THE ROLE OF MARRIED WOMEN IN HOUSEHOLD FOOD SECURITY:THE CASE OF KERSA KONDALTITI WOREDA, WEST SHEWA

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ABSTRACT

This paper is aimed at examining the role of women in household food security. The content, however, is confined to the realities in three kebeles of Kersa Kondaltiti Woreda. Kersa Kondaltiti is found in the West Shewa Zone of the Oromia Regional State. It is located 60 kms south of Addis Ababa on the main road to Butajira.

Results of the study have revealed that women in the area participate actively both in crop and in livestock production. However, they are denied of ownership of productive assets (i.e. land and livestock), and the fruit of their labor. They have little power on the decision of the selling and disposing of the income that is earned from the field crops and from the larger animals except their products,such as butter. This has resulted in the women having less purchasing power, which further affects their participation in the market and in the household's access to food.

In addition, it has been established that availability of women's labor is very essential to household food security in relation to the provision of processed food for consumption. Besides, fetching water, gathering fuel wood and grinding grain have been found to be ensuring factors for household food security. As a result, since most of women's time is utilized by these daily activities their involvement in other income generating activities is restrained. The study has strongly established that the role of women in household food security is crucial, but that under the curtailing conditions for women - - the key actors - the desired food security could not be ensured.

CHAPTER ONE

1. Introduction

General

Women have a crucial role in ensuring household food security. They play an important role in the production of food at household level. Women contribute the majority of subsistence farming, producing more than 75% of food in the Sub-Saharan African countries (AAFS, 1987). The situation is no different for women in rural Ethiopia (Dejene, 1989; Elssa, 1986; Fetenu, 1989). According to the World Bank report (1998) for the year 1994, 86 percent of rural women, regardless of their marital status, who are classified as economically active, are engaged in agriculture.

Women are also the main food processors for consumption in the household. To process food for consumption women have to gather fuel wood and fetch water. More often rural women do not get fuel-wood and water easily from the nearest area. Therefore, travelling a long distance carrying the load on their back is a rule rather than an exception (World Bank, 1993).

Furthermore, women are engaged in income generating activities, which supplement the family income and this is commonly used to purchase food at times of scarcity. In this case, they make substantial contribution to the household economy by selling some agricultural products or engaging themselves in off-farm activities, such as trading and informal economic activities (Dessalegn, 1989).

All these factors make women in the rural area the main caretakers of the family as a whole. At home, women spend their time often cleaning the house, washing clothes, caring for children, nursing the sick, and etc.

Thus the paper, next to the introduction section sets out reviewing the concept of food security and the role of rural women in household food security. It then proceeds by describing the main feature of the *Woreda* in general and women's situation in particular. A very essential part of the study relates to women's role as producers, providers and processors of food. A special emphasis is given to description of factors affecting women's role in or contribution to the household, i.e. access and control over land, income and decision making in the household. The core of the work lies in determining the implications and repercussions these factors have on their role.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

In their efforts to generate household food supply or income, women shoulder substantial responsibility (AAFS, 1987). African women are engaged as family labor, in agricultural as well as in wage labor and other income earning activities and generate substantial proportion and, sometimes, even all the basic daily food for the family. In most cases, as time allocation studies show, women work longer hours than men do in supporting the family livelihood (Zewdie, 1990).

A number of studies indicate that while men devote a relatively small part of all their income to household food expenditure, women devote a substantial part of all of their income to household

food and other basic needs (Davidson, 1988). Women in rural Ethiopia like in other African countries exhibit the same responsibility, as mentioned above, in supplying food to the family (Dejene, 1989; Elssa, 1986; Fetenu, 1989).

Food security, according to FAO (1984), is not only to mean food self-sufficiency because there may be insufficient dietary food available in the household though food production exceeds food requirements at national level. This is due to the fact that food availability at household level is not only dependent on the availability of land and labor work on the land to grow the crops but also on the labor, time and facilities for the preparation and distribution patterns within a household.

The above-mentioned factors, i.e. labor, time and facilities are necessary to secure sufficient dietary food within the household. The main actors who spend much of their labor power and time in securing household food are women. They engage in the production as well as in the preparation of food until it is ready for consumption. For these processes, in addition to labor power and time availability, facilities like extension service, water and fuel wood are also the required factors.

Though women are the dominant actors in the preparation and distribution of food within the household, they are socially excluded from physical resources, such as land, extension and income. Exclusion of women's access to physical resources limits their agricultural productivity, which in turn decreases their role in securing food to households. In other words, 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).

In addition to the physical resources, water and fuel wood would also have an effect on the household food security. Water is recognized as a vital resource and key input for household food security (for cooking). However, supply of water in most rural parts of the country is inadequate, often involving unnecessary expenditure of women's time and energy for its fetching. According to the World Bank Situation Report (1993) most of the women in rural Ethiopia have to walk long distance to fetch water so as to fulfil the need of the family.

The link between nutritional levels (particularly for children) and access to fuel-wood is crucial. Scarcity of fuel wood in the proximity of rural settlement demands more of women's time and energy. Therefore, time and energy spent on fuel wood collection in turn competes with other family responsibilities. As a result of time constraint and lack of fuel-wood, women are forced to reduce the frequency of cooking family meal. Where once the family could expect two or three hot meals a day, due to the mentioned limitations this could be reduced to once a day (UNICEF, 1993). This situation adversely affects the overall nutrition and well being of the family.

The fact that women are excluded from advisory services like Extension implies the possible lack of knowledge women might require for food security (FAO, 1984). Therefore, this study addresses the association between food security, access to means of production, extension, and income in the household.

On this account the primary focus of the research is on women's role in the society particularly in household food security.

1.2 **Objective of the Study**

The objective of the study is to examine and analyze women's role in household food security, particularly the specific objectives are:

1. Explore the gender-based division of labor in making use of the resources they have in securing food to the household.
2. Women's involvement in the household economic decisions.
3. Explore the major constraints that affect women's role in household food security.

1.3 Significance of the Study

Many tasks, which are carried out by women, are generally unpaid and do not bring marketable output, do not get classified and are recorded as "domestic". Hence it is difficult to measure women's contributions to household food security.

Though this study was undertaken merely for academic curiosity, a further benefit might accrue from this study. Since much of the development literature in Ethiopia does not focus on the role of women in household food security, it is hoped that this study could contribute to the subject matter in filling the gap.

1.4 Research Questions

For a clear documentation of women's role in household food security in the study area, a number of research questions were raised and addressed during the study period.

The major research questions were:

- What roles do women play in securing food to the family?
- What are the special efforts that women exert in securing food to a household?
- Do women have a significant contribution to household food security?
- What type of resources do women possess? And how do they secure food to their household?
- How is the gender division of labor in the study area, specially in securing food to a household?
- Are there any constraints imposed on women that influence or hinder their responsibility particularly in securing food to the family?
- What additional labor inputs are provided by women/men to provide consumable food and food products to a household?
- Are there any opportunities of off-farm employment for men/women in the study area?
- Which type of food items do women/men supply to the market?
- On the food products provided by women/men, what are the women's/men's decision-making inputs?

1.5 Research Hypothesis

In this study it was hypothesized that:

- **Women play a crucial role in household food security. Improved household food security is closely linked with women's access to different productive resources, including land, income, and participation in decision making on the use of income.**

1.6 Data Collection Technique and Methods of Analysis

Since women are far from being a homogenous group, they need to be divided into different categories. For the purpose of data collection, focus has been made on married women.

The method developed for the analysis of women's role in household food security involves a set of information gathered from samples of women representing the Kersa Kondaltiti *Woreda* to explore women's role in the household food security. The sample size was 120 rural households from three *Kebeles* of the *Woreda*.

Based on the preliminary testing of the structured interview, it has been found that some role differentiation existed between women in the household among the different agro-ecological zones of the *Woreda*. As a result, it necessitated stratifying household units into homogenous categories by agro-ecological zones. Out of the forty-nine *Kebele* administrations in the *Woreda* three were selected by purposive sampling technique based on the following strata:

- Agro-ecology: taking in to account the existing variations in the agro-ecological conditions of the various *Kebeles*.
- Proximity to the main weekly market: taking into account the physical access of households to food.

Using this technique, sampled *Kebeles* were selected, that included one *Kebele* from *Kolla* (lowland), namely Becheki, near Sutan market; one *Kebele* from *Weina-dega* (mid-land) namely Adadi-Maryam, near Lemen and Adadi market; and one *Kebele* from *Dega* (highland), Tuka-Godeti, near Gibiso market.

Household sample was selected from each selected *Kebele* using systematic random sampling. Recent sampling frame (list of households of the selected *Kebeles*) for selecting the samples was secured from the *Woreda* administration. The size of sampled households from which women were selected from each *Kebele* was set using the minimal sample size determination (i.e. 32 households in each *Kebele*), and moreover, the remaining 24 households from which women interviewees were selected were distributed among the selected *Kebeles* using proportional population size method.

A stratified random sampling method was preferred in order to attain optimal accuracy, considering the logistical, financial and time limitations of the research.

Data collection and analysis

A conventional structured questionnaire was developed for data collection at household level for women respondents, a household being a unit of analysis. The draft questionnaire was discussed with WVE (Tiya ADP) staff and experts from the Social and Labour Affairs Office of the *Woreda*. The questionnaire was pre-tested and modified based on preliminary results.

The conventional structured survey covered 120 rural households. In conducting the survey, six enumerators were recruited, and among these, three were taken from the office of *Woreda* Administration and the other three from the selected *Kebeles* in the *Woreda.* A one-day training program was organized for enumerators before the commencement of the survey. The main objective of the training was introducing the objective of the study, the approaches to employ with the interviewees and the manner of administering the questionnaire.

Informal discussions were also conducted with individuals (particularly with six women), group of peoples (with a number of eleven men and nine women in a group separately), and elderly community informants (three elders). These informal interviews and discussions with the community have particularly been valuable to provide general insight and as a cross-checking method against the findings of the conventional structured questionnaire survey. Some facts, which were not disclosed during structured survey, were also disclosed during informal discussions. Besides self-observation and rapid market assessment were used during the fieldwork.

In addition, secondary data were also used. Books, proceedings, project reports, census data and other published and unpublished materials were reviewed during the study period.

The analysis of the data is mainly descriptive and qualitative and was compiled and analyzed using statistical and related software (SPSS and Spread Sheet Excel).

CHAPTER TWO

2. Review of Literature

2.1 The Concept of Food Security

Food is any substance containing nutrients which provide mental nourishment or stimulus (Collins, 1998). It is a major contributor to health and wellbeing, and all human beings should get adequate food when the need arises.

The conventional definition of food security reads "secure access by all people at all times to enough food for an active and healthy life" (World Bank, 1986). This signifies a reliable access to sufficiency and is determined by the capabilities of a household to maintain the flow of food supplies (Debebe, 1995). Maintaining such flow of supplies largely depends on production, exchange or transfer. Access may also be seen from a different angle making reference to food "entitlement" which is the collective food items which an individual can bring under his/her ownership (Debebe, 1995). Adequate food entitlement naturally results from a reliable stock of capital, labor or social resources.

In relation to entitlement, Sen and Grown (1988) on the other hand identified four main categories of entitlements:

1) Trade-based entitlement refers to what individuals can buy with the commodities and cash they own.
2) Production-based entitlement that describe the right to own what one produces with one's own resources

3) Own - labor entitlement that describes the sale of one's own labor power, and the resulting trade based entitlements
4) Inheritance and transfer entitlement that refers to the right to own what is willingly given by others as remittance, gifts, as well as transfer from the state, such as social security, pensions, and food distribution.

Food security, from another perspective (Eshetu, 1990) depends on:

- Increase in the availability of food
- Stabilization of food supply
- Improvement in food distribution to consumers

Increasing the provision of food and maintaining a supply of unfluctuating character can be achieved through production, import, or, in cases of extreme difficulty, by way of humanitarian aid. Increasing food distribution to individual households[1], on the other hand, requires improvement in availability or supplies of adequate economic and physical access to food, which in turn are determined by income.

As Dagnew (1994) puts it, economic access comes from an adequate purchasing power, while physical access refers to the proximity to markets through which food may be acquired.

[1] Household is defined as members having a common source of major income; they share a common source of food; and they sleep under the same roof or within the same compound (Casley and Lury 1987:163 as cited in Getachew (1991:Annex 1).

Availability of food as one component of food security involves food supply at different levels: national, regional, local and household levels (Christiaensen, 1997). At regional and local level it is equated with national; regional or local balances, i.e. between availability and need based on assumed required level of food intake. At household level food security is equated with sufficiency of household entitlements incorporating food production resources, income available for purchases, and assistance sufficient to meet the aggregate needs of all household members. Achieving food security in this case is largely determined by an assumption of minimum nutritional need.

Not only has the concept of food security been redefined but also the issue of food security has to consider the availability and the need for food with an emphasis on household food security.

Thus, food security, according to FAO (1984), is not only to mean food self-sufficiency because there may be insufficient dietary food available in the household though food production exceeds food requirements at national level. This is because that food availability at household level is not only dependent on the availability of land and labor work on the land to grow the crops but also on the labor, time and facilities for the preparation and distribution patterns within a household. To obtain a sufficient dietary food within the household, the above-mentioned factors, i.e. labor, time and facilities are necessary.

