



**CARE ETHIOPIA
WE-RISE
BASELINE
EVALUATION**

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The TANGO team (Phil Sutter, Gary Gamer, and Lloyd Owen Banwart)

1. Executive Summary

CARE's program, Women's Empowerment: Improving Resilience, Income and Food Security (WE-RISE), focuses on improving household food security and resilience by empowering women, particularly through increased agricultural productivity. Funded by the Australia Africa Community Engagement Scheme (AACES) and implemented in Tanzania, Ethiopia, and Malawi, WE-RISE is designed to improve the quality of life for chronically food insecure rural women (CFIRW). The program seeks to increase agricultural productivity through income generating activities, support environments promoting women's rights and gender-sensitive agricultural programming, and increase institutional capacity for improved gender-equitable programming at the global level.

WE-RISE targets 15,441 households in three districts – *woredas* – in the Sidama zone of Southern Nations, Nationalities and People's Region (SNNPR) of Ethiopia just south of the regional city of Awassa. The implementing partner for CARE in Sidama is SOS Sahel Ethiopia. This NGO has a history of programme support to farmers in the region.

CARE has contracted with TANGO International to design and support the implementation of a global evaluation framework for WE-RISE. Currently TANGO is leading the baseline survey evaluation in all of the programme countries. Ethiopia is the first country to undergo this baseline evaluation. The Ethiopia Economic Association (EEA) was selected to assist in carrying out this baseline, and recruited Ethiopian enumerators and qualitative survey experts, assisted in the survey design and led the quantitative survey in its later stages.

1.1. Methodology

The framework for M&E methodology guidelines and complementary baseline studies was developed in India just prior to this evaluation. TANGO led the development of a standardized set of data collection tools, including the quantitative survey instrument for use at the household and individual levels. Qualitative participatory tools were also developed for evaluators to collect information through focus group discussions and key informant interviews. The sample design is based on a longitudinal study for pre and post comparison of results. The survey is "beneficiary-based" and drawn randomly from a sample frame composed of all households with a female member of a collective in the programme. Household members could not be classified as being in a collective in one *woreda*, requiring a modified approach to selection from the global monitoring plan. The sample size for the household quantitative survey was determined to be 890.

The qualitative baseline component profiles six kebeles comprising two kebeles selected among the three *woredas* of the programme region. The selected kebeles were purposively selected with representative diversity among different livelihood and agro-ecological areas with information provided by CARE Ethiopia and SOS Sahel staff.

The quantitative interviewers used PDAs loaded with an extensive quantitative questionnaire for recording information from the household interviews. Male and female heads of households and women primary decision-makers in households were interviewed. The qualitative study provides complementary information on those relating to women's ability to actively engage in agricultural production activities. In addition to focus group discussions, key informant/stakeholder interviews and a number of other tools were used to secure data – all participatory in format and process.

1.2. Analysis of Baseline Findings

At the time of survey data collection, a significant amount of the maize harvest was thought to be lost. This shock was rippling through communities in the survey to varying degrees based on their geographic location.

Given their vulnerabilities, female headed households are significantly involved in the WE-RISE programme comprising about 39% of the total households in the programme. About half of men heading households are literate vs. only around 8% of women heading households and none with a secondary education versus 2.9% of the men. About three quarters of men heading households are married and one-fifth are widowers. About one-third of women heading households are married, half are widows and another 14% are divorced.

In general, women have greater control over work, assets and income derived from resources close to and around their homes. These include poultry, milk and butter from livestock and garden items. To the degree these can be sold in local markets, women are often involved – especially if living in closer proximity to these markets. The more distant the markets, the greater is men's involvement due, in part, to more limited mobility afforded to women. Women generally have suggestive or consultative status at best to men, who ultimately decide on key aspects of agriculture, use of income and control of assets. Men control the cash crops, particularly coffee and chat, and sale of livestock and other higher valued assets.

Preliminary analyses in this baseline evaluation include the following results:

1. Male headed households have a little greater diversity in household diets than those headed by females. Inside all households, females lag behind men in their dietary diversity by 9.3%.
2. Approximately 80% of households report having experienced shocks over the last five years. Household reporting shocks have averaged about 3 shocks in this time period, two-thirds of which were major droughts.
3. There is not much difference overall in how female vs. male headed households react to shocks. However, female headed households tend to adopt more coping strategies. Over the last 12 months approximately 84% of the programme households have engaged in negative coping strategies. In the 30 day period prior to the baseline survey,

about three-quarters of households experienced not eating for at least one day, and 39% lowered school attendance in the last three months. About one-third of households are not engaged in any adaptation strategy to reduce impacts of shocks.

4. Too few respondents provided information relating to securing reliable data to report on income; however, female headed households report approximately 30% less in expenditures (a good proxy for income) than do male headed households.
5. Women have much less access to savings. They say that men generally have the final word in on purchasing decisions. Approximately 64% of households surveyed do not have savings, for female headed households this rises to about 70%.
6. Micro-finance, credit and cooperative managers in the programme region report that women generally comprise 30-45% of their customers. Men are accessing loans for income generating activities at close to three times the rate as women, with 6% of men and women utilizing VSLAs. When women are able to access and utilize credit for household-related expenditures or income generating initiatives, micro-finance managers (all men) report that women are clearly more responsible customers than men. A significantly greater number of women in female headed households (about 42%) have accessed loans in the last 12 months than women in male headed households. This compares to about 51% of men in male headed households. Overall, far fewer women are taking out loans than men.
7. The differences in ownership of household assets between female and male headed households are significant: female headed households own approximately 21% fewer assets, an indicator that women in female-headed households are more vulnerable to shocks. Women grow fewer crops in households they head when compared to women in male headed households. Women in male headed households have little decision-making control over at least half of these assets.
8. The majority of female farmers are utilizing one or two improved agricultural practices, particularly composting and intercropping. About one-third are using improved seed varieties and value chain/marketing practices. These farmers generally do not store their products and have low rates of improved livestock practice.
9. Women generally perceive government agricultural extension workers, who are invariably men, as serving the needs of male farmers and as not valuing them as agricultural producers. Male farmers also have low rates of satisfaction with extension services. Female heads of households, despite their widely acknowledged vulnerabilities, access extension services at about 76% the rate as women in male heads of households.
10. Close to one-quarter of women farmers receive no market information, and about one-third from other producers. About one-third of women farmers are selling agricultural products in local markets, selling to traders or farmer/producer groups or other more

formal sector buyers – the overwhelming majority are selling individually in local markets.

11. About two-thirds of women have sole or joint control of at least 50% of the decisions made in the household - with women in female headed households having about 20% more control than those in male headed households. Women have the least control over non-farm business activity and major household expenditures. About half have some say in use of money their spouse has earned and agricultural input purchases. Their greatest control is over minor household expenditures and money they have earned, though one-quarter of women have little control in the latter.
12. For the asset categories most possessed by households have (i.e. land, non-mechanized equipment, livestock, housing) 80-90% of women in female headed households have sole or joint decision-making capacity, those this range drops between approximately 60-80% for women in male headed households. Sole or joint decision making includes the ability to suggest or consult though not necessarily make the final decision – which community members say is strongly in the hands of men in male headed households for the highest valued assets.
13. About 71% of primary women decision makers in families have a say in decisions regarding health care, with about a 20% difference between women depending if they are in female or male headed households.
14. Men generally believe they have the ultimate right to determine the number of children in their families within the realm of family planning. Approximately three out of four women residing in male headed households have some degree of decision-making in relation to birth control and child spacing. There is a trend toward greater decision-making on family planning matters for women due to the role of government in advocacy and support for family planning, growing recognition of debilitating effects of decreasing land size for farming families, and the presence and support of local health posts and centres.
15. Just less than two-thirds of women indicate they are satisfied with equity in the distribution of time in their lives (including leisure), though this is much lower in female headed households given the absence of a spouse to help with domestic and productive tasks
16. A little over one-quarter of female respondents met the threshold developed for WE-RISE of expressing attitudes supporting gender equitable roles in family life. Approximately one in ten men met this threshold. Around 50% of women believe that most household decisions should be made by men and those men and women should not do the work of each other.
17. Women's perceptions of gender-based violence are significantly different than those expressed by men and government authorities who are men. Women in the programme region say violence is prevalent in all forms, including hitting, sexual

- harassment, polygamy and female genital cutting. Women say that abduction of females for marriage purposes is now rare. Approximately one half of women express tolerance to violence for the purpose of maintaining family stability.
18. Extreme variances exist in mobility of women, depending on whether they are in male or female headed households. Strong majorities of women in the former are highly mobile and in the latter have very little mobility.
 19. Programme participants and community leaders consistently cite the important role and progress that churches, government, schools and NGOs play in promoting women's rights, safety, and participation. A marginally greater number of women in female headed households are in leadership positions in formal and information institutions.
 20. Men have a greater confidence than women in speaking out publically on both community infrastructure decisions and gender issues – though a greater percentage of women than men are in the “very comfortable” category in speaking out on community infrastructure decisions and a greater percentage of men than women are in the “very comfortable” category in speaking out on gender issues.
 21. Women in female headed households tend to be more empowered than women in male headed households, though in general, women's empowerment is low. Women have little or no access to and control over production, resources, income, the ability to be leaders in their communities, make their own decisions about their health and that of their families, have limited mobility, and self-confidence.

Summary Table of Quantitative Indicators This first table provides a quick and summary review of the performance indicators to WE-Rise and the baseline values. These and additional tables, figures and narrative assessments exist in the findings section of this report.

Table 1: WE-RISE Baseline results

WE-RISE Impact Goal: <i>Improved Food Security, Income & Resilience for Chronically Food Insecure Rural Women (CFIRW) through their social and economic empowerment</i>			
Performance Indicators	Baseline value		
	Female-headed HH	Male-headed HH	Total sample
Mean household dietary diversity scores	3.9*	4.1	4.0
Mean women’s intra-household food access	3.7*	4.0	3.9
Coping strategies index	28.35*	25.96	26.90
Household monthly household income (expenditures used as proxy for income)	47.76*	67.93	60.00
Per capita monthly household expenditures (proxy for income)	13.25*	16.52	15.24
% households with savings	29.4*	41.0	36.5
Mean asset index	6005	7581	6945
Women’s empowerment index	19.10%	.4%	7.9%
WE-RISE CHANGE OUTCOME 1: <i>CFIRW have increased household productive assets and resources and control over these; and are more resilient to climate shocks</i>			
Performance Indicators	Baseline value		
	Female-headed HH	Male-headed HH	Total sample
% women with access to and control over loans for IGA (income generating activities)	10.5*	2.3	6.2
% households adopting negative coping strategies in past 3 months	83.7	84.1	84.0

% households using adaptation strategies to reduce the impact of future shocks	69.0	72.4	71.1
	Female respondents		
Agricultural yield in crops supported by WE-Rise (kg. per hectare)			
<i>Maize</i>	1634.78		
<i>Enset</i>	2736.93		
<i>Coffee</i>	5820.46		
<i>Chat</i>	3386.71		
Mean number of different crops grown			3.85
% women adopting three or more improved agricultural practices			40.2
% women farmers adopting improved storage practices			1.46
% women adopting one or more improved livestock practices			23.80
% women accessing agricultural inputs (seeds, fertilizers, etc.) over the last 12 months			65.2
% women farmers practicing one or more value chain activities in last 12 months			36.7
% women accessing output markets to sell agricultural production over the last 12 months			35.5
WE-RISE CHANGE OUTCOME 2: Formal and informal local-level institutions are more responsive to women's priorities and accountable to upholding their rights			
Performance Indicators	Baseline value		
	Female respondents		
% women with access to agricultural extension services in last 12 months	20.1		
% women accessing agricultural financial services (loans, savings, crop insurance) in last 12 months	58.7		
% women reporting satisfaction with agricultural extension services	11.4		
	Female-headed HH	Male-headed HH	Total sample
% women participating in formal and informal groups	99.7	99.8	99.8
% women holding leadership positions in formal and informal groups	7.8	6.0	6.7
	Male respondents	Female respondents	Total sample

% respondents confident speaking about gender and other community issues at the local level	73.8	81.9	
WE-RISE CHANGE OUTCOME 3: Cultural and social norms and attitudes better support the individual and collective aspirations and improved opportunities for chronically food insecure rural women			
	Baseline value		
Performance Indicators	Female-headed HH	Male-headed HH	Total sample
% women with sole or joint control over household income and expenditures	72.5*	58.0	63.8
% women with sole or joint decision-making and control over 75% or more of household assets	85.1*	27.2	50.3
% women reporting sole or joint decision-making over reproductive health decisions	32.8*	72.2	56.3
% women making sole or joint decisions about health care	82.5*	63.0	70.9
% of Women Who are Mobile (Score of 16 or more)	74.7*	4.9*	33.0
	Male respondents	Female respondents	Total sample
% of respondents expressing attitudes that support gender-equitable roles in family life	26.5	11.8	
% of respondents expressing attitudes that reject household gender-based violence	42.7	40.6	

2. Introduction and Background

TANGO International designed and is supporting the implementation of an evaluation framework for CARE WE-RISE that involves:

1. A global monitoring and evaluation framework;
2. Identification of the most appropriate, rigorous and ethical impact assessment methodology to use across the different countries allowing for comparability between projects and countries;
3. Support to CARE country offices and their local partners in conducting the baseline and end-line evaluations, ensuring quality data collection protocols and supporting data analysis;
4. Exploration of opportunities to integrate an outcome monitoring system in existing project monitoring systems in order to allow for better alignment and comparability within and between the programmes (as needed and requested);
5. Producing publishable comparative and synthesis baseline and final reports.

