affirmed that they are helping their wives by fetching water and caring children after PW. The survey data also showed the changing trend. About 13% of the respondents confirmed that their husbands help them in child caring, while other 21% replied that husbands participate in the household activities (Annex Table 28 & 29).

One aspect of feminist activists' definition of women's empowerment is challenge the ideology of patriarchy and the gender-based discrimination against women in all the institutions and structures of society (Batliwala 1995 cited in Moser, 2007). This has been found to be true in the case of women in Faji and Shilafaf. Their economic access brought them self reliance and recognition which brought about a change in their social position both at the household and the community level. They began to challenge the ideology of patriarchy and became bold enough to demand their husbands to be involved in the household chores and participate in public meetings despite their husband discontent.

### 4.9.3 Women's Reproductive Role and Public Works

The PIM provides protection for pregnant and lactating women. It clearly specifies that pregnant women over 6 months and lactating women up to 10 months should be relieved from PW and temporarily transferred to DS. Pregnant women up to 6 months should be engaged in lighter works and should be assigned as near to their homes as possible within 1 km distance. More than 72% of the respondents confirmed that pregnant and lactating women are not exempted from PW (Table 27). Women continue to work until their delivery time and after about three months lactating because of fear of being excluded from the program.

A seven months pregnant woman in Faji, who is aware of the provision demanded to be exempted from PW, but neither the kebele Administration nor the AC gave her a solution. By the same token, a 65 years old woman in Shilafaf appealed to be transferred to DS and has got no response. The researcher met nine FHH whose age is over 65 but participating in PW. The key informants' response was that "*most women appeal to be transferred to DS because they want to be relived from PW. When observed they are strong, and most of them don't know their exact age.*" In the PIM the minimum and maximum age limit for PW is not clearly indicated. This has given the implementers a room to pay no attention to complaints of women.

Though women have complained of being overburdened, and understand the shortcomings in the implementation process; virtually all women are happy that they are beneficiaries of PW because of their access to resources and the opportunity to participate in the planning and decision making of their community. A woman said “መኖር ብዙ ያሳያል፣ እኛም ምን ጉዲልጋላችሁ ተብለን ተጠየቅን!” This is an exclamatory expression that implies “Time has come for us to be requested about our need!” They believe that their voices are being heard because of PSNP.

#### **4.10 Constraints in the PSNP implementation**

The program implementing body is structured under the agriculture sector at all levels. Similarly in Jamma, the 'Food Security Process' is organized under the Office of Agriculture and Rural Development. The 'Process' consists of five employees, one process owner and four experts all with a diploma in agriculture. The task is handled by DAs at the kebele level.

It was found out that there is high staff turnover which affected continuity of plans and activities of PSNP. Three of the experts in the Food Security Process including the Process Owner, are new to the position. Lack of properly documented handover- takeover of activities and outstanding issues between the outgoing & incoming personnel resulted in creating information gap.

The implementers understanding of the PIM and gender awareness is found to be low. The majority do not know the detail gender provisions in the PIM except the representation of women in the structure and considerations in targeting. Most of them are not trained on the content of the PIM and they don't even have copies of the manual to refer to.

Their low level of gender awareness contributed to the feeble implementation of the gender provisions of the PIM. Most of the experts at the Woreda and the DAs at the kebele do not have gender training. The Woreda OARD has a gender focal person working under the 'Environment Process'. However, it is found out that the responsibility of the focal person is not well defined and has insignificant involvement in the implementation process of the PSNP. The Woreda Women's Affairs Office is a member of the WFSTF and expected to work for effective implementation of the gender provisions of the PIM and developing gender mainstreaming capacity. However, as it is found out through key informants, the Office lack capacity and has a weak link with OARD.

The delay in payment for works done under PW program is one of the problems raised by implementers as well as the beneficiaries. OARD complains that the Region doesn't timely transfer the fund to the woreda. Key informants at MoARD

indicated that the financial report delay from Woredas is the main problem in financial management.

The community's gender norms have affected women's participation in the community development activities as well as implementation of the gender provisions of the PIM. The community's social norms accept that women have to work until she gives birth; if she rests, she will have difficulty at time of delivery. As a result the implementers do not give due attention to the PIM's provision that deals with pregnancy and lactating.

Follow up and monitoring of PSNP implementation is hampered by lack of transport facility because the logistics is planned and controlled by the woreda administration.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### 5 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 5.1 Conclusion

The study revealed that women in the study area have played important role in securing food for their households, by being engaged in different non-farm activities during food crisis and being active in agricultural production and PW. Women proved that when provided with equal access to resources and institutional support they would be able to become more productive.