According to Getachew (1991), the availability of household food depends on their access to productive resources while the demand for food within the household depends on the ability to generate income through sale of labor, livestock, cash crops and others. This processes, i.e. the

availability and demands for food within a household form a food system that determines the consumption level. But according to him [Getachew] this system is formed from different components; and these are:

i. The household itself consists of its productive resources and consumption unit. The productive resources include land, labor (both for farm production and off-farm income generation), household valuables, ownership of livestock that generates income as well as traction power for crop production, and crop yields and animal products to generate income or processed for consumption.

ii. Cash income earning opportunities: earning cash by means of off-farm employment, such as cash for work, trading, handicrafts, farm labor, casual work, and other part time employment. These further contribute to a household asset position and their ability to maintain cash stock for the purpose of market exchange.

iii. The market which consists of product and input markets where a household exchange various resources to satisfy its needs. This involves sale of livestock and livestock products and sale of crop.

iv. Institutions that meditate flows of resources: Four components are identified. The first is the household itself where decisions regarding resource allocation and mobilization is made. The second refers other households and community institutions which involves mutual help, resource sharing and food gifts. The third institution is noted as the state

providing famine relief, cash for work, food imports to strengthen the food system. The final institution is the market component where traders, consumers and the state take part and a range of exchange takes place.

Food security is also considered as one of the major aspects of livelihood security[2] (Dagnew, 1994; Yared, 2000; Masfield, 2000). The availability of adequate food reserves, supply of food and cash are essential elements required to meet people's basic need or livelihoods. In this case, livelihood security is achieved through ownership entitlements, or access to adequate productive resources (like land and labor) and income earning activities, availability and access to stable employment, opportunities with adequate remuneration, food reserves and sustainable supply to reduce risks and cop with unexpected shortfalls (Dagnew, 1994).

2.2 Women and Their Role in Household Food Security

All over Africa men and women have separate responsibilities and play different but complementary roles. Though the gender division of labor differs considerably across borders depending on culture and economical status, women universally carry the major burden of producing food and providing daily consumption to the family (Davidson, 1988). Were (1989) noted that "it is really hard to develop, unless the development programs encompass homes, particularly the women's role."

[2] Livelihood security is a very broad concept that generally includes the basic human needs such as food, shelter, health care, basic education, productive assets to earn a living, and good relations with other neighbors (Dagnew, 1994)

On the contrary some social scientists limit the role of women. For instance, Mead (1950) depicts the sex roles as follows "The home shared a man or men and female partners, in to which men bring the food and women prepare it, is the basic common picture of the world over" (quoted in Boserup 1970:16). Commenting on this idea, Boserup points out that "She [Mead] is right in describing the preparation of food as a monopoly for women in nearly all communities, but the surmise that the provision of food is a man's prerogative is unwarranted" (1970:16).

According to many studies, the division of labor for women in relation to household food security is divided in to two major ways (Malima, 1993; Missana, 1993):

a) In their role as producers of food:

Women in rural areas of Africa play an important role in the production of food for home consumption and as household managers. They engage in such activities like horticulture, weeding, raking, harvesting the crops, and in processing till it is ready for consumption. As many literatures indicate traditionally anyhow women in many parts of Africa are the ones who do most of the farm work (Malima, 1993; Missana, 1993). In general, women in Africa do upto three-quarters of all agricultural work so as to ensure household food security in addition to their domestic responsibilities.

Women in other rural Africa, as compared to men, are responsible for 30% of ploughing, 50% of planting, 60% of domestic animal care, 60% of harvesting, 70% of weeding, 85% of processing and storing crops (AAFS, 1987; Dankleman & Davidson, 1991). It is estimated

that 78% of the women in Africa are active in agriculture compared with only 64% of men (Gittinger et al., 1990).

In pastoralist areas where there is no crop production, women also have a central role in ensuring household food security. Engaging themselves in herding, provision of water and fodder, cleaning stalls, milking, collecting dung for cooking and processing of animal products (FAO, 1984; AAFS, 1987; 1989). They also perform the aforementioned activities in mixed farming areas.

b) Women's contribution to household food security is being able to provide purchasing power with which to purchase food for the family. The ability of women to earn an income contributes to the provision of food for the family.

Since food security entails the capacity to acquire food, women in rural areas often participate in husbandry and marketing of small animals, like sheep, goats and poultry. By doing so, women contribute to the increase of family food intake. A study carried out by Goheen (1988: 92) in the Northwest province of Cameroon shows that the relative contribution by women to the household budget through home grown food supplies is over 90% of calories and proteins consumed within the household.

The same study indicates that of the total personal income in cash of men and women, men contribute 58.7% and women contribute 41.9% to the household. The major part of women's

contribution comes from the market value of their subsistence crops, while men's income is evenly distributed between marketable crops and off farm income (Davidson, 1994:102).

But in relation to the household food availability, with respect to women's role in the above two ways there is a commonly held notion that female headed households have less available food than the male headed households (Blackden, & Bhanu, 1999). The main reason for this situation is associated to women's limited access to the productive resources (land and income), and lack of time.

Though the main actors who spend much of their labor power and time in securing household food are women, the flow of resources to enhance household food security still eludes them. Women are socially excluded from physical resources such as land, extension and income. Exclusion of women's access to physical resources limits their agricultural productivity and this may have a negative impact on the different roles of women including food security to the household (World Bank, 1993).

In order to ensure household food security, the available food should be accessible and affordable. In achieving this, labor power, time availability and facilities like water and fuel wood can also be considered as ensuring factors. Water and fuel wood in addition to their direct impact on the availability of food for consumption have an impact on women's time which could be used for other productive activities. However, it is noted that literature reviewed both on Ethiopian experiences and other Third World countries do not focus on the availability of fuel wood, water and utilization of women's time.

2.3 Factors that Affect Women's Role in Household Food Security

The unbalanced division of labor within the household places serious constraints on the efforts of women to increase food production and to devote enough time to feeding the families, thus having a negative impact on food security. There are a number of constraints imposed on women that hinder their contributions in the area of household food security (FAO, 1984; Davidson, 1988; Gittinger et al., 1990)

As Zenebework (1997) puts it the principal indicator of the gender gap in Ethiopia is landlessness of most women. Most legislations have not really promoted women's legal ownership and inheritance rights and have at times undermined women's traditional use rights under customary land tenure systems by registering land in the name of the husband or first son (FAO, 1984).

In this connection, the land reform of 1975 has been assessed by Dessalegn as being "not emphatic in its affirmation of women's right to land, if not formally discriminate against them in this regard. In essence it did not significantly improve their lot, nor, however make it any worse" (Dessalegn, 1994 quoted in Zenebework, 1997:76).

This situation marginalizes women from active participation in using the products of the land. Given that women represent about half of the agricultural labor force of the rural Ethiopia, this act seriously constrains women's productivity and the households' access to food.

The other major factor which restrains women's contributions to household food security is the lack of decision making power. Rural women in Ethiopia traditionally do not have decision making and managerial power over both the spheres of field crops and livestock production (Zewdie, 1998; ZOLSA, 1995). However, they have considerable decision making power over the domestic role of food preparation and small ruminants (ZOLSA, 1995).

Not being empowered to make decisions over larger assets and control productive assets is inter-linked with women's lack of sources of cash income. Lack of cash income means they often lack the necessary working capital for non-farm entrepreneurial and employment activities. Though women do not have full command over them, these are crucial to provide the means to efficiently fulfil their responsibilities in securing the livelihood of their family.

PART TWO - RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

CHAPTER THREE

3. Main Features of the Study Area and Sampled Households

3.1 Peculiarities of Kersa Kondaltiti *Woreda*: West Shewa

Kersa Kondaltiti *Woreda* is one of the *Woredas* of West Shewa Zone of Oromia Regional State. It is located 60 kms south of Addis Ababa on the main road to Butajira. The *Woreda* comprises of forty-nine administrative *kebeles* (Figure 2). It has wide-ranging topographic features dominated by plateaus, undulating lands, hilly slopes and rugged terrain.

Kersa Kondaltiti has a total population of 92,364 of which 3.96% live in urban area i.e. in Lemen town, while 96.04% live in rural areas of the *Woreda*. Population growth rate is estimated to be 3.1 per cent per annum (MEDaC, 1997).

According to the information obtained from the *Woreda* Agriculture Office documentation, there are 20,067 households in the *Woreda,* of which 1,869 (9.3%) are female-headed, with a mean household size of 6.39. Distribution of households significantly vary among individual *Kebeles*, the highest being Guye with 699 households and the lowest Arifeta which has 122 households (see Annex I). The *Woreda* is mainly inhabited by two ethnic groups, Oromo and Gurage, where the Oromo form the majority (85%), having different big and small clans. The major clans are Malima, Liben and Tume. The people in the *Woreda* are predominantly Orthodox Christians.