The TANGO proposal to CARE for Technical Support to Monitoring and Evaluation of CARE WE-RISE and Pathways Programme can be found in Annex 1.

2.1. Why WE-RISE?

Funded by the Australia Africa Community Engagement Scheme (AACES) and implemented in Tanzania, Ethiopia, and Malawi, WE-RISE has been designed to improve the quality of life for chronically food insecure rural women (CFIRW). WE-RISE is associated with the CARE USA programme known as Pathways, similarly designed to overcome the constraints that prevent women from more productive and equitable engagement in agriculture in India, Bangladesh, Tanzania, Mali, Malawi and Ghana. Both programmes have a strong gender focus, similar programme approach and methodology, and overlapping countries of implementation.

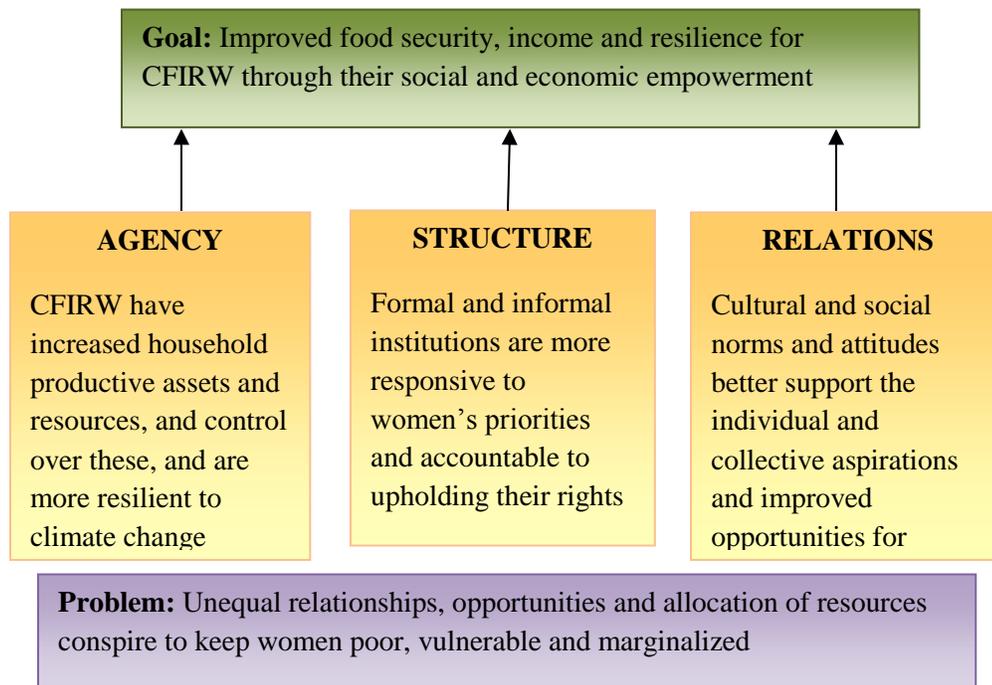
CARE's WE-RISE programme targets 9,846 households in two districts of Tanzania, 15,441 households in three districts of Ethiopia, and 15,000 households in two districts of Malawi.

The WE-RISE programme seeks to improve household food security and resilience by empowering women to more fully engage in and benefit from agricultural activities.

2.2. WE-RISE Theory of Change

CARE's previous work on the Women's Empowerment Strategic Impact Inquiry provides the basis of the WE-RISE Theory of Change (TOC), which includes three domains of change: a) women's agency (i.e., skills, knowledge and aspirations), b) formal and informal structures, and c) social relations that women engage in on a daily basis (i.e., cultural and social norms and attitudes). Figure 1 represents the WE-RISE TOC.

Figure 1. WE-RISE Theory of Change



Thus, the program theorizes that marginalized, chronically food insecure rural women will be more productive, and that their families will be more food secure when:

- women have increased capacity (skills, knowledge, resources), capabilities (confidence, bargaining power, collective voice), and support
- local governance and institutions have/implement gender-sensitive policies and programming that are responsive to the rights and needs of poor women farmers
- Agricultural service, value chain, and market environments of relevance to women are more competitive, gender-inclusive and environmentally sustainable.

Each of the WE-RISE outcomes are designed to contribute to one or more of agency, structure or relations.

The WE-RISE results framework (see next section) illustrates the program's theory of change (TOC) approach, with positive change towards increased food security and household resilience resulting from increased women's empowerment at household, community and institutional levels.

Analysis will address hypotheses derived from the WE-RISE TOC suggesting that 1) women's empowerment contributes to increased agricultural productivity for chronically food insecure rural women, and that 2) greater empowerment, equitable agricultural systems and increased

productivity are mutually reinforcing and lead to improved household livelihood security and resilience. These hypotheses will be analyzed using correlations to examine the relationship between empowerment, equity and productivity and difference-in-difference (DID) analysis to examine the relative changes within and between them over time (between baseline and endline). Separate reports will be produced for each country program, i.e., there will be three WE-RISE country reports (Ethiopia, Malawi, and Tanzania), each of which will be based on data collected from the baseline/endline studies. Data on country-specific indicators not included in the baseline or endline studies must be provided by CARE in order to be included in either report. A “global” analysis will assess performance across the three WE-RISE country programs.

2.3. Goals and Objectives

The WE-RISE Evaluation Plan utilizes the WE-RISE framework and AACES goals to inform development of a set of indicators useful across all three WE-RISE country programs. The Alignment of WE-RISE and AACES framework and goals and the WE-RISE program indicators can be seen in Annex 2.

Development of these “global” indicators also drew on CARE USA’s Pathways program as both programs seek to improve household food security and resilience by empowering women to more fully engage in and benefit from agricultural activities, and have a strong gender focus. These are similar programme approaches and methodology, and overlapping countries of implementation. Thus, the WE-RISE indicators reflect better practice and their standardized format will allow for general comparisons with similar programming activities.

WE-RISE Goal: To improve food security, income and resilience for chronically food insecure rural women through their social and economic empowerment

The WE-RISE objectives are framed as change outcomes and represent the intermediate objectives sought by the program.

- **Change Outcome 1: CFIRW have increased household productive assets and resources and control over them, and are more resilient to climate shocks.** This objective seeks to improve women’s productivity through increased production, income, or income generating opportunities, etc.; knowledge and skills; access to and control over productive resources, assets, markets, services and inputs; and influence within the household and community. The ability of women to access productive assets, financial instruments and knowledge, and to exercise control over decisions related to their use, enhances the role of women as agents of change for the well-being of their households and communities.

The program relies on building and strengthening collectives, such as Village Savings and Loan Associations (VSLA), producer groups, agricultural cooperatives, self-help associations,

and others that make clear contributions to increasing women's knowledge and capacity as a pathway to increasing women's agricultural productivity and empowerment.

Working through collectives, interventions under this objective include promoting equitable access to sustainable means of production (including inputs, financial instruments, productive assets and improved agricultural practices), access to information and skills building (e.g., community-based extension workers, government extension services), improved market access and income generating ability of women. This objective also involves engagement of other market actors and pursuit of a host of value chain activities with those actors in order to transform segments of the agricultural sector to better engage and benefit women smallholder producers.

- **Change Outcome 2: Formal and informal institutions are more responsive to women's priorities and accountable to upholding their rights.** This objective addresses the structural barriers within local institutions (e.g., planning committees, micro-finance institutions, farmers groups) that limit women's productive participation in agriculture. It does this by ensuring gender-equitable policies that sustain women's benefits in agriculture are in place and being implemented, building capacity in local institutions for promoting representative processes, and by increasing representation of women (both as members and leaders) in formal and informal groups, institutions and decision-making bodies.

- **Change Outcome 3: Cultural and social norms and attitudes better support the individual and collective aspirations and improved opportunities for CFIRW.** The third objective focuses on improving the structures, rules and power relations that define how resources are allocated among citizens within a society by changing socio-cultural norms and promoting practices and attitudes that are more gender-sensitive. Strategies include working with elders, community and religious leaders to advocate for gender equality, promoting public awareness on gender issues, and building capacity and accountability in community structures for encouraging women's participation in the public sphere and local decision-making.

WE-RISE Change Outcomes 4 and 5 are beyond the immediate focus of this evaluation plan but are summarized here briefly. Taken together, these objectives seek to increase institutional capacity for improved gender-equitable programming at the global level. Through objectives 4 and 5, CARE is committed to producing knowledge about the pathways toward empowerment of particular segments of women smallholder farmers, and toward more secure and resilient livelihoods for their different household types. CARE will use this knowledge to improve the quality of programming, and influence development practice and discourse to better benefit resource-poor women smallholder farmers who typically do not benefit from mainstream agricultural programs.

These outcomes align with AACES objectives to strengthen AusAID policies and programming targeting marginalized people, as well as to educate the Australian public on development

issues in Africa. Specific targets to be affected under this objective include national policy makers and stakeholders in the countries of implementation, regional platforms focused on food security in Africa and Asia, CARE country offices and partners and a range of global stakeholders and platforms including AusAID and the Australian people.

The program indicators correlating with these change outcomes and objectives can be fully seen in the Alignment of WE-RISE Framework and Standardized Indicators (Annex 3,), in the summary of baseline results in Table 1 of this report, and in the findings section of this report.

2.4. Ethiopia Background

Ethiopia is the first among the WE-RISE countries to undergo a baseline evaluation. The WE-RISE programme is being implemented in the Sidama zone, in proximity to the regional capital Awassa in three woredas: Loka Abaya, Dale and Shebedino. Sidama is one of 13 zones within the Southern Nations Nationalities and Peoples' Region of Ethiopia (SNNPR) and is divided into four major livelihood zones: Bilate Basin Agro-Pastoral, Sidama Maize Belt, Awassa Chat and Enset, and Sidama Coffee Livelihood Zones. All but the Sidama Maize Belt are categorized as food secure zones.¹

The woredas were selected for the WE-RISE programme for several reasons, including the concentration of maize growing and the number of vulnerable households as identified through the government's safety-net programme.

CARE Ethiopia opened an office in Awassa several years ago to enhance the government's safety net programme through the CARE-Productive Safety Net Program (PSNP)-Plus project, working to link the food insecure groups with markets in Dale in selected sub sectors of livestock, cereals and red beans. PSNP-Plus sought to promote income generating potential among poor rural agriculture households and facilitate saving and loan activities in association with the PSNP, which uses food inputs targeting chronically food insecure households to build community assets.

The implementing partner for CARE in Sidama is SOS Sahel Ethiopia. This NGO has a history of programme support to farmers in value chain development of agricultural products and improving access to land and natural resources targeting landless youth - both men and women.

Both organizations, as well as personnel from the CARE office in Addis Ababa and CARE Australia and USA were instrumental in providing input in preparation of the baseline evaluation.

¹ Information from Final Report, Review of Gender, Social Norms and values; and livelihood Perspective of Chronically Food Insecure Households (HHs) in Sidama Zone, SNNPR; Submitted to CARE by UMA Consult PLC; February 2011.

3. Methodology

The evaluation approach for the WE-RISE program is based on principles of knowledge management, with an emphasis on efficient generation and use of information to guide management and strategic decisions. Ingredients necessary for such an approach to succeed include: an evaluation plan with meaningful indicators and appropriate data collection cycles; timely and efficient data collection, synthesis and analysis; and stakeholders committed to evidence-based decision-making. Under the WE-RISE framework, the program will be able to assess progress towards its long-term goals and strategic objectives.

The framework for M&E methodology guidelines and complementary baseline studies was developed in India in late May of 2012 prior to the evaluation being conducted in Ethiopia. This workshop was facilitated by TANGO with participation of CARE staff from the WE-RISE and Pathways countries, as well as from CARE Australia and CARE USA. The workshop produced agreements and guidelines relating to impact, outcome, and output indicators; monitoring processes for collection of the indicators; use and procedures of data collection tools; modalities and responsibilities of baseline survey data collection and analysis, and the relation between the programme theories of change and the monitoring and evaluation methodology.