The PIM clearly defined the formal institutional frameworks and important provisions for gender mainstreaming at all levels of program implementation. The presumption is that the implementation guided by the PIM would promote women's capacity to secure food for their households. But this study revealed that the gender provisions of the PIM are not effectively realized in both kebeles. Implementers focus only on the structure, composition of the FSTF and targeting while ignoring the detailed provisions which are important to women's special needs.

There is no flexible working time for women. They are forced to work equal hours and same work with men without considering their sex role, work burden, and their natural physiological features. They are obliged to work while they are pregnant above 6 months and lactating below 10 months which has adverse effect on their health and the offspring. Another issue that was not considered is doing some PW on FHH's private land in order to enhance their capacity to sustain their household food security. However no public works is done on land of FHHs. These are all against stipulations in the PIM.

Though the PSNP implementation has problems and a number of shortcomings, it is positively accepted and appreciated by almost all women beneficiaries in the study area. PSNP has opened opportunities for employment to women. They get

equal chance to be engaged in PW and earn income for their households. Women in MHH who participated in the PWs developed self confidence and their decision making influence within the household is increasing as a result of their growing capacity to contribute to household income.

Women's economic status is changed and their social relations in the family and in the community as well. FHH are able to send their children to school, fulfilling necessary requirement which is their greatest satisfaction. The improvement in the health of family due to better feeding is also acknowledged. Apart from their economic gain, they felt that participation in PWs gave them recognition by their communities.

Women greatly benefited from the out puts of PW: the constructed roads, schools, water wells, health centers and the watershed management activities done in their community. They enjoy not only the social services provided but also feel proud of their contribution to create those realities.

Women's economic access, land possession and earnings from PSNP together with their experience in the public sphere helped them to develop self-reliance and confidence. Participation in different trainings related to PSNP and agricultural extension services promote women's ability to be more productive.

PSNP's framework which allowed women's participation in decision making process of the program upholds women's access to resources and services which in turn minimize gender inequality and bring women's empowerment. Their representation in FSTF at all level contributed to a fair targeting of women in the program. Women's increasing participation in the planning and selection of community works give them opportunity to get information, which promoted their social and political status in their community. The study found out that women are increasingly aware of their constitutional rights to access productive resources and to be involved in community development activities. Women representation in the PSNP structures paves the way to promote their needs and priorities in the PWs and

develop their decision making capacity. Though their number is limited, women are keen to be involved in their community administration which signifies their political empowerment.

The more women are empowered, new and better way of doing things both in the community as well as in the household are introduced which in turn change the way resources are managed to ensure food security. Empowering women is the path to sustainable development.

## **5.2 Recommendations**

Challenges and threats could be faced by the implementers while introducing a new system. These problems should be managed and solved by motivating and educating the implementers as well as raising the level of the consciousness of the community.

One of the problems observed in the implementation process of PSNP in Jamma woreda is lack of clear understanding of the PIM. Organizing orientation and training programs regularly would help in solving the problem. Implementers of the program need to have the copy of the PIM so that they could refer to it from time to time to avoid any potential discrepancies in implementations.

Mainstreaming gender in development programs requires knowledge and skill. Therefore, continuous trainings on gender mainstreaming skills are imperative to effectively implement the gender provisions of the PIM and to change the perception of the implementers towards gender.

For the attainment of the desired objective of the program all provisions in the PIM especially the gender aspects should be effectively implemented. The privileges provided in PIM for women particularly when they are pregnant and lactating should be respected in accordance with the manual.

FHH are mostly labor poor members of the community. They need sufficient and reasonably longer time than MHH to recover from food insecurity and to resist the potential future shocks. Considering these factors the graduation criteria needs to

incorporate gender sensitive indicators. By doing so, the program will make them more powerful in asset creation and in ensuring food security. Giving priority to FHH for OFSP after graduation will promote their capability to ensure sustained food security in their households.

The composition of Appeals Committee needs to be reviewed. Members of the FSTF who decides on the eligibility of beneficiaries are also members of the appeal committee. Therefore, decisions on any grievances against the committee would not be free of bias as it is made by the same people who make the previous decisions. There must be another independent body serving as appeal committee in which members of FSTF are not included. The PIM, therefore, needs to be revised to avoid this and other issues such as type of work and working hour's reduction for women.

The deeply entrenched attitude of the community is a challenge, which needs a long process of intensive awareness creation activities using different methods. The woreda Women's Affairs, OARD, and other relevant stakeholders need to work closely to uproot the deep rooted patriarchal notions and change the life of the rural women.