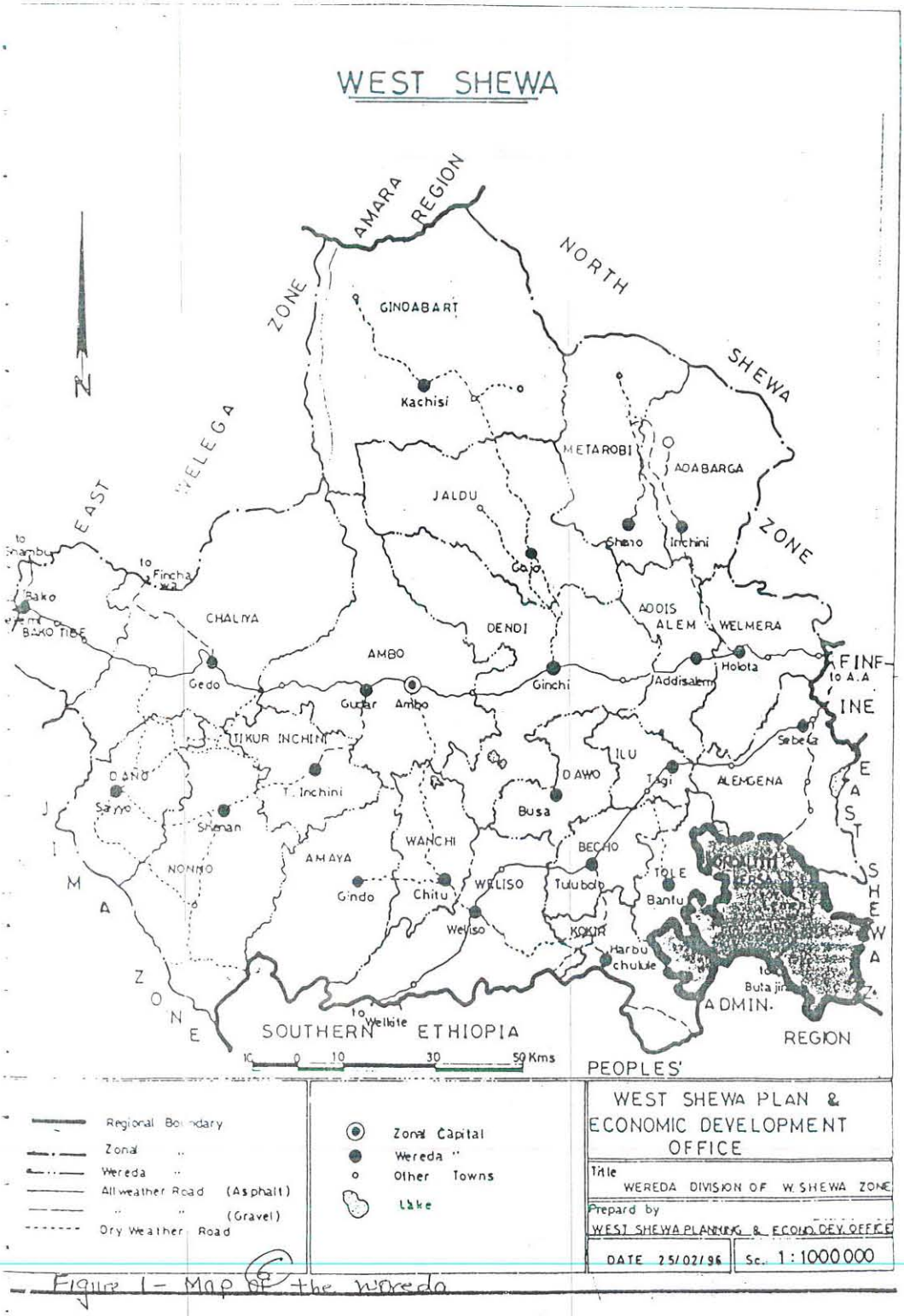


Figure 1 - Map of the woreda

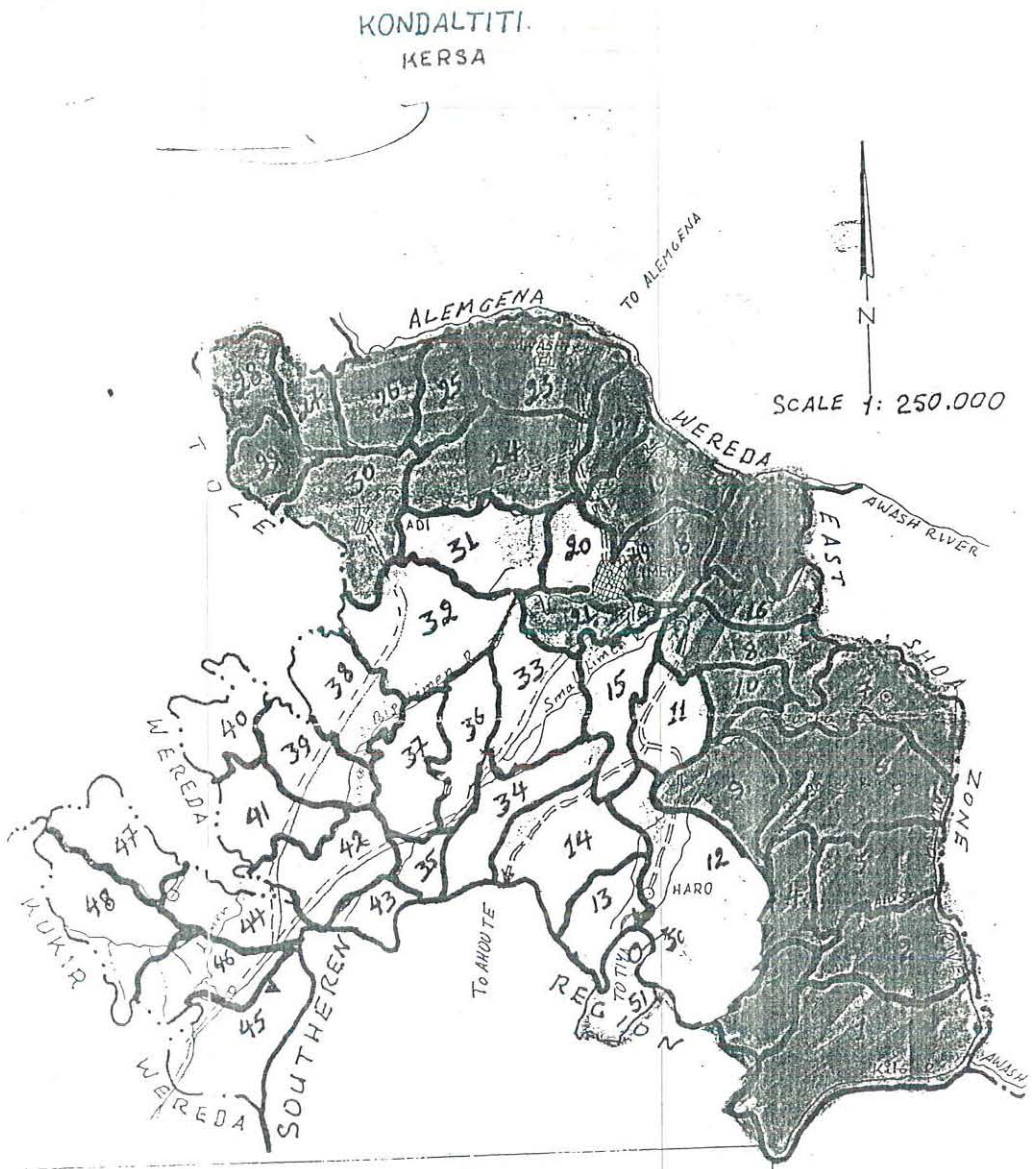


Figure 2 - Map o
Kebeles in the
woreda - see

Trading can be characterized by low volume of commodities handled by periodic rural markets (WVE, 1999). Usually trading is limited to petty commodity transactions, between rural agricultural households. In addition, the quantity of commodities taken by these traders is very much limited and transported by pack animals. As it is observed throughout Kersa Kondaltiti, at periodic markets, grains, livestock and its products, poultry, processed *enset*, rural consumer goods such as salt, kerosene, soap, cloth, shoes, cooking oil, charcoal, fuel wood, coffee and some others are available. The most important bulk of commodity trading (in terms of capital and volume of commodity handled) is carried out in the three main markets of the *Woreda* (Lemen, Adadi-Mariam and Gibiso).

In the *Woreda* infrastructure development is so poor, except in the town. There are no electric power and adequate water supply. Also the physical accessibility network that could link *Kebeles* in Kersa *Woreda* is not well developed. Consequently, it can be said that the road network in the *Woreda* can not adequately serve movement of commodity within and between *Kebeles* as well as connecting it to other regions. Two of *Kebeles* under study, Adadi-Mariam and Tuka-Godeti, are linked by a 12- and 19-km road, respectively, to the main road from Addis to Butajira. However, one *Kebele* i.e. Bechikie, of the selected does not have road network which connects it to the main road. It is accessible only by a track road using only field vehicles (4-wheel drives), and it is 10 km. from the main Addis - Butajira road.

The deterioration of household food security status is the main feature of the *Woreda*. The status of household food security is getting deteriorated as compared to the previous last two years. According to the *Woreda's* Food Security Monitoring Report (WVE, 1999), the catastrophe is

largely attributed to the reduced *Meher* production in the fiscal year 1998 and *Belg* rainfall failure in 1999. In addition, according to the *Woreda*'s Agricultural office documentation it is estimated that about 9,194 people will be starved in 2000 due to failure of *Belg* rainfall.

The deterioration of agricultural production in the *Woreda* has resulted in the change of cropping pattern and has added a burden on women. During the time of scarcity, *enset* is preferred to other food crops because of its availability during drought seasons. People in the area are adapting *enset* plantations in response to the decline of other agricultural products. In this case *enset* has got advantages. Some of these are:

- It is more resistant to climatic change than cereals
- It can be harvested at any time of the year
- Processed *enset* can be stored for a year or more without getting spoiled.

Agro-ecological Setting

Agro-ecological classification is closely linked to resource endowments and has a major determining role in distinguishing different farming systems. This diversity in the farming system in turn creates significant geographical diversity in household economic opportunities and particularly in women's role in the household.

Three agro-ecological systems are identified in Kersa Kondaltiti *Woreda*. These include lowland (*Kolla*), midland (*Weina-Dega*) and highland (*Dega*), forming 16%, 55% and 29%, of the total area coverage of the *Woreda*, respectively. Altitude of the area ranges from 1700 meters above

sea level (masl) at lowlands to more than 3200 masl at the mountain peaks in highlands in the southwest of the *Woreda*. In the *Woreda* a total number of 9, 19 and 21 *Kebeles* are in lowland, midland and highland zones, respectively (Annex I).

The rainfall pattern is identified to be bimodal, usually the erratic short rains occur from February to April, followed by main rainy season which is the main harvest season to the *Woreda* accounting about 90 per cent of their production. The average amount of rainfall received per annum ranges from 500mm to 1400mm, with the mean annual temperature of 18°c to 25°c. Many of the streams in the *Woreda* drain to the Awash River (WVE, 1997).

Production activities

Agriculture is the mainstay of the population in the *Woreda*. The *Woreda* basically practices subsistence mixed farming including cereal, root crops (such as *enset*) and livestock production. Cash crop production, such as growing pulses, is also carried out to some extent.

1. **Cereal Crop Production**: Cereal crops are produced in the *Woreda* covering significant area. About 52, 549 hectare of land was cultivated during 1999 main production season for the production of cereals and pulses. This consists of 14,860 ha planted for wheat; 12,104 ha for *teff;* 7,447 ha for barely; 4,810 ha for chick pea; 4,491 ha for bean; 3,997 ha for pea; 1,992 ha for vetch; 1,800 ha for lentils; 768 ha for maize; 115 ha for flax; 94 ha for *noug;* 50 ha for *abish* and 21 ha for sorghum (WVE, 1999).

2. **Root Crop Production**: *Enset* is the single most important root crop widely grown in the study area, particularly in the highland parts of the *Woreda*. *Enset* is known by foreigners a "false banana". According to FAO (1986:12), a study carried out in south Shewa, *enset* production is basic to agriculture, economy and indeed to the social life. This notion is appreciated by WVE, which distributes *enset* seedlings to households in the *Woreda* so as to secure their household food consumption.

The cultivation of *enset* is usually carried out around the homestead. Its production takes about five years on average. The processing of *enset* for household food consumption is mainly undertaken between October and December.

3.2 The Situation of Women in Kersa Kondaltiti *Woreda*

In relation to the characteristics of the Kersa women, demographic evidence compiled from the Zonal Atlas (1997) indicates that females comprise 49% of the population of the *Woreda*. A high level of illiteracy among women in all ages and low ratios of school enrollment for women in the *Woreda* is documented. And as a result they have low skill level. The key informants also indicate that women play a very insignificant role at all levels of the decision-making processes leaving their concerns to be determined by the male-dominated administrative structures.

Like other rural areas in Ethiopia, in Kersa *Woreda*, women are the mainstay of small-scale agriculture, the farm labor force and day to day family subsistence. In the *Woreda,* women's involvement in most agricultural activities is high. They participate in crop production and/or in

animal husbandry. Women in the *Woreda* are involved in tilling, planting, weeding, threshing, manuring, transporting harvest to store and storing, and allocating agricultural products for domestic consumption as well as marketing. In addition, they are also engaged in sideline income generating activities to sustain everyday life of the family. Some of the common sideline activities that the women are engaged in are selling fuel-wood, the local drink (*tella)* and small amount of grains in the market so as to supplement the family consumption expenditure.

Like most parts of rural Ethiopia, women in the *Woreda* perform all the domestic activities, including food processing for household consumption. Many of the activities are performed alongside other tasks. In the processing of food, women are involved in activities like pounding, grinding grain, fetching water, collecting fuel wood, preparing meals and processing *enset,* which is the most demanding activity for household food consumption.

In addition, marketing food items imposes heavy demands on women in the *Kebeles* who have to walk on average about 4 kilometers per trip to the market. Because women often do not have access to pack animals, they are usually obliged to carry the load to and from the market on their back.

In general, according to the information from the *Woreda* Social and Labour Affair Office documentation and discussion with officials from Rural Women's Affairs Office of the *Woreda*, women residing in the *Woreda* on average work 14 hours a day.

3.3 Characteristics of Sampled Households

As mentioned in the first chapter, since the study mainly focuses on women in the household all the respondents for the structured questionnaire were females. The respondents were basically homemakers who belonged to both female-headed and male-headed households in the *Woreda.* The women studied were *Oromos* and spoke *Oromigna* as their first language.

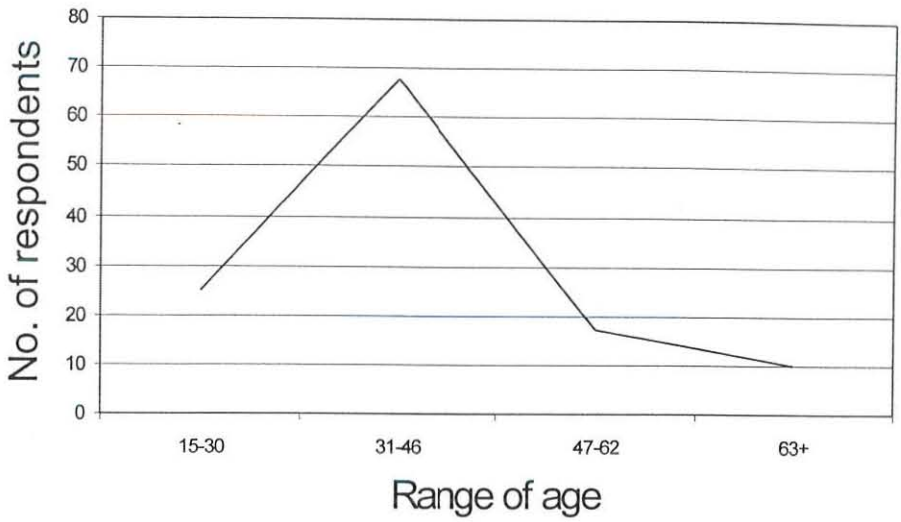
Table 1- Distribution of Sampled Population Age by *Kebeles*

Kebeles	Age Group			
	15-30	31-46	47-62	63+
Adadi-Maryam (*Weina-Dega*)	7	27	6	3
Becheki (*Kolla*)	11	21	3	1
Tuka Godeti (*Dega*)	7	20	8	6
Total No.	25	68	17	10
%	20.8%	56.7%	14.2%	8.3%

Source: Survey result

The age distribution of respondents in the three *Kebeles* as shown (Figure 3) below is skewed towards the middle age. Regarding their marital status, 18.3% of them were either widows or separated and the rest were married. Even if basic education is available in the *Kebeles,* all the women respondents were illiterate.

Figure 3 _ Distribution of respondents by range of age



Main Occupation of Respondents

In line with the general assumptions, of the one hundred twenty women respondents, all respondents indicated that their main occupation of the households is agriculture. Here main occupation is defined as an activity in which a household earns its major income for its livelihood. Their households' product mainly consists of produces such as *teff,* barely, wheat and cereals and also some garden crops.

Though all the respondents said their main occupation is agriculture, only 13.3% of them got sufficient income from agricultural activities to meet their annual requirements. Others (86.7%) do not get sufficient agricultural products so as to sustain the family need of the year. Consequently, these respondents reported that they engage themselves in other sideline activities in order to supplement the family need.