3.1. Development of Indicators and Data Collection Tools

Prior to the survey being conducted in Ethiopia, TANGO reviewed project specific M&E frameworks and indicators to develop relevant gender-sensitive indicators at the impact and outcome levels. The indicators emphasize women's empowerment across five domains, including agricultural production, access to and ownership of resources, control over income and expenditures, leadership and community participation, and allocation of time.

TANGO drew on several sources to initially develop the indicators, including Feed the Future's *Women's Empowerment in Agriculture Index* (USAID, 2011) and IFPRI's *Engendering Agricultural Research, Development and Extension* (IFPRI, 2011), as well as impact indicators developed by TANGO, CARE and others.

TANGO developed a standardized set of data collection tools, including quantitative survey instruments at the household and individual levels. Additionally, qualitative participatory tools were developed to enable the collection of information for evaluators and project staff through focus group discussions and key informant interviews.

The baseline study establishes a benchmark to track outcomes of programme components, support implementation of results-based management and test the programme's Theory of Change. The baseline (and subsequent end-line study) is designed to generate information on the status of targeted households and communities regarding food security, livelihood, vulnerability, and resilience and allows for comparison before and after programme interventions.

The CARE Global WE-RISE Monitoring and Evaluation Plan can be referenced in Annex 4.

3.2. Quantitative Study

Sampling

As with all the WE-RISE countries, the sample design is based on a longitudinal study for pre and post comparison of results. The survey is “beneficiary-based,” drawn randomly from a sample frame composed of all households with a female member in a collective. The sample size was determined to provide statistically representative results for household and individual level indicators at the project level.

The sampling strategy for Ethiopia was altered from the above global methodology due to very low numbers of female collective members in groups working with the WE-RISE programme (see Limitations section). The sample was stratified by project intervention area. Within each intervention area, a two-stage selection process was followed. First, kebeles were selected within each of three woredas using the probability-proportional-to-size (PPS) selection procedure, based on the total number of female programme participants, including collective members in the kebele. Second, households with female members selected as programme participants are randomly selected within each of the woredas. The sample frames consist of SOS Sahel-Ethiopia’s list of programme participants participating in the WE-RISE programme, disaggregated by their respective gender composition.

The minimum sample size required per comparison group – *woredas* – was computed using the formula for proportions provided in the FANTA Sampling Guide:

$$n = n * D [(Z_{\alpha} + Z_{\beta})^2 * (sd_1^2 + sd_2^2) / (X_2 - X_1)^2] * A$$

Where:

n = required minimum sample size per survey round or comparison group

n = non-response factor

D = design effect

A = attrition factor (baseline to end line)

X₁ = the estimated mean of the indicator at the time of the first survey

X₂ = the *expected* mean of the indicator either at some future date or for the programme area such that the quantity (X₂ - X₁) is the size of the magnitude of change or comparison-group differences it is desired to be able to detect

Z_α = the Z-score corresponding to the degree of confidence with which it is desired to be able to conclude that an observed change of size (X₂ - X₁) would not have occurred by chance (α - the level of statistical significance)

Z_β = the z-score corresponding to the degree of confidence with which it is desired to be certain of detecting a change of size (X₂ - X₁) if one actually occurred (β - statistical power)

sd₁ = the expected standard deviation of the indicator the time of the first survey

sd₂ = the expected standard deviation of the indicator at some future date

The sample size was calculated based on household expenditures, with a targeted improvement of 30% (X_2) over the life of the activity (LOA). A design effect of 2, $Z_\alpha = 1.282$ (Z-value corresponding to a 90% significance level), and $Z_\beta = .84$ (Z-value corresponding to 80% power) were used for all country-level calculations.

The sample size for Ethiopia out of 6400 households was determined to be 890, which factored in a 10% contingency margin in case of enumerator error or inability to interview sampled households.

Survey Training and Logistics

TANGO and CARE selected the Ethiopia Economic Association (EEA) to supervise and manage baseline data collection. The EEA recruited 20 Ethiopian enumerators and five quantitative supervisors as well as four qualitative survey experts, assisted in the survey design and led the quantitative survey in Ethiopia following a five-day training workshop led by TANGO International. The training included a day for field testing the tools.

The first day of the workshop brought the quantitative and qualitative teams together to gain a better understanding of the goals and objectives of the WE-RISE Programme, gender issues, and the survey process and procedures. Training for the quantitative team subsequently centred on exhaustively reviewing the questionnaire for understanding, interpretation, input skill, trouble shooting and refinement where necessary. One day was devoted to learning how to use Personal Digital Assistants (PDAs) and how to ask questions and input answers into the PDAs used for the baseline survey.

The quantitative enumeration team used PDAs loaded with the questionnaire for recording information garnered from the household interviews. Each enumerator received a PDA to record the interview. The questionnaire was presented in English on the PDAs and translated in the field by bilingual enumerators. The EEA and CARE M&E staff was responsible for coordinating the regular collection of the electronic data sets from the field-based survey teams. TANGO (initially in Ethiopia and later remotely) and EEA team leaders observed the sampling and assessed data quality assessment in field visits and remotely, and were responsible for PDA trouble shooting.

The survey design and analysis was coordinated by TANGO International. TANGO developed the software in TSS to load the questionnaire onto PDAs, facilitated the training of survey field staff, and provided quality oversight for the first several days of the fieldwork. Finally, TANGO is responsible for preparing the report of findings from the survey.

The quantitative survey tool is found in Annex 5.

3.3. Qualitative Study

The qualitative study provides complementary information on norms that affect women's empowerment and power relationships, particularly as these factors relate to women's ability to actively engage in and have control over agricultural production and marketing activities. It focuses on specific issues identified in topical outlines that guided the research facilitators in collecting information from groups of women and men (not a general study of a wide range of conditions in the communities). SOS Sahel woreda staff endeavoured to select focus group participants and key informants were representative of the views of the project participants community with respect to these issues.

The qualitative assessment explores contextual factors, including agency, structure and relations and their impact on chronically food insecure rural women. The qualitative data provides insights to better understand and interpret the quantitative indicators and help identify the key factors critical to the success of the programme. The qualitative study utilized a combination of methodologies including focus group discussions, key informant/stakeholder interviews and a number of other tools to secure data. Participatory methodology is used throughout the assessment to secure information from programme participants, including their views of what is most valuable and relevant.

The Qualitative Team and Training

The qualitative data collection team was composed of a team leader and four Ethiopian research facilitators, three of whom were women. All the Ethiopians spoke the local Sidama language, English and Amharic. Their expertise spanned areas of relevance to the survey, including agriculture extension, livestock care, rural health and gender. At each data collection site the SOS Sahel kebele coordinator assisted in logistics, selection of focus group participants and key informants, and in assisting the team leader with a number of key informant interviews.

The Team Leader trained the qualitative team over five days, including a field test of the information-gathering tools. Important in the training was use of participatory methods to secure information. In addition to the joint training with the quantitative team mentioned above, the qualitative team spent two days reviewing and adjusting the gender and livelihood topical outlines to be applied to focus groups in the selected survey sites. Training and tool development also focused on Venn diagrams, daily activity, wealth ranking, and seasonal calendar tools. The team went through exercises in probing for content and recording of information in matrices developed for data collection. WE-RISE implementation staff provided orientation to the programme and context as well as formal and informal institutions and key informants of relevance to the survey.

After the field test and each site visit the qualitative research team reviewed the previous day, adjusted tools for more effective information gathering, and recorded the data. As the survey advanced, summary documents began to be developed to aid in the final report writing.

Site Selection and Tools for Qualitative Study

The baseline profiles six kebeles comprising two kebeles in each of the three woredas of WE-RISE in the Sidama zone. The selected kebeles were purposively selected with representative diversity among different livelihood and agro-ecological areas with information provided by CARE Ethiopia and SOS Sahel staff. In addition to programme and other document background reviews, survey data and information was secured from the topical outlines and tools as summarized below.

1. Key Informant Interviews

Assessment team members met with Food Security Task Force members at woreda and kebele levels and other government agricultural experts; women at woreda and kebele levels who have governmental and community responsibilities in women's issues; community elders including religious leaders; community volunteers; and micro-finance officials and experts; and members of credit, loan and savings groups.

2. Focus Group Discussions

Facilitated focus group (FG) discussions followed topical outlines and tool formats, but were allowed to develop naturally with attention paid to topics the participants felt were the most important. Information was secured from:

- Livelihood FGs: mixed male and female groups of project participants (each kebele)
- Gender FGs: separate male and female groups composed of project participants (each kebele). The topical outlines for livelihoods and gender can be found in Annex 6.
- Combined Daily Activities and Venn Diagram Process FGs: separate male and female groups composed of project participants (each woreda, at a minimum)
- Seasonal Calendars: farmers, mostly men, in the communities (each woreda)
- Wealth Ranking: mixed male/female groups but mostly men (in each woreda)
- Village Savings and Loan Association members, mixed male and female (in two woredas)
- Elders and religious leaders, all men (in two woredas)

3. Specific Participatory Tools

Daily Activities: Men and women separately were walked through the hours in a day and asked to describe typically what they involve. The facilitator probed by asking about certain categories of activity, such as food preparation, cooking, child care, farming, and community-wide activities. The information is placed on a matrix of hours and activity. In this exercise probing occurs as to activities that may not be a regular daily or weekly occurrence, such as going to church or visiting distant relatives. Discussion about the activities of children and elders in the family can also occur. This is a good tool to help identify differences in the activities of men and women and thus is a good indicator of gender roles. A summary of daily activities can be seen in Annex 7.

Venn Diagrams: This is an institution and social positioning exercise. Starting with the group at the middle (separate groups of male and female), participants were asked about formal and informal institutions in their community: their importance, influence, level of participation and responsiveness. The institutions are placed by participants in the exercise as circles of various sizes in proximity to the centre group with lines and arrows indicating participation and responsiveness. Men were asked about institutions of relevance to themselves, their perception of institutions and women, and women about institutions of relevance to themselves. See Annex 8 for the tool and summary.

Seasonal Calendars: This exercise helps to solicit information from rural communities on the timing during a year relating to food access; health including diseases and illness; farming activity relating to crops and livestock; and other seasonal events and patterns. The information is placed on a monthly grid by the participants. See Annex 9.

Wealth Ranking: This is a participatory exercise to understand social differentiation of the community as defined by its residents and to determine:

- Perceptions of poverty and vulnerability;
- Wealth groupings by community-defined attributes; and
- Proportions of community residents belonging to the identified wealth categories.

Residents defined three or four wealth categories, ranging from “poorest of the poor” to “poor” to “middle” or “wealthier.” The exercise provided the assessment team with key indicators of poverty and vulnerability by wealth category, including (amongst other variables):

- Food consumption patterns,
- Access to land, livestock, and assets;
- Housing characteristics and attributes;
- Income sources and livelihood strategies;
- Crop production patterns; and
- Social capital within the community

Please see Annex 10 for this tool and a summary of findings.

3.4. Analyses

The quantitative data was collated and configured by TANGO International staff consistent with the CARE WE-RISE Monitoring and Evaluation Plan. This includes organization of the data into the global indicator framework, plugging the data into formulas for indices and other analytical measuring tools, and formulating into tables and figures.

The qualitative information was reviewed by the qualitative team each day immediately following a field visit to both assess information and sharpen inquiry tools as necessary. Additionally, the information gathered was written into informational matrices on computers

for each focus group and key informant interview. Prior to the team separating, overall summaries were agreed to and developed for key informational categories. These summaries and the data was reviewed by the team leader and organized per programme indicator. This information was later integrated with the quantitative analysis by both team leaders and other TANGO International research staff.

3.5. Limitations

1. A key decision made at the India workshop was that project participants surveyed would need to come from collectives. Determining an appropriate sample, consistent with this parameter was not possible in the Ethiopian context. The collective lists originally supplied by SOS and CARE Ethiopia did not necessarily reflect project participants. Especially problematic were the lists from Shebedino, where potential project participants were not yet members of a collective, and the only collectives were farmers associations and marketing associations dominated by men who would not be targeted as WE-RISE participants. As a result, the random selection process for the quantitative survey was modified. SOS Sahel amalgamated lists of targeted project participants. TANGO drew the random sample from those modified lists. These households will be interviewed during the end-line survey in approximately four years. It should still be possible to compare results with those of other countries, if CARE Ethiopia and SOS Sahel successfully integrate these targeted households into collectives, which they are proposing to do at this time.

2. The timeline for preparation of the baseline evaluation in Ethiopia was very short. The survey occurred soon following the India all-CARE workshop. CARE Ethiopia and SOS Sahel were not able to provide the Collectives Readiness Tool (which was not used for the purpose of this survey) and the lists of project participants until just prior to the onset of the survey. A number of key details were not able to be worked out until the TANGO evaluation team leaders arrived in Ethiopia. Once in Ethiopia, considerable time was devoted to resolving the sampling challenge described above.