Generally, the most important gender provisions of the PIM have not been properly implemented in the woreda for about four years; this shows the weakness of monitoring and evaluation system. The Woreda as well as the Region should strengthen their monitoring and evaluation system for effective implementation of the program and systematic way of reporting on the progress in meeting the gender provisions of the PIM should be developed.

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## 7 Annexes

### Annex I : Household Survey Questionnaire

Name of House Hold head: \_\_\_\_\_

Name of Enumerator: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

#### **PART I: Household Basic Information**

1. Kebele

2. Age

3. Marital Status            1. Single            2. Divorced            3. Widowed            4. Separated

4. Educational status        1. Illiterate            2. Read and Write        3. Grade 1- 4

   4. Grade 5-8            5. Grade 9-12            6. Others (specify)-----

5. Number of permanent Household members at the time of survey

	Male	Female
Less than 5 years		
5 – 15 years		
16 – 55 years		
Above 55		

#### **PART II: Access to and Control over Resources**

6. Do you have your own house            1. Yes            2. No

7. Do you have farm land?            1. Yes            2. No

8. If yes, how did you get it?            1. Inherited from parents            3. Through land redistribution

   2. From spouse            4. Others (specify)

9. What is the primary source of income of the household?

- 1. Crop production            3. Non-farm activities            5. All
- 2. Livestock rearing            4. 1 & 2            6. Others Specify -----

10. Do you have access to credit?            1. Yes            2. No

11. If 'No' Why?            1. Unavailability of credit scheme            3. No need to take credit

   2. Lack of collateral            4. others specify-----

12. Do you have adequate access to agricultural extension services?            1. Yes            2. No

13. How many times have you been trained on modern agriculture in the last two years?

- 1. Four times            2. Two times            3. Once            4. None            5. others (specify )-----

14. Do you use modern agricultural inputs?            1. Yes            2. No

15. If 'yes' type of input

- |                   |                               |                          |
|-------------------|-------------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Fertilizer     | 4. fertilizer & improved seed | 7. All                   |
| 2. Improved seeds | 5. Fertilizer & pesticides    | 8. others, specify _____ |
| 3. Pesticides     | 6. improved seed & pesticides |                          |

16. If 'no' to Q. 14, Why?

- |                         |                          |
|-------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Lack of availability | 3. Preference            |
| 2. High price           | 4. others, specify ----- |

17. Do you produce enough food for the family for a year?

1. Yes                      2. No

18. If 'no' to Q17, why?

- |                      |            |            |
|----------------------|------------|------------|
| 1. The plot is small | 4. No oxen | 7. 4 and 5 |
|----------------------|------------|------------|

- |                     |                   |                          |
|---------------------|-------------------|--------------------------|
| 2. No fertilizer    | 5. Rent to others | 8. All                   |
| 3. No improved seed | 6. 2 and 3        | 9. others, specify _____ |

19. For how long could you feed the HH from your own production?

- |                       |                                 |                               |
|-----------------------|---------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. Less than 3 months | 2. Between three and six months | 3. Between six to nine months |
|-----------------------|---------------------------------|-------------------------------|

20. How many times in a day do you serve food for your HH members before and after being beneficiary of Food Security Programs?( Ask the Wife)

- |        |         |          |                |               |
|--------|---------|----------|----------------|---------------|
| Before | 1. Once | 2. Twice | 3. Three times | 4. Four times |
| After  | 1. Once | 2. Twice | 3. Three times | 4. Four times |

21. Do you own livestock?

1. Yes                      2. No

22. If yes, to Q. 20 how many? Specify before and after you have been beneficiary of FSP

Type of livestock	Quantity	
	Before	After
Ox		
Cow and others (other than ox)		
Sheep		
Goat		
Donkey		
Horse		
Mule		
Hen		
Others		

23. What other non-farming income generating activities do you involve?

- |                        |  |                    |
|------------------------|--|--------------------|
| 1. Weaving/ Spinning   | 4. Local drinks( Tella, Teji, Arekie)            | 7. Others, Specify |
| 2. Handicraft/ pottery | 5. Petty trading ( food items, vegetables etc..) | -----              |
| 3. Selling labor       | 6. Selling firewood or dung cakes                |                    |

24. What is the source of energy you use for cooking?

- |        |                   |              |           |                     |
|--------|-------------------|--------------|-----------|---------------------|
| Before | 1. Kerosene stove | 2. Fire wood | 2. Biogas | 4. Animal dung      |
|        |                   |              |           | 5. others (Sp)----- |