Participation of Households in Other Income Generating Activities

Rural household income can be supplemented by other income generating activities other than the crop husbandry and livestock subsystem. As it was mentioned earlier there are households (86.7%) whose farm income alone is not sufficient to secure their household food consumption. Though income-generating activities outside the agricultural sector are limited women are engaged in some common income generating activities (such as basketry, selling local drinks) and other petty trading.

Consequently, out of these households whose income is not sufficient, 64% are engaged in other income generating activities.

Table 2- Distribution of respondents by type of other income generating activities

Type of other income generating activities	No. of Respondents	% of Respondents
Basketry only	2	3%
Petty trading only	0	0%
local drinks only	18	26.9%
Basketry and local drinks	17	25.4%
Petty Trading and Local drinks	19	28.3%
Basketry, petty trading and Local drinks	11	16.4%

Source: Survey result

In addition, as another means of income 5% of women were involved in the food for work program in 1999, which is carried out by World Vision Ethiopia (Tiya Area Development

Program). In this program women were involved in the construction of feeder roads, small dams, and health centers and nursery program and were paid in the form of grain and cooking (edible) oil.

The study also identified whether men were also engaged in other income generating activities. It was reported that only about 16.4% of the households, engaged in other income generating activities, had additional male members of the households involved in other income generating activities.

The study also revealed the practice of any seasonal migrations (in or out) for income generation purposes among sampled households. Local migration from the lowlands to the highlands for short-term employment, particularly for *enset* processing activities was insignificant.

Out migration of members of respondent households

As it has been determined from the *Woreda* documentation female-headed households constituted 9% of the total households in the *Woreda.* This is a very small proportion as compared to other rural areas of the country which is about 20-30% (World Bank, 1993). In the *Woreda* no large-scale out-migration of male members of the community was reported. This is supported by the findings of the study that 16.7% of the respondents reported that at least one member of the household has out-migrated to get employment, education or to support other relatives somewhere. Usually these people migrate to Butajira and engaged in trading activities. In addition there is, as it was pointed out in the group discussion, a condition where women migrate

seasonally (usually in November and December) from the lowlands of the *Woreda* to the highland areas to get employment in *enset* processing

Women who respond to have at least one out-migrant in their household have been asked whether they received any form of remittance in 1999/00 from the out-migrant. Fifty five percent of them responded that they did. Those households who had an out-migrant family member got remittance in the form of money in supplementing the household expenditure and clothing.

In the study area, according to these respondents out-migration is adopted to minimize the risk of food insecurity as one of the coping mechanism. People migrate to earn income to supplement low agricultural production.

Landholding and Livestock ownership of the Households

Despite the legal provision of access to land, the decline in the size of the land holding appears to be significant. This could be the major contributor to the household food insecurity. It is in such a way that the relative decline in land resources in relation to the relative increase in household size by far outweighs.

As shown in Table 3 land holding distribution is divided into cultivable and non-cultivable land. The non-cultivable land is mainly fallow, left for grazing and planting trees.

Table 3- Distribution of respondents to cultivable and non-cultivable land by land-holding size

Land Holding Size in *Kert*[1]	No. of Respondents to cultivable land	No. of Respondents to non-cultivable land
No land	0	17
≤4 *Kert*	47	99
5-8 *Kert*	47	2
9-12 *Kert*	23	2
>12 *Kert*	3	0
Total	120	120

Source: Survey result

Since land distribution has not been made in the *Woreda* after the fall of the *Derg* regime people face a severe land shortage. According to the *Woreda* Office of Agriculture the average land holding size of a household has fallen to 1.5 hectare; in fact, about 37.5% sampled households possess ≤ 1 hectare, even less than that of the average size.

The study further identified women's, those who are separated, single and widows possession of land. From 18.3% of those women 68.2% (widows and separated) of them possess land, and from those, 80% own below the average size of the land i.e. 1.5 hectare.

Variations in the size of the land holdings have been observed among the three agro-ecological zones. The sizes of holdings among the sample households across the different agro-ecological zones significantly varies, particularly for the lower land size categories (≤4 *Kert*- Table 4).

[1] *Kert* is a local unit used to measure land (4 *Kert* is equivalent to a unit of Hectare).

Table 4- Distribution of respondents by size of cultivable land-holding

Cultivable Land Holding Size	No. of Respondents		
	Dega	*Weina-dega*	*Kolla*
≤4 Kert	35	2	10
5-8 Kert	6	21	20
9-12 Kert	0	19	4
>12 Kert	0	1	2

Source: Survey result

The possible reason for the discrepancy in the size of land holdings, according to the experts from the Office of Agriculture, people in the *Woreda* prefer to live in *Dega* climatic zone due to the conducive climatic situation for crop production and better access to fuel wood. Therefore, the highland part of the *Woreda* is relatively dense as compared to the lowland and midland zone.

Livestock

Livestock production is another important household resource that plays a major role as a guaranty against food insecurity in the *Woreda*. Ownership of livestock resources is also an indicator of wealth in the study area. It establishes the basis of the status of wealth in the community. The more livestock the household own the more wealthy the household becomes.

In the study area, 93.3% of respondents reported to have one kind or more than one kind of livestock in their household. The remaining 6.7% reported to have no livestock. Further respondents were requested to indicate the number of animals that the household own. However, the respondents were not willing to give reliable information.

Table5- Distribution of respondents by type of Livestock Owned

Type of Livestock	No. of Households	%
Cows	78	65
Ox	98	81.7
Goat	33	27.5
Donkey	68	56.7
Calf	59	49
Poultry	64	53
Mule and horse	18	15

Source: Survey result

Since cereal cultivation in the study area is dominant, the use of draft power for ploughing is an important resource. The oxen is vital in providing draft power to cereal production, thus it has got major implication for food security. From the sample households only 81.7% have ox/oxen. This implies that about 18.3% of the households lack a vital access to oxen and thus effective agricultural activity is restrained. In addition ownership of oxen also represents a fundamental means of acquiring access to land resources. This could be done through different arrangements. Households with ox/ oxen can supplement their households' income by renting out their ox/oxen for cash or kind.

The key informants reported that cows constitute an important part of the household asset ownership, next to oxen. According to the household survey, 65% of the respondents owned one or more cows. Ownership of goats, horses and mules was very limited.

In the study area, women in the households were entitled to possess commonly small ruminants like goats and poultry. From the overall surveyed households who possessed goats (27.5%), only 27.3% women respondents owned goats, and with regard to poultry, from the 53.3% households who raised chickens about 75% women respondents had their own chicken. In addition, out of those women who were female headed 18.2% owned ox/oxen and got their farmlands readied either through their sons or by hiring a farmer. It was found that also 27.3 % and 1.7% of women possessed cow/s and donkey, respectively.

CHAPTER FOUR

4. The Role of Women in Household Food Security in Kersa Kondaltiti *Woreda*

> *Women, of course, have always been known as who weeds the sorghum, transplants the rice seedlings, picks the beans and tends the chickens. But it has taken a longtime for the rest of the world to discover these facts.*
>
> *-Debbie Taylor*

In the surveyed community, the work that only women can be engaged in is clearly specified, but most work classified as men's work could, in their absence, also be done by women. They take part in production, in collection of fuel wood and fetching water, particularly in securing food to the household.

In this study, the women have a very tight schedule. The work pattern has some difference across the three agro-ecology of the *Woreda.* And the load also varies with the change of the climate (i.e. dry and wet seasons). The most common duties of the women are:

1. Wake up early to prepare breakfast;
2. Putting the cattle in fields for grazing;
3. Clean the house and barn and make a cow-dung cake out of it;
4. Fetch water;
5. Prepare meals (lunch and dinner) for the family;
6. Collect fuel wood;

7. Weed the farm, as often as every three month;
8. Plant crops like vegetables and take care of *enset* plants (particularly in highland areas) around the homestead. Vegetable are cultivated depending on the women's time and strength and the need in the family.

Case 1 - Gete Teneshu is 38 years old lives in Beckeki *Kebele*. She has three daughters and three sons, a total of eight family members in a household including her husband and herself. As she explained every other day for her is full of activity - from dawn to sunset. She raises early in the morning and prepares breakfast for the family members at the same time she milks the cow. After this she takes household animals to the field, carrying the water pot on her back so that she could fetch water at the same time. When she returned she serve breakfast to the family members. After having her breakfast, she cleans the house and the barn. In addition to preparing meals she daily grind grains, collect fuel wood, tend garden crops. This burden becomes even higher during harvest season. Regarding field crops she is responsible for weeding, cutting, collecting, transporting and storing the products. In doing so her children usually daughters help her.

4.1 Kersa Women as a Producer and Provider of Food

The role of women in Kersa role is key not only to the functioning of the household but also to field labor. The vast majority in the rural area make their living from agriculture. Women in the area participate in almost all the activities, except ploughing, winnowing and sowing. During sowing, women do actually participate by handing over seeds to men. It has been reported that in the lowland *Kebeles* women do take part by covering seeds with soil, an activity locally known as

'*chifleka*'. They also dutifully as a norm cultivate garden crops on their own, and care for chickens, goats, cows and sometimes for oxen.

Respondents were asked to list the major activities performed surrounding different agricultural products. Regarding the field crops, women take active part in producing wheat, barely, *teff* and cereals. In the production of these crops, they get engaged in weeding, threshing, cutting, collecting the produce and the stalk. Besides, women have responsibility in post-harvest work by collecting and carrying the produce to storage. The activity profile of sampled households for the garden crops in the three *Kebeles* of the *Woreda* is summarized in Table 6.

Table 6- Activity Profile: Productive activity of the field crop production

Activity	Do you engage in these activities?		
		No. of Respondents	% of Respondents
Ploughing	yes	0	0
Sowing	yes	0	0
Chifleka	yes	6	5
Weeding	yes	88	73.3
Cutting	yes	7	5.8
Manuring	yes	8	6.7
Separating the stalk from the grain	yes	87	72.5
Collecting the stalk	yes	36	30
Collecting the produce	yes	78	65

Source: Survey Result

In addition, respondents were also asked if they get engaged in garden cropping or not. Of all respondents 65% of them responded "yes" and 35% responded "no". The different garden crops produced include vegetables like cabbage, potato, onion, pepper and carrot.

Those who responded "yes", were further requested to enumerate the activities they perform surrounding those garden crops. As shown in the activity profile (Table 7), women participate in most of the agricultural activities. They were responsible for the plantation, watering, and weeding. Men were also involved in the garden cropping activities. However, according to women respondents, it has been only in 13.3% of respondents' households that men were also involved in these activities.

Table 7- Activity Profile: Productive activity of women in the garden crop production

Activity	No. of Respondents	% of Respondents
Planting	77	98.7
Weeding	77	98.7
Watering	60	76.9

Source: Survey Result

With regard to the production of *enset* in the *Woreda,* two activities mainly involve women. These activities were peculiar to the highland *Kebele*, but rare in midland area and non- existent in lowland areas (from the sampled households only 38.3% households grow and process *enset,* 30% *Dega* and 8.3% in *Weina-Dega*). During *enset* cropping, women's role in production process is limited to manuring and weeding. Unlike other production activities, manuring requires continuous maintenance of soil fertility. Since it is usually planted on homesteads, manuring of the crop is facilitated. Traditional fertilizers like cow dung and waste materials disposed from houses (ash and household refuses) are collected by women and put between a set of *enset* plants to be latter on mixed with the soil.

The production of *enset* takes about five years although it gets fully matured at the age of seven. Most of the production activities are accomplished by men periodically. Accordingly, land clearing and manuring is done one or two months ahead of corn plantation. Weeding is performed three times a year while transplanting is done twice or thrice through the lifetime of the *enset* plant commonly at an interval of one year. There is a clear division of labor among men and women based on their sexual differences. Men perform most of the production activity while all the processing activity is left to women.

Though digging and transplanting are assumed to be as the most difficult activities in *enset* production, due to their seasonality they could not be as difficult and pressing as the processing chores. Alongside *enset* production, men in the three *Kebeles* get involved either in cereal production or livestock rearing or both. According to the informants in the highland *Kebele*, once men have planted sufficient *enset* trees nothing is left to make them busy, hence the rest is left to women.

Women become busy during the harvest season engaged in processing activities taking rest from their agricultural work only on Sundays and on holidays, usually once in a month.

The economic contribution of peasant married women is not limited only to food production for subsistence. They participate in other kinds of agricultural work; they raise and care for domestic animals, especially poultry and cows, which, among others, involves feeding, cleaning the barn, milking and putting the cattle to the field (Table 8).

Table 8- Distribution of Respondents by type of activities in relation to livestock production

Type of Activities in Relation to Livestock Production	No. of Respondents	% of Respondents
Feeding	93	77.5
Cleaning the barn	97	80.8
Milking	42	35

Source: Survey result

The good majority of women participate in more multiple activities, as indicated mentioned in the table. Only 10.8 % of the respondents were not at the time of survey participating in activities related to livestock. The reason some 6.7% were not engaged has been none other than not owning any livestock. A small percentage (4.1%) got the work done through hired hands.

4.2 Women as a Processors of Food

Women in the household of the *Woreda*, like all social groups and cultures, have normative roles and patterns of bringing up children, feeding the extended family, and processing products of domestic animals, peculiarly that of the cow - an engaging series of activities.