3. The survey was initially too long in length with questions being recommended from a large diversity of stakeholders, rendering the initial design impractical, and severely jeopardizing the quality of data to be collected. An overly long survey invites enumerator error; enumerators feel pressed to complete a certain number of questionnaires per day (and the budget, which CARE made clear could not be amended, forbade flexibility in reducing the number of households to be visited by each enumerator daily). Importantly, the length of time it would take to do the survey would create difficulties in terms of both cost to administer and quality of data. Under such a scenario enumerators may be more prone to skip questions or even sections and/or participants may lose patience with the interview. Finally, the PDAs were at risk of running out of battery power in rural areas. Therefore the questionnaire needed to be reduced in size with an eye toward redundancy, relevancy and the cultural context of Ethiopia.

4. CARE Ethiopia, its implementing partner SOS Sahel, and the Ethiopia Economic Association all determined that political capital inquiry should not be conducted due to sensitivities related to NGO functioning in the political environment of Ethiopia. Absence of this variable also impacts calculation of a Women’s Empowerment Index (WEI) for Ethiopia (see 5 above). This modification will be present in the final Ethiopia Baseline Report.

5. The current WEI figures have been created without including information about political capital. The team extracted all questions that could have been construed as controversial or political from the Ethiopia questionnaire, including questions about leadership and influence and two entire modules on political participation. The WEI, which does not include the Gender Parity Index (GPI), was adjusted to reflect these changes.

6. Women were not able to be recruited by EEA to serve as enumerators for the quantitative survey data collection. Quality of responses from women, so central to this programme, could have suffered to some degree.

7. Income data from the survey was judged not to be reliable due in part to low levels of response. A good proxy for income is expenditures, which in most livelihood surveys is more accurately provided by survey participants than is income. Therefore, this proxy is being used in this baseline report.

4. Findings and Outcomes

4.1. Household Characteristics

The tables below provide perspective on households in the program area.

Table 2: Surveyed households, by woreda				
	Loka Abayo	Dale	Shebedino	Total Sample
# of Households	318	301	302	921
% of sample	34.5	32.7	32.8	100.0

Female headed households comprise 39.3 % of the households. Just over half of males in the households they head are literate, significantly more than the 8.3% of literate heads of female headed households. At 15%, polygamous households headed by females are three times greater than those headed by males.

Education levels are extremely low: No female headed households have a secondary education contrasted with 2.9% of the heads of male headed households.

Table 3: Household demographics

	Female Headed Households		Male Headed Households		Total Sample	
	Mean	n	Mean	n	Mean	n
Number of Household Members	4.2*	362	5.2	559	4.8	921
Number of Females in the Household	2.4	362	2.4	559	2.4	921
Number of Females engaged in Agricultural Activities	1.1*	362	1.0	559	1.0	921
Age of Head of Household	45.0*	362	41.0	559	42.3	921
% of Heads of Household who are Literate	8.3*	362	51.0	559	34.2	921
% of Polygamous Households	15.2*	362	5.2	559	9	921
# of Children in the Household food dependent ²	3.48	361	3.6	530	3.6	891

* Indicates at least a 10% difference from the mean value of male-headed households

Table 4: Education level of head of household

	Female Headed Households	Male Headed Households	Total Sample
	%	%	%
No education	89.5*	46.9	63.6
Primary	10.2*	49.9	34.3
Secondary	--	2.9	1.7
More than secondary	0.3*	0.4	0.3
n	362	559	921

Nearly three-quarters of heads of households in the WERISE sample are married who nearly all have been married for more two years. Nearly all male household heads are married and conversely nearly half of the females in the households they head have been widowed, while 13.8% have been divorced

Table 5: Marital status of head of household

	Female Headed Households	Male Headed Households	Total Sample
	%	%	%
Single	1.4	0.5	0.9
Married (Less than or equal to two years)	--	1.4	0.9
Married (More than two years)	35.6	97.7	73.3
Divorced	13.8	--	5.4
Widow/Widower	49.2	0.4	19.5
n	362	559	921

² This was determined from the a question during the female respondent section, therefore homes that did not have a female respondent are not represented.

4.2. Livelihood and Food Security

4.2.1. Dietary Diversity and Women's Access

An essential aspect of food security, dietary diversity is clearly problematic for many households in the three woredas of Sidama. Dietary diversity refers to nutrient adequacy, defined here as a diet that meets the minimum requirements for energy and all essential nutrients. The rationale for using dietary diversity as an indicator for dietary quality stems primarily from a concern related to nutrient deficiency and the recognition of the importance of increasing food and food group variety to ensure nutrient adequacy. Dietary diversity assesses the number of different food groups consumed over a 24-hour period by household members. Lack of dietary diversity is typically a serious health problem in poor rural communities. For this survey it serves as indicator of access to food by women, socioeconomic status and highlights differences between female and male headed households. Food preparers in households were asked to respond to 11 different food groups.³

	%	n
Completed Food Security Module	85.6	789
Did Not Complete Food Security Module	14.4	132
Total	100.0	921

The data in Table 7 demonstrate that male headed households have a little greater diversity in their household diets. Data from each woreda suggests that households in Loka Abayo may be consuming fewer food groups than the other two woredas.

Table 7 analyzes women's intra-household access to food. Women consume marginally fewer food groups within the household than do other members of the household (confirmed when comparing the Household Diet Diversity Score and the Women's Intra-Household Food Access score).

A wealth ranking summary and data can be found in Annex 10. Project participants themselves determine wealth categories and characteristics. Food consumption of wealth groups in the qualitative survey communities is summarized in Table 8.

³ The Household Dietary Diversity Score (HDDS) and Women's Dietary Diversity Score (WDDS) are modified on 11 dietary items vs. 12 in the other country studies, because sugar/honey was inadvertently omitted from the quantitative household survey.

Table 7: Food security (modified out of 11)*

	Female Headed Households	Male Headed Households	Total Sample
	Mean	Mean	Mean
Household Diet Diversity Score	3.9	4.1	4.0
Women's Intra-Household Food Access	3.7	4.0	3.9
N	308	481	789

Table 8: Food consumption by wealth group

Wealth Group	Poorer	Medium	Wealthier
Food typically consumed	Eat a meal about once a day with very little diversity normally comprising of a grain or <i>kocho</i> perhaps with a little vegetable. Eggs, if raised, are sold and generally not consumed. Meat is eaten only at a major holiday, if at all. The poorest of the poor generally have little food at home and are often receiving food in exchange for their labour.	Usually eats a meal twice a day with some diversity (i.e., <i>kocho</i> and cabbage). Milk and butter is consumed somewhat regularly. Meat is eaten occasionally, though not regularly.	Eats a diversity of food three times a day. The <i>kocho</i> is richly flavoured and some meat is consumed on a regular basis. <i>Teff injera</i> is popular.
Average % distribution	75%	18%	7%

4.2.2. Shocks

The three woredas included in the WE-RISE Ethiopia programme share many socio-economic characteristics pertaining to shock resilience. However, there are important differences. Lowland areas, such as those in Loka Abaya woreda, are more vulnerable to lack of rain. In the period of this survey, a significant amount of the maize harvest was thought to be lost – as a direct result of a lack of rain. This was at the front of everyone’s mind in this woreda during the survey.

Communities in Shebedino woreda reported significant concerns with population growth and shrinking farm size. This is compounded by already limited terrain in the highland areas of the woreda, mitigated some degree through terracing. Migration and settlement programmes are frequently mentioned as a means to cope and survive through shock periods. Little or no

financial resources were reported in focus group discussions to have been sent back to families from migrants.

Kebeles in Dale woreda are in closer proximity to the major national highway going south through the Sidama zone. This geographic factor has provided greater economic opportunity to some in road-related trade and better access to relatively larger urban markets.

	Female Headed Households	Male Headed Households	Total Sample
	%	%	%
Major drought	64.9	69.1	67.4
Illness or accident of HH member	30.9	32.9	32.1
Indebtedness (from loans)	25.4	31.1	28.9
Major flooding	16.3	26.7	22.6
Death of income earning HH members	29.0	17.7	22.1
Epidemics (crop, livestock, human)	14.6	22.4	19.3
Dowry/wedding costs	16.6	14.8	15.5
Loss of regular job by household member	8.8	11.1	10.2
Major conflicts	8.8	9.5	9.2
Failure or bankruptcy of business	6.9	10.6	9.1
Divorce or abandonment	15.5	4.5	8.8
Division of father's property	7.7	8.8	8.4
Withdrawal of NGO or Government assistance	8.8	7.9	8.3
A decrease of remittances to household	5.8	3.6	4.5
n	321	559	921

Approximately 80% of households report having experienced shocks over the last five years. Household reporting shocks have averaged about 3 shocks in this time period. Table 9 above indicates that the most significant shock, experienced by, approximately two-thirds of households is major drought, followed by family crises of indebtedness and death of an income earner.

	Female Headed Households	Male Headed Households	Total Sample
# of shocks	3.01	3.07	3.05
n	313	492	805

4.2.3. Coping Strategies

Discussions with programme participants in local communities indicate that their borrowing or giving capacity to support each other, either in kind or cash, has grown more limited over time. They report this is due to their worsening economic situation. There is lower capacity to give and reduced confidence that repayments can occur. Corresponding with this are very onerous traditional loan arrangements. What still does occur is household/homestead work of disadvantaged community members on other people’s property in exchange for food.

As economic wellbeing decreases, women report that girls are impacted disproportionately. They, rather than boys, are the first to stay at home from school during times of stress. This happens, for example, when mothers are out of the home cutting rock in a public works programme (reported as a common occurrence in Chancho kebele of Loka Abayo woreda).

A *coping strategy index* measures the frequency and severity of a household’s reaction in dealing with shortfalls in food supply. Households react in different ways, such as selling assets, taking loans, changing consumption patterns and migrating. Severity weights of each strategy are then applied, based on an average from countries around the world, to enable comparisons. Table 11 measures and compares the coping strategies of female and male headed households. The higher the index number indicates a greater frequency and greater severity of coping strategies taken. Female headed households engage in approximately 9% greater coping strategies.

Table 11: Coping Strategy Index						
	Female Headed Households		Male Headed Households		Total Sample	
	Mean	n	Mean	n	Mean	n
Coping Strategy Index	28.35*	362	25.96	559	26.90	921

* Indicates at least a 10% difference from the mean value of male-headed households

There may be severe reactions by households when difficulties and shocks occur. The tables which follow assess the frequency and reaction of households in recent times. Table 14 identifies the number of households adopting one or more of “negative” coping strategies that are most likely to result in irreversible effects such as sale of land and borrowing from moneylenders.

Nearly all households reduced their food intake due to food shortfalls in the 30 day period leading up to the survey. A little more than three-quarters of households report skip eating at least one day a week, and approximately 83% borrow money or food to eat at least one day a week.

Table 12: % of households to use consumption coping strategies in past 30 days

Frequency of use:	Never	1 day each week	2-3 days each week	4-6 days each week	Daily
Relied on less preferred or less expensive foods	6.7	24.5	40.0	8.4	20.6
Borrowed food or borrowed money to buy food	16.9	34.2	38.9	7.7	2.2
Reduced the number of meals or the quantity eaten per day	3.1	24.6	32.0	14.4	25.9
Skipped eating due to lack of money or food for entire day	23.2	33.8	28.0	6.2	8.8
Consumed taboo food or foods which are normally not eaten	89.1	5.0	4.2	.7	1.0
Restricted consumption of some family members so that others could eat more	23.4	27.4	21.8	9.9	17.6
Eat seed stock held for next season	52.4	23.2	17.6	5.1	1.7
Beg or scavenge	91.6	3.1	2.4	.6	2.2
n					826

Coping strategies vary widely from household to household. The data indicates there is not much difference overall in how female vs. male headed households react to shocks. However, female headed households tend to adopt more coping strategies though less with more negative consequences. Over the last three months 84% of the programme households have engaged in negative coping strategies.

Table 13: % households adopting negative coping strategies in past 3 months (in response to food or income shortage)

	Female Headed Households	Male Headed Households	Total Sample
	%	%	%
% households adopting negative coping strategies in past 3 months	83.7	84.1	84.0
n	338	488	826

The greatest response by households to food or income shortage is to reduce expenditures as may be expected. Loans and asset reductions are the next level of responses. Significantly, nearly 40% of households at times lower school attendance with children dropping out from

school. Community members report this is due to school costs and the need for youth, mostly females, to help out more at home and work to generate food or income.