- After 1. Kerosene stove 2. Fire wood 2. Biogas 4. Animal dung  
5 Others (SP)-----

**PART III: Access to Labor**

25. Do you have adequate labour to produce food for the household? 1. Yes 2. No
26. If yes, to Q.26 who does the ploughing ? 1 Myself 2. Elder male children, 3.Relatives living in the HH 4. Others (specify)
27. If 'no', to Q. 26 how do you manage to produce food for the household?  
1. Share cropping 2. Renting the land 3. Hire labor for farming 4. Purchase from market 5. Relatives' support the farming 6. Others (specify)-----
28. If your answer for Q27 is myself and you are out in the field for public works who will do the major domestic work?  
1. Myself when come back 2. Female children 3. Male children 4. Myself supported by female children 5. both female and male children 6. Other household members
29. Who would take care of the child when you are out for PW? (Ask only if there are children less than 5 years in Q5)  
1. I carry to the site 2. Elder children in HH 3. Neighbors 4. Other HH members
30. Does your participation in public works affect your children schooling?  
1. Yes, to great extent some (---) left school 2. Yes, to some extent some(---) repeated 3. No, they all go to school 4. No, all are good in their schooling

**Part IV: Coping Mechanisms of FHH at the time of food shortage**

31. How often you encounter food shortage in your household?  
1. Every year 2. Every 3 years 3. Every 5 years 4. Others (specify)-----
32. What measures have you taken when you encountered food shortage in your household?

Actions taken	
1	Intensify household food production (homestead production)
2	Rent the land-out
3	Sale livestock products
4	Engaged in petty trading activities (e.g. sale of local drinks, firewood, dung etc.)
5	Borrow money and grain form relatives/friends
6	Sale personal and household valuables
7	Sale personal labor
8	Eat less preferred foods
9	Reducing number of meals

11	Send children to vicinal towns for job	
12	Eat the reserve for seed	
13	Selling farm tools	
14	Migrate to town for begging for food and money	
15	Waite for aid from the government	
16	Others (specify)	

33. Were your children left school at time of food shortage problem? 1. Yes 2. No

34. Have you sold any productive assets (tools , livestock, personal items) in order to meet the food needs of your household at time of food shortage  
1. Yes 2. No

35. Was there a family member who migrates to other places in search of income at the time of food shortage? 1. Yes 2. No

36. What is the **major source** of food for your HH at present?

1. Own production                      3. Land rent income                      5. PSNP                      6. Support from others  
2. Petty trading                      4. Selling HH labor                      7. Others(specify) -----

**PART V: Food Security Program Implementation**

**A. Targeting**

37. In which of the FSP are you registered as a beneficiary?
1. PSNP                                      2. OFSP                                      3. Both PSNP& OFSP
38. If you are registered as PSNP beneficiary which component?
1. Direct Support                                      2. Public Works
39. Were there women in the Targeting committee? (Decision making body)
1. Yes                                      2. No                                      3. I don't know
40. Did anyone in the kebele have a compliant about targeting (exclusion of chronic food insecure HH and inclusion of non-needy HH)?
1. Yes                                      2. No                                      3. I don't know
41. If yes to the above question, who were excluded?
1. More women                      2. More men                      3. Both in proportion                      4. I don't know
42. Did any one appeal the decision to the Appeals Committee and other authority
1. Yes                                      2. No                                      3. I don't know
43. Do you know women who appealed for being excluded from the beneficiary list?
1. Yes                                      2. No                                      3. I don't know
44. If yes , what was the decision?
1. The applicant was included in the list                      2. No action was taken                      3. I don't know
45. Do you think that special attention was given to women at the time of targeting?
1. Yes                                      2. No                                      3. To some extent                      4. I don't know

**B. Public works (Ask only beneficiaries of PW)**

46. How far is the working site?                      1. 3-5 km                      2. 6-10 km                      3. 11-15km                      4. > 15 km
47. Do you/ women work the same hour with men?                      1. Yes                      2. No
48. If No, what deferential treatment is there?
1. One hour exemption                      3. Only flexible starting time                      5. Break for Brest feeding at the site  
 2 Two hours exemption                      4. Only flexible leaving time
49. Do pregnant women over 6 months and lactating mothers up to 10 months relived from public works?                      1.  
 Yes                      2.No                      3. I don't know
50. What community works are built in the Kebele ( tick ), more than one answer is possible

Community Assets built	
1. Road	
2. Schools	
3. Health centers	
4. Farmers training centers (FTCs)	
5. Hillside Terraces	
6. Check dams	
7. Water harvesting	
8. Irrigation	
9. Tree planting	
10. Ponds	
11. Water well digging	
12. latrine digging	
13. others (specify)	

51. Do the community assets built under PSNP benefited you in easing your gender role?

1. Yes                      2. No                      3. To some extent

52. If your answer to Q49 is 'yes' and 'to some extent', which one, specify them

1. -----                      2. -----                      3-----                      4.-----

53.Has any work been done on your private land?