Pounding cereal grains using pestle and mortar, grinding them in to fine flour or paste manually by employing only crude utensils, fetching water and collecting fuel wood were among the specific activities that women had to accomplish in preparing food for consumption in the family. These activities are presented in the activity profile in Table 9.

Table 9- Activity Profile: Processing of food

Activity	Engagements			
	Women	Men	Boys	Girls
Milking	yes	no	no	yes
Fuel wood collection	yes	yes	yes	yes
Grinding	yes	no	no	yes
Fetching water	yes	no	no	yes
Cleaning barn	yes	no	no	yes
Preparation of meals	yes	no	no	yes
Enset processing	yes	no	no	yes

Source: survey result

The daily job of women: collecting water and fuel wood

Because of the responsibilities imposed on them, women in the *Woreda* constantly search for water and wood needed for use of the household members. Water is a scarce resource in the *Woreda.* Ponds and/or rivers are the main source of supply and often located several kilometers from home. Table 10 shows distribution of respondents by the time spent in fetching water.

Table 10- Distribution of respondents engaged in fetching water by time spent (one way trip)

Time Spent (Range of Hours)	No. of respondents in each *Kebele*				% of Respondents
	Weina-dega (Adadi-Maryam)	*Kolla* (Becheki)	*Dega* (Tuka-Godeti)	Total No. of respondents	
< 1 hour	29	11	24	64	53.33
1-2 hours	14	24	15	53	44.17
2-3 hours	0	0	2	2	1.67
> 3 hours	0	1	0	1	0.83

Source: Survey result

As shown in Table 10, distribution of respondents across the range of hours in fetching water is differently concentrated. The majority of women in the lowland *kebele* (Becheki) spent the most

time as compared to other two *Kebeles*. Thus, about 66.7% of women in the *Kolla Kebele* had to spend 2-4 hours (round trip) in fetching water while 32.6% and 36.6% of women respondents took the same time in *Weina-dega* and *Dega Kebeles*, respectively.

The responsibility of fetching water is that of mothers and daughters. It is not common for the male child to fetch water. Women in the three *Kebeles* were observed to make a minimum of two visits per day to the water source, most often early in the morning and late afternoon.

The sources of the water vary depending on the wet and dry seasons. During the wet season water is usually found closer to the family compound in seasonal by flowing riverbeds, or small natural ponds that accumulate water. Although there are ponds in the three *kebeles*, they do not fully meet the needs, partly because the ponds dry up in the dry season. On average, women use ponds for about four months after the main annual rain stops.

Since in the dry season water in seasonal rivers and ponds in the *Kebeles* is no longer available, women search water from other sources, i.e. rivers, which are usually located at a further distance from the family compound and village.

After the women finish collecting the water in a jar (usually clay pot) they help each other to lift the pots on to each other's backs. Then each woman balancing this burden of on average 12-liter water jar (weighing 12 kgs or 30 lb.) on her back, begins the long journey home (Figure 4).

Figure 4 - Women on the way home, carrying water from a river in Adadi-Maryam

The average volume of water that a woman carries per trip is 12 liters. The distribution of women respondents by weight of water they fetch is shown in Table 11.

Table 11 - Distribution of respondents by weight of water they fetch

Weight of Water	No. of Respondents	% of respondents
$\leq$10 liters	18	15%
$\geq$ 11 liters	102	85%

Source: Survey result

Women respondents were also asked if there were any shortages of water in their respective *Kebeles*, 43.3% (8.3% from *Weina-Dega*, 29.2% from *Kolla* and 5.8% from *Dega*) answered "yes" and 55% "no". Women who answered "yes" were further requested the degree of severity of the shortages in their respective *Kebeles*. About 71.1% put the deficiency as high shortage, while 28.9% rated it of medium shortage.

As a result of this shortage those who confronted the high shortage of water coped with the problem by going a long distance to bring water and reducing the frequency of fetching water from twice to once daily. In order to maintain this strategy the women adopted the mechanism of decreasing the use of water in the household. Similarly those with a medium shortage also coped by reducing the daily water use.

The main perceived problem stressed by the informants was the distance of the sources of water, especially in the dry seasons. During this period they had to walk even further, and as a result could not afford enough water for household consumption and for their animals. According to the women, if more water was available they could have used it more frequently for washing dishes, clothes and for bathing.

From the interviews it was reported that out of 120 households, 92 wives, 55 daughters and 18 sons were involved in fetching water, whereas husbands were not involved. When women and daughters fetched water, they usually carried the pots on their back, while the boys rather usually used pack animals.

Fuel Wood Collection

All households used a single common source of energy for cooking, i.e. fuel wood. As has been reported by the sampled women respondents, fuel wood has been the most predominant source of energy for all households, supplemented by cow dung. There were three main sources of fuel

wood - - woodlands, own plantation, and the market. According to the respondents, fuel wood is gathered from woodlands in the dry seasons.

The sampled population reported that, 74.2% used a woodland, 20.8% own plantation supplemented by dung, 3.3% the market, and 1.7% used dung as the major source of fuel wood. All those respondents who use own plantation belongs to the *Dega* climatic zone. This implies that women's burden in this area is somewhat reduced.

As is indicated earlier women use cow dung as a source of energy. To make use of dung, women either make a cake out it by leaving it to dry in the compound or they collect dry dung from the field for household use.

Essentially, in all the three *Kebeles,* it is women and female children who were largely gathering fuel wood. From the household interviews it was found that only 25 male household members (including boys) were involved in collecting fuel wood for household consumption.

Unlike the two *Kebeles*, in Becheki (*Kolla*) four adult males were involved in collecting fuel wood. The explanation for the exception being due to the fact that these men became aware of the taxing distance that had to be covered by women in search of fuel wood.

Like in the chore of fetching water complaints about long distances that had to be covered in search of fuel wood had also been felt by almost all the sampled households in the three *Kebeles*. According to the key informants, women traveled an average distance of three kilometers per trip

to collect wood. The time required for gathering fuel wood were determined by the women respondents (Table 12).

Table 12 - Distribution of respondents engaged in collection of fuel wood by the time spent (one way trip)

Range of Hours	No. of Respondents in each *Kebele*				
	Adadi-Maryam	Becheki	Tuka-Godeti	Total	% of Respondents
1-2 hours	27	13	14	54	45
2-3 hours	7	23	2	32	26.7
> 3 hours	3	0	0	3	2.5

Source: Survey result

Note that the above range of hours in the table indicates only the time required for one-way trip. According to the information obtained from the group discussion with the women, they spent more time in search of dry fuel wood in the woodland.

There were some variations in required time (due to distance) among the three study sites. Where the average time per trip for fuel wood collection was 1.5 hours for Tuka- Godeti (*Dega*) and 2 hours for Becheki (*Kolla*). The differences result from the climatic condition. In the *Weina-dega* and *Dega Kebeles* people get eucalyptus trees around their villages.

The frequency of gathering fuel wood differs among households. It was found that 54.3% of the households usually collected fuel wood daily, whereas those who had to collect two, three and four days a week were 22.8%, 7% and 7%, respectively. A total of ten households had to collect five days (6 households) and one day (4 households) a week. There were only six households (5%) who did not collect fuel wood, and rather got it from the market.

Generally, the level of using improved energy saving technology was found to be non-existent. All the households interviewed used open fire hearths (with three stones to support the cooking pots).

A few women were engaged in collecting and selling fuel wood to town dwellers for household income purposes (4.2% of the women - 1.7% from Adadi, 0.83% from Becheki and the other 1.7% from Tuka-Godeti - w*ere* involved). These women gather fuel wood on average once a day for five days in a week.

Figure 5 - A woman carrying fuel wood for sale in Lemen Market

Case 2 _ Mulu Berake is 40 years old and has three children. She lives with her husband. They have farmland, but since income from agriculture is not sufficient she is engaged in fuel wood selling. She rises early in the morning, prepares and gives breakfast to her children and husband. Before leaving the house for collecting fuel wood she prepares their lunch. This is due to the fact that she may not return home before noon. Usually she leaves home at 9 a.m. and returns home at around 2 p.m., without having her lunch. She explains: "I eat my breakfast if there is any food that is in excess of my children and husband's share, otherwise I eat *Kollo*[1] and leave the house." But it is a must to drink coffee. She sells the fuel wood in the main market called Adadi once a week but she brings fuel wood daily from the forest which takes one and half hours per trip. In addition it takes her about one hour in search of fuel wood in the forest. She sells the fuel wood in her village if the day it not a market day and earns on average Birr 7 per load (Field Survey, 2000).

Women were asked if there was shortage of fuel wood in the respective *Kebeles*. Respondents reported that 35% of them faced a severe shortage of fuel wood, while 23.3% of the respondents faced medium shortage. Those respondents who faced fuel wood shortage were asked how they coped with the shortage and their responses are summarized in Table 13.

The causes for the shortages of fuel wood differed among the *Kebeles*. The major cause in the *Weina-dega* and *Dega Kebeles* was scarcity of dry wood, while in the *Kolla Kebele* it was absence of fuel wood.

[1] *Kollo* is a roasted grain, like bean, peas and barely

Table13 - Distribution of respondents who face fuel shortage by patterns of the major coping mechanisms

Mechanisms	*Kebele*			Total	% of Respondents
	Weina-dega (Adadi-Maryam)	*Kolla* (Becheki)	*Dega* (Tuka-Godeti)		
Decreasing fuel wood consumption	6	7	27	40	33.3
Going further distance out of their *Kebele*	19	7	14	40	33.3

Source: Survey result

As shown in the table above (Table 13) one of the coping mechanisms for fuel wood shortage was decreasing fuel wood consumption. According to these respondents, they maximized use or efficiency by changing the material they used for cooking. It is said that a change from clay to iron cooking material, and also reducing the frequency of cooking to once daily and smoldering remains of fire were adopted by women for the maximization of the limited fuel resources.

Though women in the three *Kebeles* have been observed making quite an effort to prepare available food to the family, the fuel wood shortage in the *Kebeles* has further an implication on the household food security. This is because, as described earlier, women as a result of fuel wood shortage have adopted a mechanism of reducing fuel wood consumption by reducing the cooking time required to make the food ready. Thus, despite the women's unrelentless efforts to make ends meet, they did not seem to have always succeeded in making available hot meals to the household members.

The other major implication is on the utilization of women's time. In order to collect fuel wood (Table13) women adopted the mechanism of distant walking far out of their *Kebele*. This could have further repercussion on the household food security. As it is reported by women respondents, going further distance meant foregoing other activities in the house or the market. This has been mainly observed regarding those who were engaged in other income generating activities. In the *Woreda* it is possible to say that food security at household level is being mainly maintained at the expense of women's time.

In addition, as has been mentioned earlier, nutritional levels (particularly for children) and scarcity of fuel wood is closely linked. The more scarce the fuel wood, the longer the women traveled and the more time it took them to gather it. Usually, women went to collect fuel wood leaving their children behind at home staying about four hours without giving them food. And this more than they could tolerate; and due to this fact some women took their children to the woodland, especially those who breast feed.

Grinding

Since there is no electric power in the *Woreda*, all the mills in the *Kebeles* operate with diesel oil. In the *Woreda,* people, particularly women, on the average travel 3-4 kms per trip shouldering the grain on their back to get fine grain, which is costly. The cost of milling was reported to be high both in terms of money, the time spent, and, of course, labor power. Observations and measurements made at the two *Kebeles* (Adadi and Tuka-Godeti) on mill service revealed that women on average carried 20 kg. of grain to the mills.

Though mill service was available, households were still dependent on the traditional grinding stone. According to the interview report, 42.5% of respondents employed these traditional grinding stone to process food. Table 14 shows percentage distribution of respondents by the frequency of using the grinding stone.

It is probable that even with the availability of improved mills in the *Kebeles,* households shift from these mills to the laborious use of traditional grinding stone. This is as a result of shortage of crops to be processed, often during time preceding harvest. If there is too little crop in the granary, (i.e. less than 10 kgs) for household consumption, women prefer to use the grinding stone rather than walking a long distance and waiting for a long time to get the service of improved mill.

Traditional grinding stone has an output of only two to three kilograms of flour per hour. This output is very small as compared to the energy input. In addition it is a back-breaking chore and causes fatigue, besides being harmful to fingers and hands.

Table 14 - Percentage distribution of households using traditional grinding mill by frequency (per week)

Frequency	No. of Respondents	% of Respondents
Daily	23	19.2
Six days a week	0	0
Five days a week	2	1.7
Four days a week	7	5.8
Three days a week	9	7.5
Less than three days a week	9	7.5

Source: Survey result

In addition to the responsibilities indicated above, *enset* processing as discussed earlier is also one of the responsibilities of women. Of the three *Kebeles* under review, it has been is only in the *Dega Kebele (*Tuka-Godeti) that *enset* is widely grown and processed. *Enset* processing includes harvesting (i.e. leaf-sheet splitting and uprooting the plant), decorticating, corn pulverizing, bulla squeezing, digging silo (pit), mixing and turning semi-fermented "*Kocho,*" pit changing and transporting "*Kocho*".

In the *enset* growing *Kebele, enset* is largely harvested before it reaches maturity age. Though the plant gives much product when it stays longer, some households consume it before it reaches maturity. This is due to the inability of households to maintain their food requirements. But the more the plant matures the harder it becomes for women to process it.