Table 14: % households adopting negative coping strategies in past 3 months (in response to food or income shortage)			
# of negative strategies employed in response to food or income shortages	Female Headed	Male Headed	Total Sample
	Households	Households	
	%	%	%
None	10.4	3.7	6.4
One	10.4	8.8	9.4
Two to three	29.3	30.3	29.9
Four to six	38.2	40.2	39.3
Six or more	11.8	17.0	14.9
n	338	488	826

Table 15: % of households who employed adaption strategy (in response to food or income shortage) in past 3 months	
Negative coping strategies	%
Reduce expenditure on livestock and agricultural inputs	71.5
Reduce expenditures (e.g., health care, education)	69.9
Take a loan with interest	45.4
Pledge or sell labor/crops/livestock in advance.	40.9
Lower school attendance or drop out from school	39.1
Request local government for assistance	29.9
Sell a higher number of livestock than usual	26.8
Unusual sales (e.g., household assets, firewood, charcoal, etc.)	20.9
Send children away to better-off relatives and friends	16.9
Receive remittances (food or cash) from relatives, friends	15.1
Migrate	11.3
Slaughter more animals than normal	4.6
n	826

Table 16 shows about relatively equal levels of using adaptation strategies to reduce the impact of shocks between female and male headed households. No participant in the focus group discussions indicated any food security improvement as a result of government or NGO safety-net programmes – particularly in the context of escalating negative climate change impact, population growth and rising costs.

Table 16: % households (which experienced a shock) using any adaptation strategies to reduce the impact of future shocks

	Female Headed Households	Male Headed Households	Total Sample
Use of ANY adaption strategy	69.0	72.4	71.1
n	313	492	805

Examples of adaptation strategies are listed in Table 17. Of note is that approximately one-third of the households say they are not engaged in any adaptation strategy. About half of the households are diversifying in other income generation activities or using drought resistant crops, and a little over 40% are investing in savings as a strategy.

About one-third of all households identified “other” adaptation strategies used in reference to anticipated shocks and the quantitative survey did not have a provision for identifying what these “other” adaptation strategies. However, focus group discussions revealed that many local community members are engaged in government safety net programmes, including public works programmes that are short term in duration and justified by the government as linked to food security.

Table 17: % households (which experienced a shock) using adaptation strategies to reduce the impact of future shocks

Type of Strategies Used	%
Diversified income generating activities	51.4
Use of Drought Tolerant Crops	50.1
Invested in Savings	41.2
Do Nothing	33.7
Purchased additional livestock	26.5
Purchased additional Land	15.5
Invested in Irrigation Infrastructure	13.3
Other	36.4
n	805

4.2.4. Household Income (farm and non-farm) and Expenditures

Within the Sidama zone, communities experience very similar livelihood strategies, income-earning patterns and related decision-making strategies, which are referenced throughout this report. A summary is provided in Annex 11 referred to as the “traditional set-up” along with a description of how this appears to be changing.

Women’s control of work, assets and income tends to be derived from resources close to and around the home. These include access to poultry, milk and butter from livestock and garden

vegetables. To the degree these can be sold in local markets, women are often involved – especially if living in close proximity to these markets. The more distant the markets, the greater the involvement of men, due to more limited mobility afforded to women. Women in focus groups indicate their influence on marketing decisions is “suggestive or consultative” to men who ultimately decide on the use of this income.

Men control the cash crops, particularly coffee and chat, and sale of livestock. Decision-making on how this income is utilized is at the discretion of men. This holds true for cash crops existing in the shadow of the home dwelling as well (see story below).

Women in focus groups say they have very little power to purchase. They are often thought by men to be “extravagant” in their expenditures, a perception not supported by data. There is a perception among women and men that women must be better educated and have broader experiences outside the home to make good expenditure decisions. Yet their mobility to do this remains limited because of a cultural perception that women should not wander too far from the homestead.

The Footprint....

When asked about access of women to income from coffee a man reported how he caught his wife drinking coffee in their home. He later found her footprint in his coffee field and she was considered a thief. In no way could she ever have the right to sell his coffee, let alone drink it without his authorization.

Expenditures of female headed households are approximately 70% that of male headed households⁴

Table 18: Monthly expenditures (household and per capita) (USD)			
	Female Headed Households	Male Headed Households	Total Sample
	Mean	Mean	Mean
Household Expenditures (Monthly)(\$)	47.76*	67.9354	60.00
Per Capita Expenditure (Monthly)(\$)	13.25*	16.5244	15.24
N	362	559	921

* Indicates at least a 10% difference from the mean value of male-headed households

⁴ Expenditures have been used as a proxy for income. The income data collected by the team proved to be unreliable. For example, only 60% of all households reported any type of cash income throughout the year.

4.2.5. Households with Savings

Approximately 29% of female headed households do have savings, about 25% less than male headed households. Overall a little over 38% of survey respondents have savings.

Table 19: % of households with savings (in formal or informal institution)			
	Female Headed Households	Male Headed Households	Total Sample
	%	%	%
Household with savings	29.4*	41.0	36.5
n	361	558	919

* Indicates at least a 10% difference from the mean value of male-headed households

Table 20: % of Respondents with savings (in formal or informal institution)		
	Female Respondents	Male Respondents
	%	%
Respondents with Savings	24.7*	38.4
n	361	550

4.2.6. Women and Credit for Income Generating Activities

Micro-finance, credit and cooperative managers in the programme region report that women generally comprise from 30-45% of their customers. These groups, including the Village Savings and Loan Associations (VSLAs) promoted by CARE, target women's participation. Anecdotally, it appears that the percentage of female outreach workers of these groups and the officers of the VSLAs tend to approximate the same percentage of female users and customers. Women's access to credit is understood by both men and women alike as creating new dynamics relating to gender roles including more sharing in decision-making and greater opportunities for women and their families.

Women breaking stereotypes with savings and credit.....

Women must combat the generalized belief that they lack the experience or education to adequately make decisions related to money. However, micro-finance organizations report that, with some training and if given a chance, women are significantly better risks than men in their use and payback of credit.

When women are able to access and utilize credit for household-related expenditures and income generating initiatives, micro-finance managers (all men who were interviewed) report that women are clearly more responsible customers than men, a result of two factors: 1) women

effectively utilize training and orientation opportunities when involved in micro-finance and related programmes, and 2) women are less wasteful in their expenditures and more effectively

utilize credit and savings for stated purposes. Managers report that women tend to have a better payback record, though this perception has not been measured.

The barriers for women to overcome, as cited by micro-finance experts in the programme region, are socio-cultural: their lack of confidence and the traditional thinking that credit must come through men. Though husbands and wives must jointly sign credit related financial documents, women report they need to have permission from their husbands before embarking on the credit process. The inverse is not the case. One set of credit cooperative officials report a

A success story...

An insight comes from one older and respected woman in the programme region who has successfully accessed credit over the last five years through a credit cooperative. She has used these financial resources to purchase poultry, sheep and a donkey and says this credit has clearly strengthened her food security and improved her family’s livelihood. Why has she been successful and what does it take for other women to be successful? Her response (paraphrased): “I somehow knew the importance of saving and got in the habit of it. Women need on-going awareness building and need to come together in groups to do this.”

difference in male and female attitudes when accessing credit: men consider these financial resources as their own, whereby women consider them in terms of household needs and future household livelihoods.

Only about 12% of women who have taken out a loan, or have wanted to take out a loan, have taken loans for income generating activities- about one-third the rate for men.

Table 21: % individuals with loans for income-generating activities (of respondents with loans or who wanted loans)

	Female Respondents		Male Respondents	
	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>
Individuals with Loans for IGA activities	12.2	419	31.5	346

Respondents indicate very low rates of sole control over income generating loans.

Table 22: % of Respondents with sole control of loans for IGA (of respondents with loans or who wanted loans)

	Female Respondents		Male Respondents	
	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>
Respondents with Savings	6.2	419	6.4	346

As may be expected, Table 23 shows a significantly greater number of women in female headed households (about 42%) have accessed loans in the last 12 months than women in male headed households. This compares to about 51% of men in male headed households. Overall, far fewer women are taking out loans than men.

Table 23: Loan access and use during the past 12 months

	Female Headed Households		Male Headed Households		Total Sample	
	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>
Women taking out any loan over 100 birr	41.8*	361	27.4	553	33.2	894
Men taking out any loan over 100 birr	56	25	50.9	527	51.1	552

* Indicates at least a 10% difference from the mean value of male-headed households

By far, most loans of survey respondents come from friends, relatives or informal sources. Approximately 6% of both male and female respondents access loans from VSLAs, and far fewer from other community groups. It is likely that with 25% of the loans coming from informal lenders, a considerable amount of repayment is at high usurious rates reported by some community sources at 50% or even 100%.

Table 24: Sources of loans (of respondents who took out a loan)

	Female Respondents	Male Respondents
Friend/Relative	68.8	65.2
VSLA	6.0	6.0
NGO	0	.4
Formal lender	.3	1.4
Informal lender	22.5	25.2
Community group	2.0	.7
Government Extension	0.0	.7
Shop/Merchant	.3	.0
Other	0.0	.4
<i>n</i>	298	282

The more informal VSLA process only requires women to have a witness document their ability to absorb a loan. Some women VSLA members say that prior to their VSLA involvement they were not regularly included in purchasing decisions for the family, but now are. Women members report that men are pleased when women are able to save and access credit, especially when disbursements come to the family.

Women in VSLAs report little time to accomplish all that is expected of them in their daily lives (see Annex 7, a summary of daily activities). However, sometimes women’s VSLA involvement – including attending meetings – spurs men to become more involved in household activities. Prior to this, men *absolutely never helped out* (women’s emphasis) with household activities.

Women say their involvement in VSLAs has given them greater confidence. Their families have benefited from VSLA assistance by enhancing food and livestock productivity in and around their homesteads over which they traditionally have had some control. At this point, this confidence has not crossed barriers to stronger involvement and influence with other institutions.

Men and women both report using VSLA and other credit resources to assist in medical and educational needs to which they would have little other recourse. Women report they need husband’s permission for membership and involvement in VSLAs. In some cases women report receiving less than requested disbursements because male VSLA leadership believes women are less capable than men to repay.

Though still small in scope in the programme region, VSLAs have characteristics that appear promising in minimizing gender barriers contributing to vulnerabilities of chronically poor rural women farmers and their families.

Table 25 shows very low rates of women’s access to and use of loans for income generating purposes. When accessing credit, both the husband and wife must sign required documents. Though this is a joint requirement, men say it is their domain to make final decisions on use of this credit, even if the woman is the family representative in the credit/saving group and primary participant in use of the resource. When a woman takes the initiative on credit, communities sometimes express suspicion that this occurs at the behest of a man who otherwise would not be seen as a good credit risk, or women are only trying to take advantage of credit groups who have programmes especially geared toward women. The traditional sentiment among men, and more broadly in the community, is that husbands are understood as “inferior” and face a degree of shame if wives are making key decisions about credit and other financial matters.

Table 25: % women with access to and control over loans for IGA (of respondents with loans or who wanted loans)

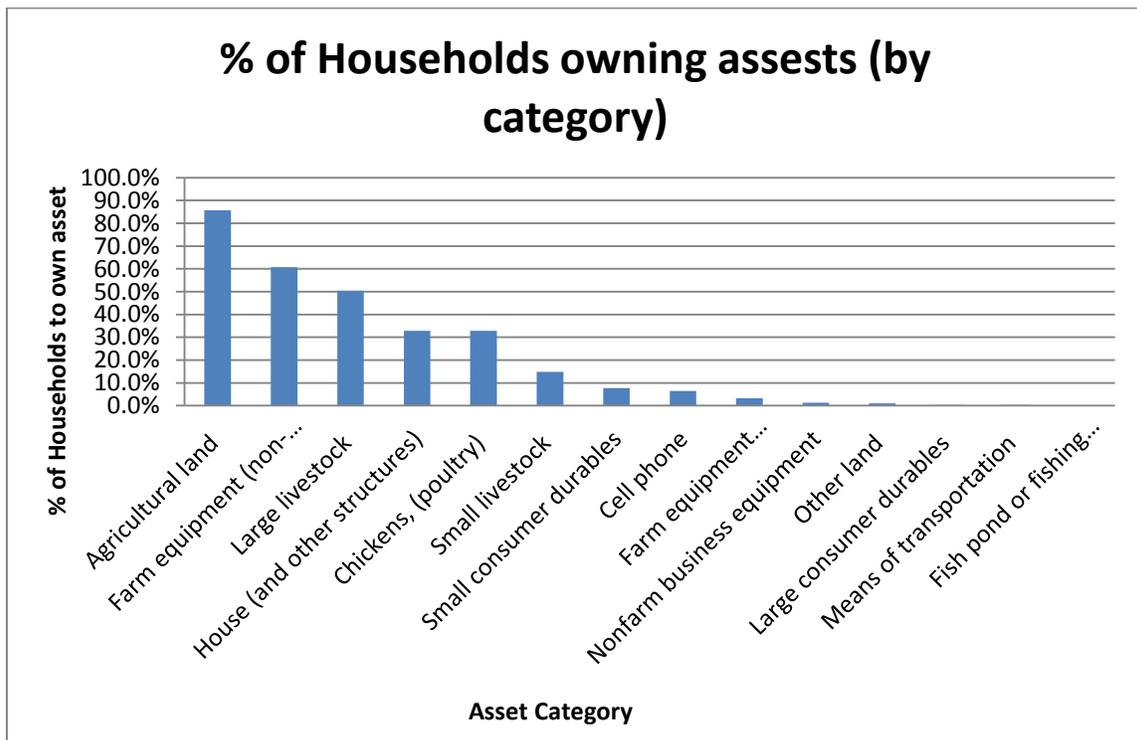
	Female Headed Households	Male Headed Households	Total Sample
	%	%	%
% women with access to and control over loans for IGA	10.5*	2.3	6.2
n	199	220	419

* Indicates at least a 10% difference from the mean value of male-headed households

4.2.7. Household Assets

The *mean asset index* is a proxy for household wealth and measures the number and weighted value of animal and other productive and household assets. Asset categories and ownership patterns can be seen in Figure 2. The greater the ownership of assets, the more cushion a household has to adjust to shortfalls in food access, income and increases in expenditures, which could be sudden shocks. Asset ownership is an important buffer to cope with shocks. Household asset ownership varies substantially across the project areas.