1. Yes                      2. No

54. Which form of transfer you prefer? 1. Food 2. Cash 3. Cash and food mixed

**C) House Hold Assets before and after being beneficiary of the FSP**

55. How do you evaluate the assets of your HH at present as compared to the previous ones.

1. Very high 2. High 3. A little bit higher 4 Same 5. Low

56. What are the main assets you build through FSP for your household?

Assets	Before	After
1. House		
2. Grain production ( increase)		
3. Homestead (vegetable production)		
4. Livestock production		
5. Poultry		
6. Beehives		
7. children schooling		
8. HH items ( bed, table chair, kitchen utilities )		
9. clothing		
10 Others (specify)		

57. In the last two years, did you spend anything on building a new house or improving your house and other buildings?

1. Yes 2. No

58. Do you have stocks of food that could last your household until next harvesting time ?

1. Yes 2. No

59. Do you save any amount of money for emergency cash needs such as health expenditures? 1. Yes 2. No

60. If yes at what interval? 1. Every month 2. Every 3 months 3. Every 6 months. 4. Every year

61. In the last two years, have you been forced to sell any productive assets (tools , livestock, personal items) in order to meet the food needs of your household? 1. Yes 2. No

**D. Planning and Decision-making in FSP**

62. How do you get credit from OFSP? 1. Personal 2. In group 3. others ,specify\_\_\_\_\_

63. Are women members of KFSTF? 1. Yes 2. No 3. I don't know

64. Are women members of Appeals Committee?

1. Yes 2. No 3. I don't know

65. Have you been participating in the selection and planning of community works (PW) that has to be done in your Kebele? 1. Yes 2. No

66. Are you consulted in HH decision making? (Ask only Married Women)

1. Yes, always 2. Yes, sometimes 3. Not at all 4.I don't know

67. Were there adequate options for women to choose from in the OFSP design? 1. Yes 2. No



## **Annex II: Interview and Focus Group Discussion Guide**

### **I Interview**

#### **1.1 Woreda Office of Agriculture and Rural Development**

1. Does the office have adequate agricultural professional? Female/male.
2. Is there a section which is responsible for mainstreaming gender in the sector?
3. Do female and male farmers get equal chance to get agricultural extension service?
4. Who uses the modern agricultural technologies more? (FHH/MHH) Why?
5. Are the FTCs well established? Are they in ideal locations, that women could access them easily?
6. How many female farmers participate in training programs within this two years
7. Do you demand and receive timely report on the implementation of FSP from kebeles? Are these data sex disaggregated? If not what is your reaction?

#### **1.2. Food security programs implementation unit**

1. Is the composition of members FSTF at Woreda and Kebele and community levels as stipulated in the PIM?
2. Was the project (OFSP) designed based on a real understanding of the needs of men and women in the woreda?
3. Do you believe that women are adequately pulled as beneficiary of PSNP and OFSP?
4. Was there a compliant for not being selected as a beneficiary or otherwise? Who were the complainers (Female/male)? How was that entertained?
5. Do women were involved in the planning of community works (PNSP and OFSP)? How was their participation?
6. What community works has been done based on women's demand or preferences?
7. How do you evaluate women and men in their commitment to return loans they get from OFSP?
8. What changes do you observe in the asset building of MHH, where wives are beneficiaries of OFSP?
9. Are there households that "graduated" from the PSNP in the woreda? If so, how many? Are FHH in the list?
10. Are the criteria for graduation the same for women and men?
11. Do you believe that FHH will be able to build assets over time and graduate?
12. Is the beneficiaries' data appropriately compiled? Is it sex disaggregated?

#### **1.3 Development Agents**

1. Do you believe/ think that you are extending the agricultural extension service equally to female and male farmers? What disparities do you see?
2. Is there any specific target to reach women?
3. What is your role in the FSP? How do you guide the community?
4. Do women participate in the planning of community works (PW) and OFSP?

5. How do you evaluate the effort of women in building assets to their HH?
6. Do you think that the FSP has brought change in the life of women? How and what changes do you observe FHH and women in MHH
7. Which of the programs helped women to access more resources, PSNP/OFSPs? How?
8. Do you believe that women will be able to build assets over time and graduate?