Enset is processed mainly for household consumption. There are three main products of *enset.* These are called rhizome *'Amicho'*, starch water oozed out of the pulp '*Bulla*', and the fermented

pulp called '*Kocho*'. Each product requires a tedious task of processing and preparation. *Enset* is prepared for food in these three ways. It is also mixed with various crops. According to women informants, *enset* is mixed with cereal crops such as barely and wheat and prepared in the form of bread. People in this *Kebele* do really appreciate the role of *enset* in securing food to the family. As one woman put her perception about the significance of *enset* for household food security "*enset* sustains one's family, indeed." It is also processed as a means of generating income.

According to the women (key informants) the most difficult activity regarding *enset* processing is decorticating. A woman has to sit on the ground lifting her foot high to hold the *enset* leaf-stem in place on a wooden board propped on a fixed support in front of her at a rather sharp degree. She has to bend forward to scrap the edible part from the stem. This sitting position makes decorticating a backbreaking and excruciating activity (Figure 6).

Figure 6 - Woman in *Tuka-Godeti* engaged in *enset* processing - Decorticating

The second most difficult activity is pulverizing the *enset* stem to get "*Amicho*". The woman chops the pseudo-stem into small pieces using a traditional tool. The chopping tool is made of wood. She has to use both her hands to get more strength to blowing the hard root into pulp. It takes much energy to chop it into pieces. Since the work is very tedious and time consuming, the women usually do it in groups (Figure 7).

Figure 7 - Women in *enset* processing - Chopping the pseudo-stem in *Tuka-Godeti*

Moreover, as has been reported in the group discussions, some small-scale in-migration takes place (particularly women) from Gurage zone. These migrants were employed by a relatively well-to-do families during *enset* processing seasons.

The main *enset* processing period is in the dry season, particularly from November to December. However, for some households especially for the poor according to the information from group discussions, it is an all year-round activity.

In addition, caring for livestock and attending to their products is the domain of women. In relation to this women clean barns every morning, and make dung cake out of it. In the household with cow/s it is women who primarily do the milking job. In the *Woreda* it is not customary to sell milk rather women process it further. If the milk is in excess of the family consumption women make butter out of it. It is women who sells butter and keep the money which is earned from it. Butter in the *Woreda* is culturally a precious gift to a bridegroom. There is a tradition of giving a pot of butter to a newly married woman. It is the only thing that a girl takes with her from her parent's house, which is given by her mother.

CHAPTER FIVE

5. Factors Influencing Women's Contribution to Household Food Security

Despite their importance and potential inputs for household food security, women have been faced with a lot of constraints and problems. Some of the factors constraining household food security were evident from the records of the *Woreda* Rural Women's Affair Office and from the discussions with women groups and through structured interviews with individuals.

Though women play a crucial role in producing and providing food to sustain the livelihood of the family, they have limited access to and control over[1] different resources. Their control over and land, income, and decision in the household is very much limited (Table 15).

Nevertheless, those women who are not married particularly separated and widows have control over productive resources. The separated and widow (68.2% of not married women) women have control over the land though the land is not registered by their name.

[1] Access to resources is the opportunity to make use of something, while control over resources is the ability to define its use (Lingen,A., 1997).

Table 15- Access and Control Profile[2]: Gender analysis framework in Tuka-Godeti, Bechkie and Adadi-Maryam, Kersa Kondaltiti *Woreda*, 2000

Resource	Access		Control	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
Land	yes	yes	no	yes
Field Crop Products	yes	yes	no	yes
Garden Crop Products	yes	yes	yes	yes
Enset Products	yes	yes	yes	no
Livestock				
Ox	no	yes	no	yes
Cow	yes	yes	no	yes
Goat	yes	yes	no	yes
Poultry	yes	yes	yes	yes
Draught animals	no	yes	no	yes
Dairy Products	yes	yes	yes	yes

Source: Survey result

Land

Most legislations have not promoted women's legal ownership and inheritance rights and have at times undermined women's traditional use rights under customary land tenure systems by registering land in the name of a husband or son(s). As Mulunesh (2000) puts it, ownership of land gives a feeling of self-esteem, economic, social and political benefits to individuals who own or have access to it. Though women's access to and control over land is essential to agricultural production and to ensure the in-flow of income, their access is through their husbands. Married

[2] This framework is adapted from Lingen, A. (1997) and for the purpose of this study the information in the framework works only for married women. This information does not hold true for separated and widows in the *Woreda*.

women have no control over the land whatsoever in the study area. Women, according to the key informants, only get the right to control if they are widowed (and sonless) or separated.

Though divorce is not common, if it happens, women have the right only to their personal belongings. According to the information gathered from the group discussions with men groups, during divorce settlements, the man (divorcing husband) buys a new clothing and gives some cash to the divorcee woman. This can only be done if he has some money to do so.

Moreover, women in the *Woreda* are restricted by cultural factors to claim no inheritance rights over land. Since parents assume that girls are someone else's (their prospective husband's) they are not willing to transfer their property to them. It is culturally believed that parents' land should be primarily inherited by sons, since sons are considered as the prime responsible persons for the well-being of the parents in their old age. Girls inherit land, only if there is no son in the family.

Women in the *Woreda* who have a major role in agricultural production do not own land unless they are widows or separated. This in turn means that if women are denied of the major productive asset, i.e. land, it means they are in effect denied of the fruits of their productive efforts discussed in the previous chapter (crop and livestock production). This further has an impact on cash income sources. Women's lack of sources of cash income means that the purchasing power of women to acquire food to the household decreases (access to and availability of food supplies reduces).

Moreover, the lack of ownership of the productive asset for married women could further have implication on the decision power of an individual in the household. This seriously undermines women's ability to strengthen the necessary income for the livelihood of household. Thus the women lack the power over the outputs that could enable them get economic benefits. This in turn restrains the capacity of women to exert their potentials in productive activity, and, hence, diminishes their role in improving the food consumption level of the household.

Field Crops

Regarding field crops as shown in the access and control profile table (15) women have access like that of men. Eventhough they are active participants in all agricultural activities, except ploughing, winnowing and sowing, they do not have control over these resources. It is men who have an authority to determine how much to consume and how much to sell. Thus if additional food is needed, like food crop grains, legumes and vegetables, that has to be purchased, women should have to get another source of income to supply the household.

Men being the sole managers of land in male headed households, they decide what and how much to plant. This gives men more control over the products and the income attained from the products. Though the grain storage '*Gotera*' is accessible to both men and women, usually it is the domain of men to sell those products in larger quantities. Women can use the stored food items for food preparation freely. Women are particularly responsible for the management (in use) of the grain for household consumption.

One possible alternative farm source of income was reported by the male headed household respondents to be selling small amount of grain available in the '*Gotera*'. They usually took not more than eight jugs full, locally called '*Tassa'* (one *Tassa* contains one kilo of grain) of *teff*, wheat or barely to the market. It has been with this income they usually fulfilled the additional household food requirement. According to the information obtained from the group discussions held with women, some of them pointed out that the selling of grain was often prohibited by their husbands. If the granary were out of stock a woman was usually considered as a "thief", as if the money earned from the sell of these grain were used for other purposes, other than for household use.

In line with the ownership norms over big or small assets, women kept only the petty cash with them. The larger amount of money was usually kept with the husband and women were not expected (allowed) to touch it unless the husband had permitted.

On the contrary, some women, 10.8%, reported that they even ask their husbands when they need grain from the granary for household consumption.

However, with regard to garden crops both men and women have access and control over its products as long as they participate in the plantation. But as mentioned in the previous chapter, women were the ones fully engaged in garden cropping and who had the major say as to what to grow, consume and how much to sell.

Enset products

In relation to *enset* products, unlike other agricultural products, men do not have any authority over these products. According to the information gathered from the group discussions, it is a taboo for men to be seen carrying or handling *enset* products. *A*fter accomplishing the plantation of *enset,* men have nothing to do with *enset* other than only to consume it as processed food.

Nevertheless, according to the information obtained from group discussions held with women groups, men were involved in the selling of *enset* plants (i.e. in the living plant form). The products of *enset* were controlled by women, while the selling of *enset* plants were mainly controlled by men.

Livestock and their products

Livestock is the main form of savings and a sign of wealth in the study area. Livestock is also considered as an asset to be used as collateral to borrow money. According to the information provided by women during group discussion men control most animals. Men are dominant in the decision to buy or sell animals such as cows, oxen, horses and the like. Women, however, do not have control over these animals. They only have access and control over livestock products. This implies that they often lack the necessary resource, which promotes access to savings. Women are limited to the selling of low-income livestock products, i.e. butter in small quantities. In the study area milk is culturally prohibited from being sold.

Poultry

In relation to poultry, as a group of women and men pointed out during group discussion men and women have control over their own chickens. Women/ men can sell their own chickens or their eggs whenever they need. The difference lies on the expenditure of the income earned from the sell of poultry. Women use the income for household requirements, to buy kerosene, oil, soap, salt, whereas they did not seem to know how husbands spend such incomes. One woman respondent has in fact indicated that she do not know how her husband spent income from poultry but she somehow noticed occasional disappearance of chickens from the compound.

Access to improved technologies and information

Women in the three *Kebeles* do not have any access to improved technology. This is particularly in relation to improved stove that could have reduced their burden. In addition, women in the area were not allowed to go to public meetings. Their husbands did not want their wives to be seen in meetings. This factor has prohibited them from pointing out their need and concern to governmental or non-governmental organizations.

Income

As Mulunesh argued quoting FAO studies (1980), in Africa and other developing countries improvement of household food security and nutrition have direct relation with women's access to income and their role in household decision on expenditure. Eventhough women have less control over agricultural products; they tend to spend relatively higher proportion of their income to increase the nutrition value of food for the family than do the men.

The findings of this study were in agreement with the above argument and the results of Eva Poluha's study of Dodota and Dangla (1980). As Poluha has noted, women spent all what they earned from their short market visits, as soon as they got it. This particular study has also confirmed the same practices. Out of 55.8% of the respondents in the three *Kebeles* who were engaged in other income generating activities, 62.7% spent their income on food items like salt, pepper, oil, coffee and other items, such as soap and kerosene.

During group discussions women stressed that men were not always inclined to use their incomes directly for family purposes. It is generally assumed that women should be able to provide their family and make enough cash from small sales of cereals, vegetable and eggs to manage the small expenses of food items as mentioned before. Based on the discussions held with women groups, it was argued that impoverished peasant women had to constantly seek for some opportunities to earn money, like petty trading and selling local drinks.

The homemakers shoulder the responsibility of the family. How they manage depends not only on the income level of the husband but also his willingness to support his family. However, in the area, it was common to think women need not expect the cash income that the men had earned.

As the women groups indicated sadly, their labor has continually been utilized as if production were based on the principle of mutual sharing. They supplied their labor as part of their family obligation without having a share in the planning of the use or in the monetary benefit ensuing from it.

There were other factors that were explored in the study area which limited women's participation in earning income from marketing. Some of these factors, as listed by the respondents were: distance of markets, engagement in other household chores, lack of money, limited access to pack animals and to items that generate high proceeds.

Women in the study area had to go on average 5-6 kms one-way either to purchase or sell items from the main markets. In the three *kebeles* the main market is held weekly often from 10 a.m. to 3 p.m. However, in addition to the distance women also indicated that the overlap of responsibilities made forfeit going or reached late for the market activities. According to them, they were often unable to go to the market because the household chores became hindrance even though they wanted to participate in marketing activities.

A rapid market assessment was conducted in the two main markets of the *Woreda* (*i.e.* Lemen and Gibiso) so as to observe who takes and sell what in the market. The observation confirms that men control marketing of major assets such as ox, cows, goats, grains in sacks or '*Madaberya*'[1], while women sold hens, eggs, butter, vegetable and grains in a small container or ' *Tassa* '[2] (Figure 8).

[1] *Madaberya* is a sack used to contain the crops at the same time it is mainly used as a measuring unit; the one that holds grain equivalent to fifty kilograms, is commonly used here.

[2] *Tassa* is a plastic can used as a measuring unit, in which it holds grain equivalent to one kilogram.

Figure 8 - Women transacting in the Lemen market.

The other factor reported by respondents was that no matter how heavy the items transported, a woman should carry the burden by herself. A woman had to carry processed *enset* (particularly the highland woman) on average eight kilos of different grains, vegetable and dairy products to the market on her back, bearing the weight on the journey that she should walk. It is only men that have the benefit of employing pack animals. During a discussion a woman expressed the burden carried to go to a market by saying "I carry the items to and from the market, my husband uses a donkey and he does not carry anything except for his walking stick".

CHAPTER SIX

6. Summary of Findings and Conclusion

6.1 Summary of Findings

Kersa Kondaltiti *Woreda* is found in West Shewa Zone of Oromia Regional State. It is marked by wide-ranging topographic features dominated by plateau, undulating lands, hilly slops and rugged terrain. The *Woreda* exhibits the three climatic conditions (*Dega, Weina-Dega* and *Kolla*). In the *Woreda* there are 20,067 households of which 9.3% are female-headed.