Figure 2: Percentage of households owning assets (by asset category)



The differences between female and male headed households are significant: female headed households own approximately 79% of the assets compared to male headed households. Women often are compelled to sell assets in the absence of a husband assisting with farm or income generating activity or have limited capacity to develop their assets.

	Female Headed Households	Male Headed Households	Total Sample
	Mean	Mean	Mean
Mean Asset Index	6005	7581	6945
N	361	553	894

4.3. Agricultural Productivity

4.3.1. Income Earning

Table 27 provides data on women generating income in ways that improve productivity consistent with WE-RISE programme emphases. An example is crop and nursery sales of agricultural products. Approximately half of the women in the programme in female headed households are earning this type of income, and about 20% less in male headed households.

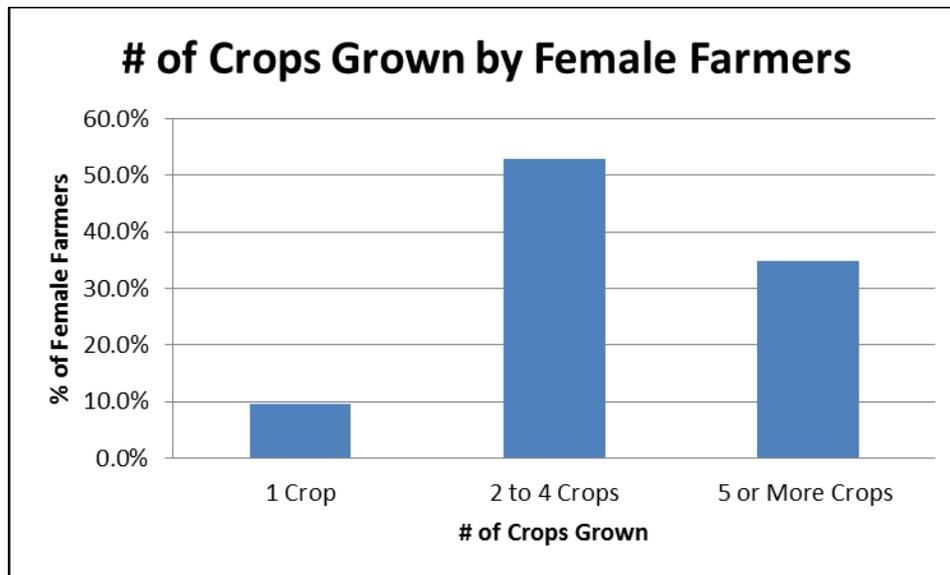
	Female Headed Households	Male Headed Households	Total Sample
% women earning income from agricultural activities promoted by WERISE	50.0*	38.8	43.2
n	362	559	921

* Indicates at least a 10% difference from the mean value of male-headed households

4.3.2. Agricultural Yield and Production

The slight majority of women grow between 2-4 crops.

Figure 3: # of crops grown by female farmers



Women grow fewer crops in households they head when compared to women in male headed households. This is expected given the demands on their time, not the least of which is traditional household activities led by women, such as cooking and childrearing.

Table 28: Number of different crops grown by women who produced or sold any agricultural or homestead garden crops during the last 12 months

	Female Headed Households	Male Headed Households	Total Sample
# of crops	3.47*	4.03	3.85
n	207	312	519

* Indicates at least a 10% difference from the mean value of male-headed households

Yields per hector of crop groups are listed below, extrapolated from information farmers in the program region provided in the survey. Note that some of the figures may be amplified, such as avocados since this is likely coming from one tree and applied to a hectare of trees.

Table 29: Agricultural yield of crops supported by WE-RISE

Crop	Hectors for Crop Production	Annual Production (KG)	Annual Yield	n
			(KG Per Hector)	
Avocado	.247	106.08	49369.49	103
Banana	.073	100.18	16317.59	134
Chat	.537	124.94	3386.71	285
coffee	.307	159.33	5820.46	358
Enset	.589	305.60	2736.93	383
Haricot	.290	60.23	1928.74	140
Maize	.500	181.60	1634.78	447
Potato	.041	75.83	5546.43	12
Sugarcane	.145	160.16	3774.08	30
Sweet Potato	.117	191.36	436.62	7
Teff	.170	78.29	12219.89	86

Kocho, derived from *enset* (false banana plant), is a major food for consumption in the programme region. The plant is more drought resistant than most other major food crops and thus is crucial to food security in Sidama. Typically *enset* is grown in and around the household and thus women are very involved in its cultivation and food preparation. Cutting of the plant is shared with men, depending on the plant's height and location. Once cut, women may dispense some of the plant to livestock and go through several stages of fermenting and preparing the plant for human consumption. Depending on the wealth status of the family, *kocho* is served with varying degrees of flavouring. Wealthier households are able to flavour *kocho* with butter and other ingredients, although *kocho* tends to be consumed more frequently by relatively poor households; the relatively rich can afford more *injera* with *teff*. In addition to *enset*, other crops in which women have involvement are highlighted below. Focus groups of men and women

report that coffee and chat involvement is limited strictly too assisting husbands or other men in the growing or harvesting of these cash crops.

Table 30: % of crops grown (by women who produced or sold any agricultural or homestead garden crops during the last 12 months)

	Female Headed Households	Male Headed Households	Total Sample
Maize	86.4	86.2	86.3
Enset	72.3	77.9	75.7
Coffee	66.5	71.2	69.3
Chat	51.0	57.7	55.0
Haricot bean	26.2	27.2	26.8
Banana	18.0	31.1	25.9
Avocado	17.5	21.8	20.1
Sugar Cane	13.0	19.2	16.8
Sweet Potato	5.3	6.4	6.0
Potato	1.5	2.9	2.3
Teff	1.5	1.3	1.4
n	206	312	518

4.3.3. Adoption of Improved Agricultural Practices

Table 31 outlines women’s adoption of improved agricultural practices. Marginally fewer women in female headed households have adopted improved agricultural practices than those in male headed households – explained, at least in part, by greater access of men to agricultural extension services.

Table 31: % women (who produced or sold any agricultural or homestead garden crops during the last 12 months) adopting 3 or more improved agricultural practices

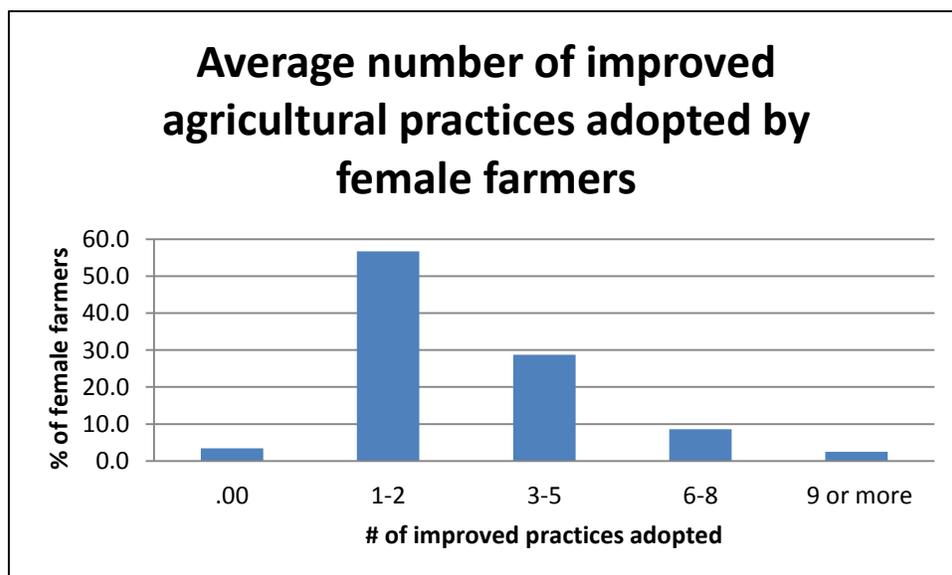
	Female Headed Households	Male Headed Households	Total Sample
% of Women adopting 3 or more improved agricultural practices	38.4	41.4	40.2
n	206	312	518

A slight majority of female farmers are using 1-2 improved agricultural practices with about 40% of women using 3 or more. Most of this is centred around manure/composting, alley/intercropping and crop rotation. Less than one-quarter are using improved seeds.

Table 32: % of female farmers to adapted improved agricultural practices

Type of Improved Agricultural Practice	% of Female Farmers utilizing practice
Manure or Compost	58.2
Alley Cropping / Intercropping	42.5
Other	31.4
Crop Rotation	30.8
Improved Seeds	22.0
Cover Crops	20.4
Mulching	19.1
Soil Erosion Control	17.6
Increased number of crops	16.6
Minimum Tillage	14.9
Irrigation Technologies	1.0
None	0
n	518

Figure 4: Average number of improved agricultural practices adopted by female farmers



4.3.4. Women Farmers and Value Chain & Marketing Practices

These practices include activities such as sorting, processing, packaging, and use of farmers groups for sale or transporting. Marketing practices span sales in local markets to individual traders or farmer producers and more formal groups.

Table 33: % women adopting one or more value chain practices

	Female Headed Households	Male Headed Households	Total Sample
% women adopting one or more value chain practices	36.9	36.5	36.7
n	309	441	750

* Indicates at least a 10% difference from the mean value of male-headed households

Overall, Table 33 indicates few differences in use of these practices by type of household; about 37% of women farmers have adopted marketing practices utilizing practices such as those listed in Table 34.

Table 34: % of female farmers to adapted improved agricultural practices

Type of Value Chain Practices	% of Female Farmers Utilizing Practice
Sorting	16.0
Grading	5.7
Processing	13.7
Packaging	2.8
Bulk Sale through farmers groups	2.0
Bulk transport through farmers groups	1.9
Other	16.7
n	750

4.3.5. Storage Practices

Table 35-Table 37 provide information on storage practices, including those identified as “improved,” particularly those helping to prevent loss in quality and enable greater efficiencies. Only about 11% of women respondents were even storing agricultural items from the previous harvest. Focus group discussions suggest this is a result of economic hardship faced by families, including the dire and immediate need for income and use of crops for family consumption. Practically no female farmers were utilizing improved storage practices.

Table 35: female farmers to store crops (during the last 12 months)

	%	n
<i>Store Crops</i>	11.2	84
<i>Did Not Store Crops</i>	88.8	667
<i>Total</i>	100.0	751

Table 36: % women adopting minimum number of improved storage practices

	Female Headed Households	Male Headed Households	Total Sample
% women adopting minimum number of improved storage practices	0.97*	1.81	1.46
N	309	442	751

* Indicates at least a 10% difference from the mean value of male-headed households

Virtually no women have adopted improved storage practices. The vast majority of female farmers (84%) utilize traditional storage practices. Sidama farmers normally store their food in a *kafecha*, a traditional box kept underground.

Table 37: % female farmers to adapt specific storage practices (of farmers to adapt storage practices)

	%
Improved locally made structure/granary	8.33
Modern storage structure like cribs or silos	2.38
Sealed/airtight containers	2.38
Improved cereal banks	0.00
Improved community storing facilities	2.38
Traditional storage	71.43
Other	27.38
N	84

4.3.6. Livestock Practices

Improved livestock practices include varieties of veterinary and health care for animals, feeding practices and quality of husbandry and feeding practices. Only about one-quarter of women are utilizing improved practices, with women in female headed households applying fewer improved practices than those in male headed households. Traditionally, large livestock are controlled by men.