#### **1.4 Woreda Women's Affairs Bureau /Office**

1. What are the responsibilities of the Office?
2. Does it have adequate and capable staff to undertake the gender mainstreaming responsibility in the sector Offices ? How is it staffed? (Structure, Number of employees , Qualifications)
3. What is its linkage with agriculture bureau specifically its involvement in FSP?
4. Does the Office/bureau member of the FSTF at the woreda and Kebele levels? If yes, what is its role? What as been done? If not why?
5. What constraints /problems are observed in addressing gender issues in the FSP?
6. What has the office done to promote gender mainstreaming in the FSP?
7. Do you think /observe any change in the life of women after they become beneficiary of FSP? In what ways? Elaborate
8. How could your office further support FSP implementation in order to enhance the empowerment of women?

#### **1.5 Women Beneficiaries**

1. What were your challenges at time of food shortage? What coping mechanism have you employed
2. Have you been engaged in other activities? What type?
3. What are the changes you observed, after you being beneficiaries of the FSP
4. Did your husband help you in the household chores? What?
5. Do you believe that your participation in PSNP and/or OFSP changed your social status?
6. Can you take some amount of gain to sell in the market if you need to?

#### **1.6 Woreda and Kebele FSTF**

1. What are the major implementation constraints /problems in FSP? How are those constraints been dealt with?
2. Is the proportion of women to men in FSTF is as it is stipulated in the PIM? If not why?
3. Do women regularly attend the meetings of the Task Force? If not why?
4. Do they participate in discussions? Do they present viewpoints that deal with issues of gender/ women? If not what could be the reason?
5. Who else is concerned with gender/women's issues in the Task force?
6. What is your observation on women's participation in the program? Are women benefiting or otherwise?
7. Does the TF give special attention to women beneficiaries in view of empowering them?

## II Focus Group Discussion

### A) Male heads of Households

1. How do you label the role of your wife in the agricultural production (grain and livestock)?
2. What role does your wife play at time of food shortage in the household?
3. Do you believe that your wife engagement in PSNP changed the food security status of your HH?  
What changes do you observe?
4. Do you believe that her involvement in PW helped build more assets in the HH?
5. How is decision made in you HH?
6. Does she participate in community meetings and trainings? What difference do you observe in your wife's confidence?

### B) Women in MHH

1. What is your role in agricultural production?
2. What coping mechanisms were employed at time of food shortage?
3. Do you participate in the PW?
4. Are the work norms the same for women and men? Explain any differences.
5. Are women assigned as team leaders in the PWs? If so how many are there?
6. If both of you are working in PW, who usually go for collecting the cash or the food? Why?
7. Who make the major decision on the utilization of the income?
8. What changes are exhibited in your decision making status in the HH?
9. Do your husbands ever complain for the unaccomplished HH works?
10. Do your husbands treat you differently as you are bringing income (cash/ food) for the HH?
11. What do you feel about yourself at present as compared before?

### C) FHH Beneficiaries

1. What problems do you encounter as beneficiary of FSPs? ( PSNP, DS, OFSP)
2. What changes are observed in your economic life? (clothing, nutrition, children schooling, household assets, income)
3. How is your participation in the planning of community works in your Kebele?
4. Do you express your viewpoints in community meetings?
5. Does the design and planning of the OFSP is in your need and preferences?
6. Do you believe that your economic status bring about a change in your social relations in your community? Have you been elected as leaders of Idir, associations, called by the Kebele administration to participate in decisions' that affect the community?
7. What other opportunities do you think that your participation in the program brought you about?
8. Do you observe any change in people's attitude towards you?
9. What do you feel about yourself?

### Annex III: Interview and FGD Participants Profile

	Key informants	Position	Total	Sex
1	MoARD	➤ -FSOB Director ➤ FSP Coordinator ➤ -Senior expert	3	Male
2	WOARD	-FS Process owner - FS case workers	3	Male
		Extension supervisors	2	Male
3	WOWA	Head -experts	3	Female
4	KOARD	Development Agents	2	Male
5	Kebele Administration	Managers	2	Female in Faji
		Land Administration unit heads	2	Male
6	KFSTF	Committee members	6	2 Female
				4 Male
7	FHH		6	Female
8	Women in MHH		6	Female
9	Men (husbands)		10	Male
	Total		45	

### Participants of Focus Group Discussion

No.		Faji Kebele	Shilafaf Kebele
1	FHH	11	8
2	Women in MHH	9	10
3	Men (husbands)	12	13