The *Woreda* is mainly characterized by the deteriorating nature of household food security. This has resulted in a changing cropping pattern mainly from cereal crops to root crops.

Women in the *Woreda* comprise 49% of the total population. In this area women as in other parts of rural Ethiopia participate in agricultural production, provision and processing of food to the household.

With regard to agricultural production, women are involved in both crop and livestock productions. In relation to field crops women do weeding, threshing, harvesting, transporting and storing the grain alongside with men, while in garden cropping all the activities, including watering, digging and planting are accomplished either on their own or supported intermittently by the men.

Though agriculture is the mainstay of the *Woreda* people, products of this sector do not meet the annual requirements of most households. In this particular study it has been found that only 13.3% of the households could sustain their livelihood from agricultural activities alone. As a result 55.8% of women were engaged in other income generating activities to supplement the household income. Some of the other income generating activities were, basket making, catering local drinks, and other petty trading. In addition, 5% of women were involved in the food for work program in 1999 funded by the NGO, World Vision Ethiopia (Tiya Area Development Program). In this program women were involved in the construction of feeder roads, small dams, health centers and tending nurseries for seedling development.

Moreover women do other domestic activities. This is in relation to the food preparation and housekeeping. In this particular sphere women fetch water, collect fuel wood, grind grain, process *enset,* clean the house, the barn and the yards, tend the cattle and prepare meals daily with little or no assistance. Results of the study revealed that highland women had relatively lesser burden of going on a distant journey to fetch water and collect fuel wood. However, in turn they became burdened processing *enset.*

Nevertheless, despite assuming all the mentioned roles to contribute to household food security the control women had over productive resources particularly land and livestock was very limited. The study has established that unless they were separated or widowed women could not be entitled to ownership of land. Girls were not also allowed to possess their parents' assets. It is culturally believed that land should primarily be inherited by sons. In addition during divorce settlement women could not get any asset except their personal belongings.

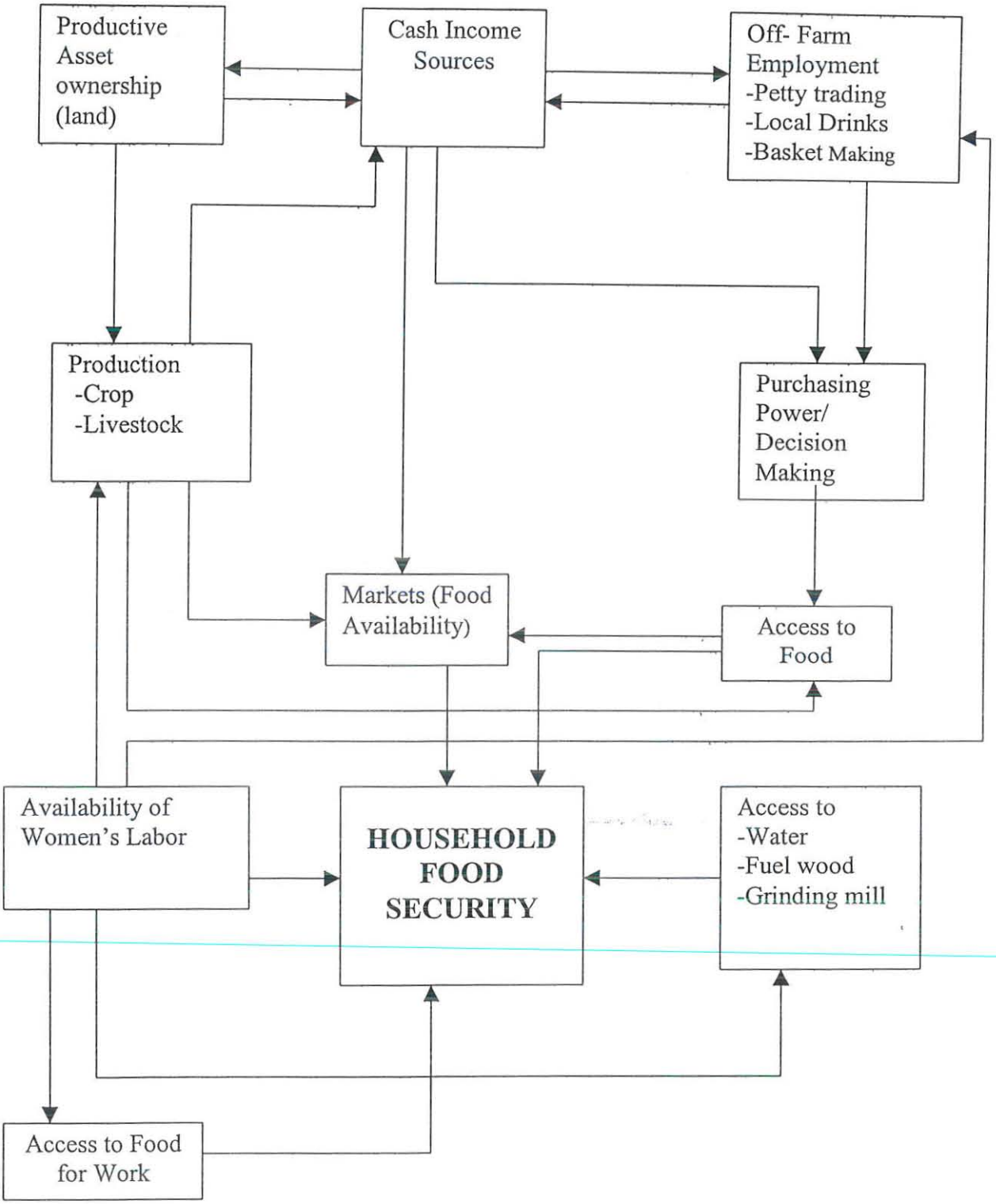
As with the ownership of land and livestock, women had little say on the field products. They had access to these products only in as far as they utilized them for household consumption. In addition they could not also have control over the income earned from the sale of the field products. This implied that they often lacked sources of cash income and rights of decision making.

Sources of cash income have a very tight linkage with household food security. Lack of such purchasing power may further lead to lack of power in decision making in the household, in the market and the prerogative of engaging in off-farm employment. The possible impacts of these factors are illustrated in Figure 9, on the next page. In this particular study it has been found that these factors were determining or ensuring factors in household food security. Thus lack of these factors has in effect curtailed women from contributing much as their wishes and intentions.

In addition, the study has also revealed that women's access to water, fuel wood and grinding mill could substantially raise women's contributions to household food security, in such a way that it could increase availability of women's labor power for off-farm employment by reducing time otherwise spent.

In general, the study has established that women play a crucial role in the sphere of household food security. Moreover, women's control and access to productive resources, particularly land and income, has been found to have an effect on the livelihood of the family.

Figure 9 - Factors Impacting on Household Food Security and their Interplay



6.2 Conclusion

Women are crucial in maintaining household food security and hence better nutritional level. In order to maintain household food security, accessibility to productive assets is necessary. As various sources and the findings of this study suggest rural women play an essential role in meeting the food demands of the family. Women are key actors in food production, provision and also processing. It is evident in the study *Woreda* that all these activities ensure household food security. Nevertheless, women's contribution to household food security is not often being recognized, measured and not included in the national revenue.

As has already been examined, Kersa women perform tasks which are related to production of food such as planting, weeding, harvesting and storage. Women also fetch water and fuel for household needs; they bear and care for children and for the entire family.

However, despite their significant role, particularly in food production, their participation in the use and control over the products is still low. This is because women lack the necessary productive resources; they not only have limited access to land but also live with inadequate facilities such as water and fuel, which could reduce their burdens and ensure effective and efficient utilization of their time.

Also they have limited power in making decision on the products of these productive assets. This means they are often denied of their fruits of labor.

Thus, in recognizing women's participation in household food security there is a need to acknowledge their contributions and reduce their burden so that they could be effective and efficient. The lots of women could not be improved and hence food security could not be fully secured unless initiatives that transform the current state condition of women through various strategies involving both traditional communal and modern mechanisms.

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ANNEX I LIST OF *kEBELES* BY NO. OF HOUSEHOLDS, AND BY SEX, KERSA KONDALTITI *WOREDA*; WEST SHEWA

	Agro-ecology	No. of households	Male	Female
1. Sire Mariam	Kolla	371	885	891
2. Barkukie and Robelie	Kolla	560	1367	1403
3. Becheki	Kolla	193	580	559
4. Gegno Golem	Kolla	219	673	653
5. Gala and Mulicha	Kolla	402	1104	1094
6. Sonbo and Badu	Kolla	451	1208	1195
7. Langano	Kolla	332	815	786
8. Mazoria and Golba	Weina dega	283	775	719
9. Seden Muchichata	Weina dega	214	620	579
10. Gargetesa	Weina dega	174	456	475
11. Terie and Sheno	Weina dega	508	1455	1407
12. Haro and Homa	Weina dega	523	1491	1421
13. Cheka	Dega	378	1409	1023
14. Odoleka and Weni	Dega	678	1738	1670
15. Haya and Woredi	Weina dega	285	795	785
16. Kosaye and Tiro	Kolla	NA	NA	NA
17. Arifeta	Kolla	122	364	346
18. Beye Gichie	Weina dega	147	425	402
19. Kersa Warko	Weina dega	344	956	873
20. Kusaye Boda	Weina dega	665	976	928
21. Keso Mame	Weina dega	135	350	366
22. Muti Alibo	Weina dega	234	624	611
23. Godeti Wonber	Weina dega	344	919	874
24. Muti Daye	Weina dega	338	878	806

	Agro-ecology	No. of households	Male	Female
25. Dembi Rogie	Weina dega	246	657	547
26. Hawas Feltie	Weina dega	386	984	965
27. Harbu Wonber	Weina dega	372	934	887
28. Gore Gebreal	Dega	496	1228	1163
29. Korie Sabi	Dega	271	663	651
30. Adadi Mariam	Weina dega	626	1576	1511
31. Chancho Robie	Weina dega	424	1158	1022
32. Worebo and Haro	Dega	513	1366	1193
33. Gutu Urgy	Dega	365	912	931
34. Guye	Dega	699	1752	1755
35. Meja Kimita	Dega	248	1667	1618
36. Taa and Gola	Dega	380	1051	1642
37. Elala Seden	Dega	683	1829	1713
38. Tume Wato	Dega	309	840	795
39. Damota Sekekelo	Dega	344	769	784
40. Alga Daleti	Dega	249	607	638
41. Choba Masido	Dega	642	1629	1621
42. Tuka Godeti	Dega	621	1542	1582
43. Gatera Suten	Dega	492	1270	1261
44. Chaleba Tito	Dega	312	729	775
45. Dewoli Dera	Dega	511	1218	1248
46. Elala Wako	Dega	416	1033	964
47. Hawa Dengego	Dega	377	928	924
48. Hawa Woyo	Dega	559	1378	1317
49. Lemen town	Weina dega	603	995	1240

ANNEX II

QUESTIONNAIRE

II. IDENTIFICATION

Name of the enumerator _____ Questionnaire #_____Date__
Name of the respondent _____ ***Kebele***_____ **Village** _____

Agro- ecological Location a. Dega b. Woina Dega c. kola Ethnicity _____

No.	(1) Name of the family members	(2) Relationship to the reference person	(3) Sex	(4) Age	(5) Religion	(6) Marital Status	(7) Education
		Head					

Code 2.
1. Spouse
2. Son
3. Daughter
4. Mother
5. Father
6. Grandson
7. Grand daughter
8. Other

Code 6.
1.Never married
2.Currently Married
3.Widowed
4. Divorced
5. Separated

Code 7.
0. illiterate
1. Read &write
2. 1-6 grade
3. 7-8 grade
4. 9-12 grade
5. 12 complete
6. 12 & above

III. Main Current Activity, Means of Income and Division of Labor in Household

8. What is the major occupation of the household?
   1. Agricultural activities
   2. Non agricultural activities
   3. Both agricultural and non agricultural activities
9. How much is the land holding size?(local unit)
   Cultivable land _____ Non-cultivable land _____
10. What is the land use pattern of the non-cultivable land?
    1. homestead
    2. grazing land
    3. cropped land
    4. other, specify_____

11. How far is the cultivable plot from your home?

    1. 1-2 hours walk from home
    2. 2-3 hours walk from home
    3. 3-4 hours walk from home
    4. more than 4 hours walk from home

12. What are the major garden crops that your household grow? _____, _____, _____

13. Who in your household actively participates in the production of these field crops? _____, _____, _____

14. What do you perform surrounding these garden crops? _____, _____, _____

Crop Type, Cropping Activities and Women Labor Role

15. What is the major field crop that your household grow?	16. Production (in Quintals) 1998/99	17. Types of activities that you perform	18. What is the main use of the crop	19. Who sells?	20. Amount of harvest sold out (in proportion %)

Codes (14)

1. *Teff*
2. Wheat
3. Barely
4. *Enset*
5. Legumes
6. Vegetables
7. Other, specify

Codes (16)

1. Weeding
2. Raking
3. Harvesting
4. Sowing
5. Manure application
6. Crop residue collection (cut and carry)
7. Others, specify

Codes (17)

1. Sale
2. Household consumption
3. Both (1&2)

Codes (18)