Table 38: % women using minimum number (1 or more) of improved livestock practices

	Female Headed Households	Male Headed Households	Total Sample
% women using minimum number of improved livestock practices	20.40*	26.20	23.80
n	309	442	751

* Indicates at least a 10% difference from the mean value of male-headed households

5. Agricultural Extension Services

At the kebele level, agricultural extension occurs through Farming Training Centres (FTCs). A Venn diagram of formal and informal institutions, including FTCs, as perceived by men and women, can be seen Annex 8.

Men understand the FTC as an influential and important formal institution throughout the local communities. Active involvement in FTC activities allows men to access important social capital as well as future economic capital. Extension service providers are seen as active in the community; men farmers seek their assistance and they are somewhat responsive to the needs of farmers. However, frustration is high in farming communities about the increasing costs of inputs, particularly fertilizer, which has risen significantly over the last year. Though communities appear to trust extension service providers, farmers expressed concerns that new seeds and farming techniques advocated by Development Agents may have harmful long-term impact on the quality of farmland. One woreda agricultural expert dismissed farmers concerns about the rising costs of fertilizer as instead a function of poor farming practice. They like to point out that cash crops such as coffee have increased farmer profits.

Women in the programme area generally perceive government agricultural extension workers, who are invariably men, as serving the needs of men. They generally believe that extension workers elicit little interest in valuing women as agricultural producers. Women understand extension outreach as generally relating to the work of their husbands and men, and more prominent farms in their areas. Women view their participation with FTCs as indirect, largely through their husbands or males in their families.

Men dominate decision-making on planting, harvesting, seeds, fertilizing, feeding and protection of crops and livestock, especially on farm and pasture land relatively distant from the homestead. Women are very involved in their own gardens, feed and care for livestock which provide dairy and poultry products. Men in programme communities frequently indicated in discussions that women would benefit from enhanced training in gardening and irrigation.

It is noteworthy that women assist in cash and food crop cultivation activities during specific times of the year corresponding with planting and harvesting period (see seasonal calendar in Annex 9), particularly in the mornings.

Women in discussion groups commonly identify the need for improved access to agricultural information and assistance in their farming activities, such as gardening close to their homes.

Table 39 and Table 40 clearly indicate that women have less access to agricultural extension services. About 17% of women farmers have accessed extension services during the previous twelve months – about 25% less than those in male headed households.. This validates the

programme emphasis of promoting extension access to female headed households with the vulnerabilities they face.

Table 39: % women with access to agricultural extension services over last 12 months

	Female Headed Households	Male Headed Households	Total Sample
% women with access to agricultural extension services over last 12 months	16.9*	22.3	20.1
n	361	533	894

* Indicates at least a 10% difference from the mean value of male-headed households

Only one in five women met with an extension worker in the year previous to the survey.

Table 40: % of women to meet with an agricultural extension worker or livestock/fisheries extension worker during the last 12 months

	%	n
Meet with Ag Extension Worker	20.8	186
Not Meet with Ag Extension worker	79.2	708
Total	100.0	894

Both men and women report low levels of satisfaction with extension services, as indicated in Table 41, partly a reflection of the recent dramatic rise in price in fertilizer. About one in four men expressed satisfaction, compared to approximately one in ten for women.

Table 41: % individuals reporting satisfaction with agricultural extension services

	Female Respondents		Male Respondents	
	%	n	%	n
Satisfaction with agricultural extension services	11.4%*	894	27.2%	552

* Indicates at least a 10% difference from the mean value of male-headed households

5.1.1. Agricultural Financial Services

A majority of women are accessing financial services such as microfinance loans, VSLAs and financing through their own savings. As expected, a greater percentage of women are doing this in female headed households, given the greater dependency on these women to independently create income sources.

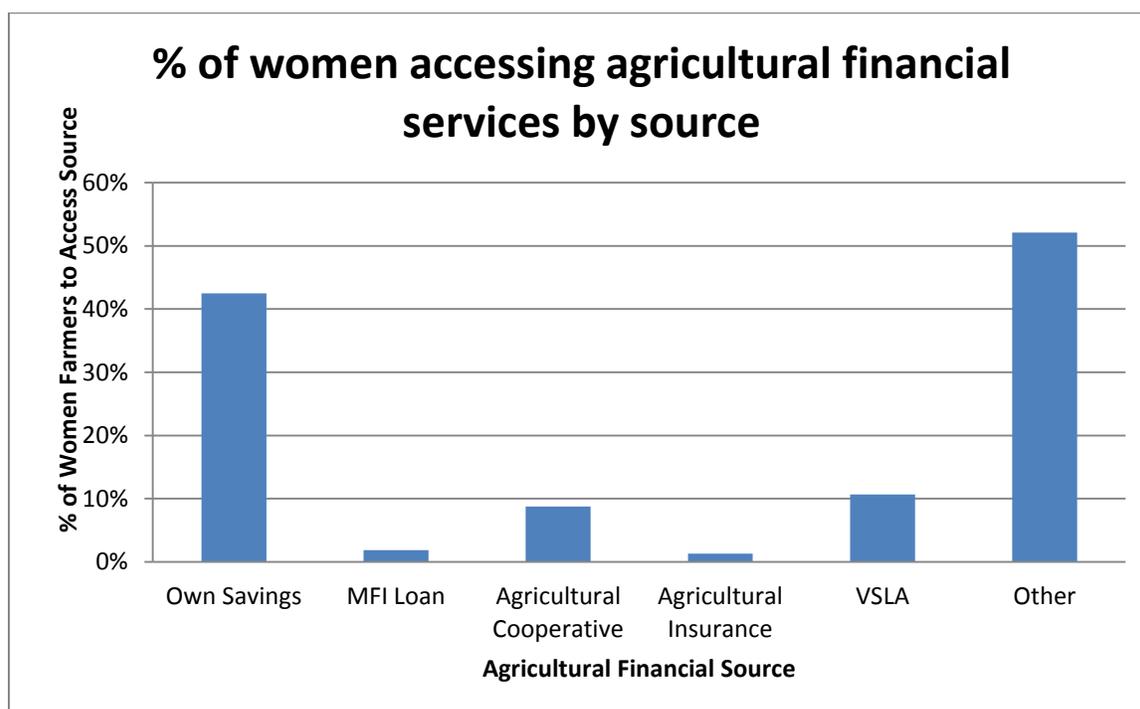
Table 42: % women accessing agricultural financial services in last 12 months

	Female Headed Households	Male Headed Households	Total Sample
% women accessing agricultural financial services in last 12 months	61.2*	57.0	58.7
n	309	442	751

* Indicates at least a 10% difference from the mean value of male-headed households

The majority of women are securing financial services through their friends or informal money lenders in the community, as indicated in the “other” category in Figure 5 below. Extremely high levels of repayment exist with the money lenders.

Figure 5: Percentage of women accessing agricultural financial services (by source)



5.1.2. Agricultural Inputs

Approximately two-thirds of women are accessing inputs such as seeds and fertilizers from a diversity of sources. This information applies to farming activities on their own land, not paid agricultural labour.

Table 43: % women accessing agricultural inputs over the last 12 months

	Female Headed Households	Male Headed Households	Total Sample
% women accessing agricultural inputs (seeds, fertilizers, etc.) over the last 12 months	65.5	64.9	65.2
n	310	442	752

These inputs are coming from a diversity of sources with significant differences existing in access between women in female vs. male headed households.

Table 44: % women accessing agricultural inputs over the last 12 months

Access Point	Female Headed Households %	Male Headed Households %
Cooperative or producer group	44.2	55.8
Government program/PSNP	35.9	64.1
Agro-dealer/input supplier within 5 km	24.5	75.5
Agro-dealer/input supplier farther than 5 km	35.6	64.4
Local input producer	43.0	57.0
Other	43.9	56.1
Did not access inputs	40.8	59.2
n	310	442

5.1.3. Output Markets

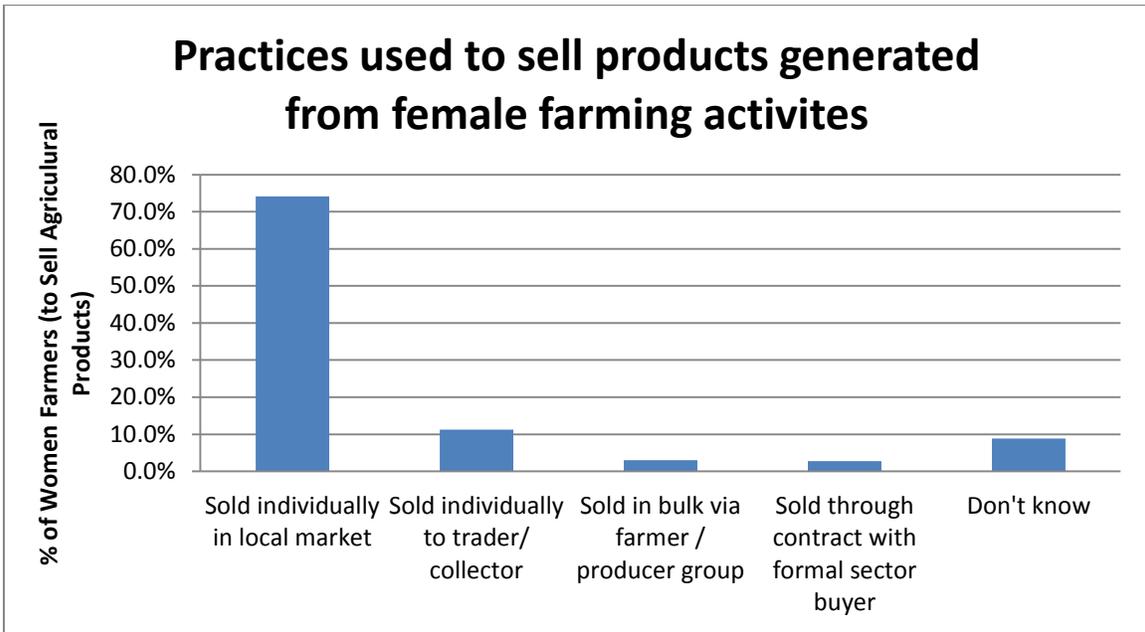
Approximately one-third of women are accessing markets to sell agricultural products.

Table 45: % women accessing output markets to sell agricultural production over the last 12 months

	Female Headed Households	Male Headed Households	Total Sample
% women accessing output markets to sell agricultural production	34.3	36.3	35.5
n	309	441	750

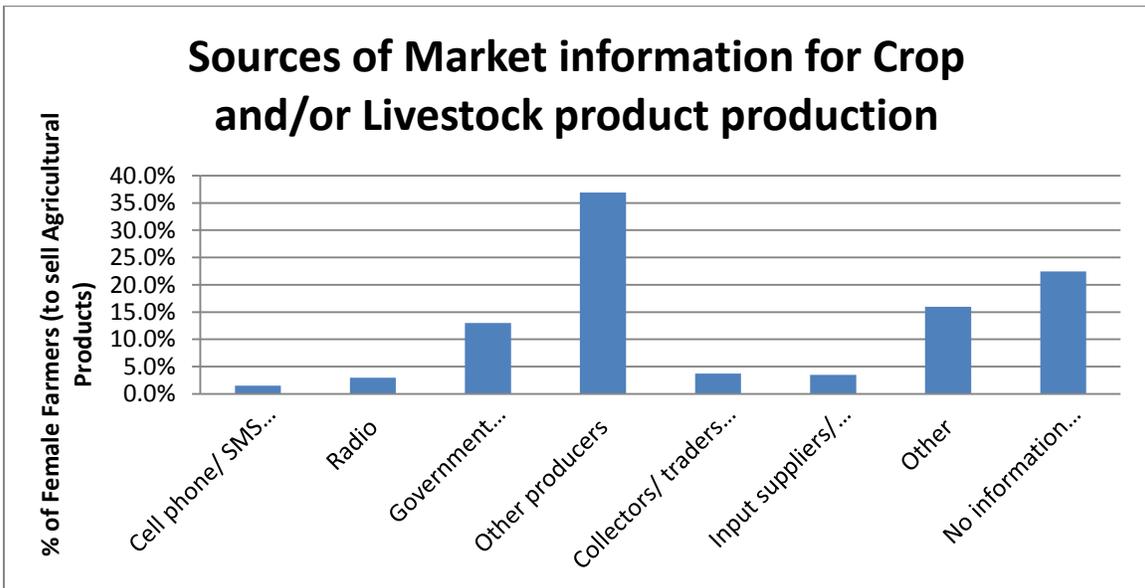
The vast majority are selling individually in local markets.

Figure 6: Practices used to sell products generated from female farming activities



Close to one-quarter of women farmers receive no market information, and about one-third of women farmers rely on information from other individual producers.