## Annex IV-Tables

**Table 2 Who engaged in other income generating activities**

	Frequency	Percent
Not engaged in IGA	90	34.2
Myself	115	43.7
My husband	27	10.3
My children	8	3.0
Both of us	22	8.4
Other family members	1	.4
Total	263	100.0

**Table 3 Non-farming Income Generating activities**

	Frequency	Percent
Not engaged in IGA	41	15.6
Weaving/Spinning	30	11.4
Handcraft/Pottery	10	3.8
Local Drinks (Tella, Tej, Areke)	104	39.5
Selling firewood or dunk cakes	21	8.0
Pety trading of food items, vegetables, etc	22	8.4
Selling labour	20	7.6
Others	15	5.7
Total	263	100.0

**Table 5 Respondents by Marital status**

	Frequency	Percent
Married	127	48.3
Single	11	4.2
Divorced	74	28.1
Widow	47	17.9
Separated	4	1.5
Total	263	100.0

**Table 9 Ways of Accessing land**

	Frequency	Percent
Inherited from parents	51	21.2
Through spouse	21	10.0
Through land redistribution	139	65.8
Total	211	100.0

**Table 6 Educational Status of Respondents in Faji and Shilafaf kebele**

kebele		Illiterate	Read & Write	Grade 1-4	Grade 5-8	Grade 9-12	Total
9	Count	69	27	4	24	5	129
	% within kebele	53.5%	20.9%	3.1%	18.6%	3.9%	100.0%
	% within Educational Status	42.9%	65.9%	18.2%	70.6%	100.0%	49.0%
	% of Total	26.2%	10.3%	1.5%	9.1%	1.9%	49.0%
15	Count	92	14	18	10	0	134
	% within kebele	68.7%	10.4%	13.4%	7.5%	.0%	100.0%
	% within Educational Status	57.1%	34.1%	81.8%	29.4%	.0%	51.0%
	% of Total	35.0%	5.3%	6.8%	3.8%	.0%	51.0%
Total	Count	161	41	22	34	5	263
	% within kebele	61.2%	15.6%	8.4%	12.9%	1.9%	100.0%
	% within Educational Status	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	61.2%	15.6%	8.4%	12.9%	1.9%	100.0%

**Table 11 Women's Access to Agricultural Extension in Faji and Shilafaf**

			Access to agricultural extension		Total
			Yes	No	
kebele	9	Count	82	47	129
		% within kebele	63.6%	36.4%	100.0%
		% of Total	31.2%	17.9%	49.0%
	15	Count	50	84	134
		% within kebele	37.3%	62.7%	100.0%
		% of Total	19.0%	31.9%	51.0%
Total	Count	132	131	263	
	% within kebele	50.2%	49.8%	100.0%	

**Table 14 Access to improved Household Technology**

Kebele		Do you use improved energy saving stoves		Total
		yes	no	
9	Count	48	81	129
	% within kebele	37.2%	62.8%	100.0%
	% within Do you use improved energy saving stoves	61.5%	43.8%	49.0%
	% of Total	18.3%	30.8%	49.0%
15	Count	30	104	134
	% within kebele	22.4%	77.6%	100.0%
	% within Do you use improved energy saving stoves	38.5%	56.2%	51.0%
	% of Total	11.4%	39.5%	51.0%
Total	Count	78	185	263
	% within kebele	29.7%	70.3%	100.0%
	% within Do you use improved energy saving stoves	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	29.7%	70.3%	100.0%

**Table 16 Decision made on Appeals**

	Frequency	Percent
I do not know the appeal	71	27.0
Those who appeal have been included	61	23.2
No action was taken	36	13.7
I do not know the decision	94	35.7
Total	263	100.0

**Table 20 Was Payment on Time**

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	32	12.2
Delayed sometimes	123	46.8
Delayed most of the time	108	41.1
Total	263	100.0

**Table 21 Households Asset Possession Before and After PSNP**

Type of Asset	No of Assets	FHH		MHH	
		Before	After	Before	After
Ox	1	18	18	26	47
	2	6	1	5	3
	3	6	0	3	0
Cow	1	26	36	32	42
	2	4	0	1	0
Other than cow and ox	1	10	17	18	24
	2	0	7	4	7
	3	0	0	0	1
	4	0	2	0	0
	5	0	0	0	2
Sheep	1	4	6	7	3
	2	5	3	7	3
	3	5	13	7	6
	4	4	5	6	3
	5	1	3	2	0
	6	1	3	2	2
	8	2	1	2	3
Goat	1	0	5	3	8
	2	3	1	0	3
	4	0	2	1	4
	5	1	0	1	2
Donkeys	1	3	4	9	12
	2	0	1	0	3
	3	0	0	3	0
	7	0	0	1	3
Horse	1	0	2	1	1
Mules	1	2	3	4	3
	2	0	1	1	2
Hens	1	6	10	6	13
	2	4	10	3	9
	3	1	5	0	6
	4	0	5	3	6
	5	0	0	2	4
	6	0	3	2	5
	8	2	3	3	2
	10	3	2	7	5
	11	0	2	0	2
	22	0	0	1	1