1. Adult male
2. Adult female
3. Male child
4. Female child

21. What are the major constraints that you faced in producing these specific field products?

    _____, _____, _____

22. What kinds of livestock do your household have?

    1. Cows
    2. Oxen

3. Sheep
4. Goats
5. Mules
6. Poultry
7. Other, specify _____

23. Indicate the three major reasons for keeping livestock? (rank them in the order of importance)
    1. Traction power _____
    2. Milk _____
    3. Meat _____
    4. For sale _____
    5. Transport of goods _____
    6. Wealth _____
    7. Other (specify) _____

24. What are the major activities that you perform surrounding those animals?

    _____, _____, _____, _____

25. Is your income (annual, monthly) from farming enough for the household survival?
    1. Yes
    2. no

26. If no to #25, how did you fill the gap?
    1. borrow money
    2. borrow cereal
    3. get cereal or money from relatives
    4. engage in extra activities to generate supplementary income
    5. other, specify _____

27. Do you engage in other income generating activities to supplement the household income?
    1. Yes
    2. No

28. If yes, indicate the activities? (If it is more than one indicate the major three and rank them in order of importance).
    1. Bamboo craft _____
    2. Pottery_____
    3. Spinning_____
    4. Petty trading_____
    5. Local drinks_____
    6. Other, specify _____

29. If no to #27, does any member of the household other than you engage in non- farm activities?
    1. Yes
    2. No

30. If yes, identify?
    1. Adult male
    2. Adult female
    3. Female child
    4. Male child
    5. Other , specify_____

31. Is there anyone (member of the family) who migrated somewhere?
    1. Yes
    2. No

32. If yes to question No. 31, why did the migrant left the village?
    1. Education
    2. Employment
    3. To help relatives
    4. Other, specify _____

33. Did the migrant send any kind of remittance to the household in 1999/00?
    1. Yes
    2. No

34. If yes to question No. 33, in what form did your household received the remittance?
    1. Money
    2. Food
    3. Clothing
    4. Other, specify _____

35. Who is the main economic provider to the household?
    1. Mother
    2. Father
    3. Son
    4. Daughter
    5. Other, specify _____

36. What are the major constraints that you faced in generating income to the household?

    _____, _____, _____

Household chores in relation to household food security, women's labor role and time spent

37. Activities performed in relation to household food security	38. Who does the domestic work?	39. How many times Per day/ per week?	40. How many hours is spent at a time?

Code 37

1. Grinding grain
2. Female child
3. Preparing meal
4. Fetching water
5. Collect fuel
6. Other, specify _____

Code 38

1. Adult male
2. Adult female
3. Male child
4. Female child

41. What type of source of energy do you use in the household for cooking?

1. Wood
2. Animal dung
3. Crop residue
4. Other, specify _____

42. Where do you get your source of energy?

1. Forest
2. Market
3. Own plantation
4. Other, specify _____

43. If you collect fuel from the forest, for what purpose do you gather?

1. For sale
2. Source of energy for household consumption
3. 1 & 2
4. Other, specify _____

44. How much time do you spent to reach forest for the collection of fuel wood?

1. 1-2 hours walk from home
2. 2-3 hours walk from home
3. 3-4 hours walk from home
4. more than 4 hours walk from home

45. How frequently do you collect fuel for household use?

1. Everyday
2. Twice a week
3. Three days a week
4. Other, specify_____

46. If you gather fuel wood for sale, how frequent? (Check # 43 ask if the answer is '1' or '3')

1. Everyday
2. Twice a week
3. Three days a week
4. Other, specify _____

47. Is there shortage of firewood in your *Kebele*?

1. Yes
2. No

48. If yes to #47 have you ever faced fuel shortage?

a. Yes
b. No

49. If yes how serious was the shortage?

1. Extreme shortage (no firewood)
2. Considerable shortage
3. Minimal shortage
4. Cannot tell

50. If your answer for #49 is '1' or '2' how did you cop with?

1. Travel longer distances to other villages
2. Reduce amount of water uses
3. Serve un cooked meal
4. Travel more longer distance within the village
5. If other, specify _____

51. What device do you use for cooking in the household?
    1. 3-stone fire
    2. ordinary charcoal stove
    3. improved cooking device
    4. other, specify

52. What is your source of water supply? (If it is more than one prioritize them)
    1. Spring _____
    2. communal pipe water _____
    3. pond _____
    4. well _____
    5. river _____
    6. other, specify _____

53. How far away is your source of water?
    1. 1-2 hours walk from home
    2. 2-3 hours walk from home
    3. 3-4 hours walk from home
    4. more than4 hours walk from home

54. What kind of container do you use for fetching water?

55. How much does the container contains? (In liters)_____.

56. Who more often fetches water for household use?(if more than one person prioritize them)
    1. Adult male
    2. Adult female
    3. Male child
    4. Female child

57. Is there water shortage in your *Kebele*?
    1. Yes
    2. No

58. Have you ever faced water shortage?
    1. Yes
    2. No

59. If yes, to #58 how serious was the shortage?
    1. Extreme shortage (no firewood)
    2. Considerable shortage
    3. Minimal shortage
    4. Other, specify _____

60. If your answer for #59 is '1' or '2' how did you cop with?
    1. Travel longer distances to other villages
    2. Reduce amount of water uses
    3. Travel more longer distance within the village
    4. If other, specify_____

III. Market

61. Do you go to the market?
    1. Yes
    2. No

62. To which market do you usually went?
    1. Lemen market
    2. Sutan market
    3. Adadi-Maryam market
    4. Gibiso market
    5. Other, specify _____

63. How did you travel to the market place?

1. On foot
2. On horse/ mule back
3. Public transport
4. Others, specify _____

64. How long does it take to reach the market place? (If on foot).

1. 1 hours walk from home
2. 2-3 hours walk from home
3. 3-4 hours walk from home
4. more than 4 hours

65. Who usually goes to the market?

1. Adult male
2. Adult female
3. Male child
4. Female child
5. Others, specify _____

66. How often do you go to the market per week?

1. Twice a week
2. Three times a week
3. Every day
4. Other, specify _____

67. Does your household face food shortage last year (1998/99)?

1. Yes
2. No

68. If yes to Qes.67, how did you cop with it?

1. Reducing the household food consumption
2. Serving unusual foods
3. Borrowing money and buy food
4. Reducing number of meals per day
5. Using relief food
6. Selling the household assets
7. Migration
8. Other, specify _____

69. For what purpose did you go to the market last week?

1. To sell grain
2. To purchase grain
3. To sell garden products
4. To sell animal products
5. To purchase animal products
6. To sell chickens
7. To purchase chickens
8. Other, specify _____

Access and Control Profile

Resources	70. Who has Access or uses?		71. Who owns or controls?	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
Land				
Field crop products				
Garden crop products				
Enset products				
Livestock				
Ox				
Cow				
Goat				
Poultry				
Draught animals				
Dairy products				

IV. Decision-Making in a Household

72. Who in the household makes the major decision on the family income?

1. Husband
2. Wife
3. Daughter/s
4. Son/s
5. Other, specify _____

73. Who in the household makes the major decision regarding grain in relation to household consumption?

1. Husband
2. Wife
3. Daughters/s
4. Son/s
5. Other, specify _____

74. Who makes the major decision (to sell or to consume) regarding those animals and their products listed in the table below?

Animals and their products	Who?	
	Woman	Man
Ox		
Cow		
Goat		
Chickens		
Butter		
Egg		

75. If you are not a decision-maker in the household for what cases do you need the permission of your husband or others? _____, _____, _____

76. When you earn income outside the domestic sphere do you give it to your husband or someone else?

1. Yes
2. No

77. If you keep the income from outside activities, how do you spend it? (If it is more than one prioritize them).

1. Purchase food items _____
2. Pay school fee to children_____
3. Gift for husband or someone else_____
4. Purchase jewelry and clothing _____
5. Help extended family_____
6. Save for family security_____
7. Invest on income generating activities _____
8. Other (specify)_____

V. Support from other sources

78. Have you ever received any help from government or non- governmental organization?
1. Yes
2. No

79. In what form did you receive the support?
1. improved seed
2. money
3. food and edible oil
4. other, specify _____

80. Are you aware of any Non-governmental organization currently operating in your village?
1. Yes
2. No

81. If yes, mention them_____

82. What activities does /do the NGO(s) run in your village? (Tick those available)
1. Road and bridge construction _____
2. Family planning education and service _____
3. School construction _____
4. Free food donation _____
5. Water project _____
6. Health service _____
7. Small scale enterprises _____
8. Other, (specify) _____

83. If you choose an activity that a Non-governmental organization/s (in question No. 82) operating in your village have you participated (employed) in these activities in 1998/99?
1. Yes
2. No

84. If yes to question No. 83, in what activities do you engaged in? _____, _____, _____.

85. How do you get the return for your labor input?
1. Money
2. Grain
3. Edible oil
4. Other, specify _____.

Thank You

Semi structured questionnaire prepared for collection of information (in group discussion) about Women's Role in Household Food Security in *Kendedaltity Kersa Woreda.*

Women's role in agriculture

- To whom does the household farmland belong? Who has the right of ownership?
- Who can inherit a family land in a household? (Female child or male child?)
- If a husband dies does a woman has a right to inherit his land? If not why?
- Who does most of the agricultural activities? And who does what?
- Who gets agricultural inputs (such as extension service and improved seed) from government organizations or NGOs? Male or female?
- If training and visit is practiced, what kind of training is given to female/male?
- Do women perceive their roles in agricultural activities?
- What kinds of crops do men/ women favor? On what basis does their favor based on?
- Who plants vegetables on backyards or farmlands? Why?
- What are the special efforts do women/men exert in securing food to a household?
- What problems do women face in engaging themselves in agricultural activities?

Fuel and Water

- What is the major source of fuel for cooking in your *Kebele*?
- Who collects fuel in your *Kebele*?
- How long it takes to a round trip for collection?
- How frequently do they go out for collecting fuel wood?
- Is fuel wood trade common in the area? If yes who is engaged?
- What is the source of water for household use in the area?
- How far is the source from the village?
- How much time is needed to a round trip water collection?
- What kind of water container is used to carry out water?
- Is the source protected from animals and other things?
- Who fetches water for household use?
- Is water available throughout the year in the same place? If not how do people cope up?

Women's role in household particularly in securing food to the household

- What is the staple food in the area?
- What are women's/ men's inputs within the household in terms of activities, expenditure to provide consumable food and food products to a household?
- Which member of the household gets meal first in a household?
- Do women have access / control over grain store *'Gotera'?*
- What is the role of women in new marriage/ developed marriage/no marriage or separated?- the role of women in household development cycle
- What does it look like the daily activity of women in the area?

Decision making in household

- Who decides on household food expenditures? If it varies based on the different consumption pattern, categorize them?
- What are the main decisions of women in relation to food production to a household? What crop including roots and vegetables, livestock and their products do women/ men prefer? Why? Does the decision is made irrespective of their preference?
- Who makes decision on the quantity of crop to be processed depending on the household consumption need and the need for sale?
- Who makes decision on the quantity and type of agricultural products for consumption and marketing? Does the decision differ by gender for example who decides on cereals, *Enset* products, cattle and processed food products such as butter and flour? Does this decision depend on the quantity and type of cereals and food products to be reserved for consumption?
- Do women decide on the utilization of her income from the sale of agricultural products?

Social And Cultural Attitudes Towards Women

- What harmful cultural practices on women are common in the area? How and why do people practice it?
- How is marriage arranged? What is the criterion for choosing life mate?
- What is the average age of marriage for male and female?
- What is the preference of childbirth in terms of sex? Is it male or female? Why?
- Is divorce commonly practiced in the area? If yes, why?
- Is there any domestic violence against women? If yes, why?
- Are there any taboos against women/ men regarding food intake?
- Do people particularly women themselves appreciate women's role in a household food security?
- Do the social relations between men and women changes? If yes why it changes?
- What change in the social relation is wanted?
- How is wealth defined in the locality?
- Does the role of women differ with regard to fortune?
- Do culturally superior or inferior categories of job exist? What are the consequences of belonging to one or the other? Who is more often engaged in these jobs, is it male or female? Why?
- Is out migration common in the area? Who migrates? Why do they migrate? Where do they go?

Social Organizations

- What are the main social organizations in the area?
- Who is the member? Male/ female?
- What are the criteria for membership?
- What roles do men/ women have in the social organization?
- What are the major functions of the social organizations?
- How is the participation of women? If less why?

- What importance do these organizations have for their members (social security, labour support, financial support, etc.)?
- Are there any governmental / NGOs which are engaged in developmental activities? What type of activities do they perform in the area? Do they integrate the local people? If yes, in what way? Who is usually consulted and participated in their activities? (male/ female)

Off-farm Activities

- What is the major off farm activities in the area? Who more often engaged? (male female)
- What is the near by market for selling and buying?
- What is the main means of transport to the market?
- Who sells and buys (what) in the market?
- For what purpose do women/men use income from off farm activities?
- What problems do women face in relation to income generating activities?

DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, declare that this thesis is the original work and has not been presented for a degree in any university, and that all source materials used for the thesis have been dully acknowledged.

Fanaye Amsalu

May, 2000

The thesis has been submitted for examination with my approval as a University Advisor.

Dessalegn Rahmato

May, 2000