**Table 24 Variation between Kebeles in Women’s Participation in  
Planning and Decision –making**

Kebele	Respondents	Participate in the selection and planning of community works		
		Yes	No	Total
9	Count	101	28	129
	% within kebele	78.3%	21.7%	100.0%
	% within Participate in the selection and planning of community works	75.9%	21.5%	49.0%
	Total	38.4%	10.6%	49.0%
15	Count	32	102	134
	% within kebele	23.9%	76.1%	100.0%
	% within Participate in the selection and planning of community works	24.1%	78.5%	51.0%
	Total	12.2%	38.8%	51.0%
Total	Count	133	130	263
	% within kebele	50.6%	49.4%	100.0%
	% within Participate in the selection and planning of community works	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	Total	50.6%	49.4%	100.0%

**Table 26 Women's Participation in the Farming**

		Not enough labour	Myself	My husband	Myself and my children	My husband and my children	All family members	others specify	I and my husband	
Married	Count	49	9	23	1	18	18	4	5	127
	% within Marital Status	38.6%	7.1%	18.1%	.8%	14.2%	14.2%	3.1%	3.9%	100.0%
	% within Who does the farming/production work	41.2%	29.0%	76.7%	2.9%	100.0%	94.7%	66.7%	83.3%	48.3%
	% of Total	18.6%	3.4%	8.7%	.4%	6.8%	6.8%	1.5%	1.9%	48.3%
Single	Count	3	4	0	4	0	0	0	0	11
	% within Marital Status	27.3%	36.4%	.0%	36.4%	.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	100.0%
	% within Who does the farming/production work	2.5%	12.9%	.0%	11.8%	.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	4.2%
	% of Total	1.1%	1.5%	.0%	1.5%	.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	4.2%
Divorced	Count	40	10	7	13	0	1	2	1	74
	% within Marital Status	54.1%	13.5%	9.5%	17.6%	.0%	1.4%	2.7%	1.4%	100.0%
	% within Who does the farming/production work	33.6%	32.3%	23.3%	38.2%	.0%	5.3%	33.3%	16.7%	28.1%
	% of Total	15.2%	3.8%	2.7%	4.9%	.0%	.4%	.8%	.4%	28.1%
Widow	Count	24	8	0	15	0	0	0	0	47
	% within Marital Status	51.1%	17.0%	.0%	31.9%	.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	100.0%
	% within Who does the farming/production work	20.2%	25.8%	.0%	44.1%	.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	17.9%
	% of Total	9.1%	3.0%	.0%	5.7%	.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	17.9%
Separated	Count	3	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	4
	% within Marital Status	75.0%	.0%	.0%	25.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	100.0%
	% within Who does the farming/production work	2.5%	.0%	.0%	2.9%	.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	1.5%
	% of Total	1.1%	.0%	.0%	.4%	.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	1.5%
Total	Count	119	31	30	34	18	19	6	6	263
	% within Marital Status	45.2%	11.8%	11.4%	12.9%	6.8%	7.2%	2.3%	2.3%	100.0%
	% within Who does the farming/production work	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	45.2%	11.8%	11.4%	12.9%	6.8%	7.2%	2.3%	2.3%	100.0%

**Table 28 Household Chores and Public Works**

Who does the house work	Frequency	Percent
Myself when I am back	157	66.5
Children after school	25	10.6
My husband and other household members	49	20.7
Others	5	2.1
Total	236	100.0

**Table 29 Child care during Public Works**

Who take care the child	Frequency	Percent
My husband	33	12.5
Elder children	118	44.9
Other members of the household	27	10.3
Neighbors	30	11.4
I carry them to the site	13	4.9
No Child at home this time	42	16.0
Total	263	100.0

## 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 all the references used for the thesis have been fully acknowledge.

Student's Name Mulumebet Melaku

Signature \_\_\_\_\_

Date of Submission \_\_\_\_\_

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

Advisor's Name Dr. Workneh Negatu

Signature \_\_\_\_\_

Date \_\_\_\_\_