Figure 7: Sources of market information for crop and/or livestock product production



6. Women's Empowerment in Food and Livelihood Security

TANGO constructed a Women's Empowerment Index (WEI) modelled after the Women's Empowerment in Agriculture Index (WEAI).⁵ Similar to the WEAI, the WEI for WE -RISE and Pathways comprises the Five Domains of Empowerment (5DE).

The 5DE is the percentage of women who are considered empowered. For Ethiopia, this empowerment score is calculated from 12 weighted indicators within the five domains of production, resources, income, leadership, and family life (Annex 12 presents the domains, their total weight within the index, and the weight of each indicator as well as additional context to the table below). The WEI includes 9 of the 10 indicators that comprise the WEAI,⁶ as well as indicators for mobility, self-confidence, and attitudes on gender. Consistent with all WE-RISE and Pathways programs, a woman who achieves an empowerment score of .80 or greater in the weighted-index of the 12 indicators underlying the WEI is considered to be empowered.

The following table shows individual indicators contributing to the WEI, the empowerment scores for women including disaggregation by female and male head of household, and comparisons of empowerment indicators that were measured in the survey for both men and women to show relative parity.

The mean empowerment score for all women is 7.9%, with an empowerment score far greater for female heads of households at 19.1% vs. those in male headed households at .4%. It is important at this point to emphasize that these figures establish a baseline from which to measure empowerment. As such, what is most relevant is the change in the empowerment scores over the programme period rather than a fixation on the baseline score. The latter is based on a complex and varied set of thresholds established to demonstrate change in empowerment within the context of Ethiopia.

Notable among the the indicators where there are low percentages of women achieving the indicator thresholds include attitudes supporting gender roles in family life, mobility, and accessing and decision-making on credit. Among the higher percentages of achieving the thresholds include women's participation in institutions, sole or joint ownership of 75% of household assets, and confidence in speaking about gender and other community issues. The gender parity indicators in the last section of this table were calculated only for households that included both a male and female respondent. Thus results are different for the same indicator in the first section of the table for women which measured all women respondents. By only including households that have both a male and female

⁵ International Food Policy Research Institute. 2012. Women's Empowerment in Agriculture Index. Feed the Future.

⁶ The WEI does not include the indicator for workload, however this topic was explored by the qualitative team.

respondent, the gender parity indicators isolate the differences in welfare (as measured by a respective indicator) occurring due to differences in gender.

Table 46: Women's Empowerment Index

Indicators comprising Women's 5 Domains of Empowerment Index		
Indicator	% of women achieving indicator at baseline	N
With decision-making input for all HH productive decision domains	64.8	846
With autonomy in one or more HH production domains	35.2	846
With sole or joint ownership of 75% of household assets ^a	75.8	806
With sole or joint control over purchase or sale of 75% household assets ^a	50.3	806
With access to and decisions on credit	33.2	419
With control over household income and expenditures in 50% of HH decision-making domains ^b	49.6	859
Participating in formal and informal groups	99.8	894

Confident speaking about gender and other community issues at the local level (1 of 2 topics)		73.8	894	
Satisfied with the amount of time available for leisure activities		65.4	893	
Achieving a mobility score of 16 or greater		33.0	893	
Who express self-confidence in 5 of 7 statements		50.9	893	
Expressing attitudes that support gender equitable roles in family life (Scoring 4 of 4)		26.5	879	
Demonstrating political participation		N/A	N/A	
	Mean score Female Head of Household	Mean score Male Head of Household	Mean score Total Head of Household	N
Empowerment Score(% of empowered women)	19.1	0.4	7.9	894
Mean % of achievement across all indicators highlighted above	68.5	40.0	51.5	894
Gender Parity Indicators				
Indicator	% achieving indicator at baseline		N	
	Women Respondents	Male Respondents		
With decision-making input for all HH productive decision domains	49.2*	91.6	502	

With autonomy in one or more HH production domains	7.2*	53.0	502
With sole or joint ownership of 75% of household assets ^a	56.8*	75.8	802
With sole or joint control over purchase or sale of 75% household assets ^a	50.3*	58.8	806
With access to and decisions on credit	54.0*	80.3	198
With control over household income and expenditures in 50% of HH decision-making domains ^b	39.6*	82.3	508
Participating in formal and informal groups	96.0*	99.2	512
Confident speaking about gender and other community issues at the local level (3 of 4 topics)	75.1*	89.8	527
Satisfied with the amount of time available for leisure activities	69.3*	77.1	524
Who express self-confidence in 5 of 7 statements	47.4*	63.6	525
Expressing attitudes that support gender equitable roles in family life (Scoring 4 of 4)	29.1*	21.3	502
Demonstrating political participation	N/A	N/A	N/A

^a excluding poultry, non-mechanized farm equipment, or small household consumer items as modelled in the WEIA.

^b excluding minor household expenditures as modelled in the WEIA.

* Means are statistically different between males and females at $p < .05$

On occasion the qualitative data secured by the survey team appears to contradict the above household data coming from the quantitative survey. The qualitative information as summarized below provides greater context and explores the nuances of empowerment from in depth probing of program participants.

to resolve financial disagreements and conflicts between husbands and wives.

Legally, husbands and wives are now being listed on documents with equal rights to the land. In practice however, men control the land. Husbands have historically assumed sole decision-making control of land and household productive capital. The exception to this, with some variation, is a woman’s control and use of capital involved in homestead gardening activities.

A fundamental basis to this key gender difference appears to be changing and it is likely to have longer term implications as described in the box below.

A changing “theology” of ownership...

Sidama is heavily Protestant in composition, characterized by high rates of church-going. When asked about men’s ownership and control, a standard response is that biblically women are said to have come from man. As one woman said, “my job description is from the word of God.” The book of Genesis (2:22), says, “then the Lord God made a woman from the rib he had taken out of the man and he brought her to the man.” Men and women both identified the church as second only to the idir as important and influential to their lives, as well as responsive to their needs, inculcating a high degree of participatory involvement. Men, women and, importantly, elders, who include religious leaders in the Christian and Muslim faiths, say they are now articulating a theology moving away from an Adam’s Rib justification for men’s ownership and control, to one more based more on God’s preference for equality of men and women.

6.1.1. Control of Household Income and Expenditures

About 64% of women have sole or joint control of at least 50% of the decisions made in the household. As should be expected, women in female headed households have about 20% more control than if they are in male headed households.

	Female Headed Households	Male Headed Households	Total Sample
% women with sole or joint control over specified expenditures/decisions (at least 50% of domains)	72.5*	58.0	63.8
n	360	533	893

* Indicates at least a 10% difference from the mean value of male-headed households

Women have the least control over non-farm business activity and major household expenditures. About half of the women have some say in agricultural input purchases and

spending money their spouse has earned. Their greatest control comes in minor household expenditures and spending money they have earned themselves – though one in four women report no control over use of money they have earned.

Table 48: % women with sole or joint control over specified expenditures/decisions			
	Female Headed Households	Male Headed Households	Total Sample
Major Household Expenditures	41.7*	31.0	35.3
Minor Household Expenditures	81.7	82.2	82.0
Buying Clothes for Yourself	78.9	61.5	68.5
Non-Farm Business Activity	30.6	22.0	25.4
Input Purchase for Ag Production	60.6	42.0	49.5
Negotiate with Buyers	66.7	52.0	57.9
Spending Money SELF has earned	79.2	72.2	75.0
Spending Money SPOUSE has earned	37.5	56.8	49.0
N	360	533	893

*This % is relatively low (as is non-farm business activity) due to inclusion of responses from women who have no control because “no decision is made” – in other words they do not have major household items to make expenditures on, or non-farm business activity.

6.1.2. Women’s Decision-making Control and Household Assets

Female-headed households face heavy burdens when attempting to juggle farming and household chores. Village elders may try to assist the family by identifying other potential husbands if their husband is deceased. Women without husbands are vulnerable to the approaches of men, including relatives of deceased husbands, who may already be married and have designs on her farm.

Both husbands and wives names are now being placed on farm documents, in part to strengthen the rights of women to land. However, should a divorce occur, women say they are at risk of discrimination. If the former husband remarries, then he will have the right to the land irrespective of what his former wife does – even if she remarries.

Decision-making and control over household assets in the following two tables means having a role in decision-making if assets are to be sold. For groups of assets held by a considerable number of households, women in female headed households have the greatest control over chicken/poultry at 82.6%, and the least control over non mechanized farm equipment at about 67%. Women from female headed households have about 10 – 25% more sole or joint control of assets compared to those in male headed households.

A little more than one in four women in male headed households has some say in three quarters of the assets a household maintains. This contrasts sharply to women in female headed households who have more than three times the control.

Table 49: % women with sole or joint decision-making and control over household assets (of assets a household maintains)

	Female Headed Household		Male headed Household		Total Sample	
	%	n	%	n	%	n
Agricultural Land	89.9*	306	73.8	461	80.2	767
Non Mechanized Farm Equipment	85.3*	191	57.2	353	67.1	544
Large Livestock	90.6*	160	76.6	291	81.6	451
House	85.0*	107	69.0	187	74.8	294
Chickens/Poultry	90.2*	92	79.1	201	82.6	293
Small Livestock	88.9*	45	69.3	88	75.9	133
Small Consumer Durables	87.0	23	73.9	46	78.3	69
Cell Phone	43.8	16	30.2	43	33.9	59
Mechanized Farm equipment	94.1	17	83.3	12	89.7	29
Non-farm business equipment	75.0	4	62.5	8	66.7	12
Other Land (Non-Ag)	66.7	3	100.0	7	90.0	10
Large Consumer Durables	0	0	66.7	3	66.7	3
Means of Transportation	100.0	1	0.0	2	33.3	3

* Indicates at least a 10% difference from the mean value of male-headed households

Table 50: % women with sole or joint decision-making and control over 75% or more household assets (of assets a household maintains)

	Female Headed Households	Male Headed Households	Total Sample
% women with sole or joint decision-making and control over household assets (of those a Household maintains)	85.1*	27.2	50.3
n	321	485	806

* Indicates at least a 10% difference from the mean value of male-headed households

6.1.3. Women Decision-making on Health Care and Education

Women and men programme participants, as well as community leaders, generally recognize the important role of the school system for females to gain confidence and decision-making

capacity over the long term. The government has played an essential role in prioritizing equal access to education for girls. Community members say that for the first time boys are learning in school about women’s rights, including sensitization to issues of violence against girls. It is primarily men who represent and speak for families at school meetings and events.

About 71% of primary women decision makers in families have a say in decisions regarding health care, with about a 20% difference between women depending if they are in female or male headed households.

Table 51: % women making sole or joint decisions about health care			
	Female Headed Households	Male Headed Households	Total Sample
% women making sole or joint decisions about health care	82.5*	63.0	70.9
n	360	533	893

* Indicates at least a 10% difference from the mean value of male-headed households

6.1.4. Women and Decision-making over Reproductive Health

Concerning family planning, men believe that they are the ultimate arbiter in determining the number of children in their families. They justify this, in part, on economic terms: since men are the main income earners, it is their responsibility to determine and be able to provide for the number of children in their families. Men judge the community health posts and health centres as the most important and influential formal institutions for women. These facilities are seen by men and women as particularly important for family planning services provided to women.

Women’s response to decision-making on family planning, when placed on the previously referenced continuum grid is in the suggestive/consultative location:

Little/no-----X-----suggestion/-----joint
 Decision making consultative decision-making

The reasons given for a trend toward greater decision-making on family planning matters for women include the role of government advocacy and support for family planning, growing recognition of decreasing land size for farming families, and the presence and support of local health posts and centres.

As Table 52 indicates, just short of three out of four women in male headed households have sole or joint decision-making in the realm of birth control and child spacing – as reported by both men and women. The figure for women reporting from female headed households drops considerably since their response generally is that a “decision is not made.”

Table 52: % women reporting sole or joint decision-making over reproductive health decisions (birth control; spacing of children)

	Female Headed Households	Male Headed Households	Total Sample
% women reporting sole or joint decision-making over reproductive health decisions (birth control; spacing of children)	32.8*	72.2	56.3
N	360	533	893

* Indicates at least a 10% difference from the mean value of male-headed households

6.1.5. Women and Leisure

Primary women household decision-makers were asked if they are satisfied with the amount of time available to them for leisure activities like visiting neighbours, listening to the radio and participating in sports. Just short of two-thirds of women indicate they are satisfied, though the women in female headed households expression of satisfaction is much lower than those in male headed households since they are likely to have less leisure time in the absence of a spouse to help with domestic and productive tasks.

Focus group input from women and an analysis of daily activities suggest that the trend is for women to have increasingly less leisure time as they continue to carry household responsibilities, are involved in an increasing number of activities promoting women's participation, and are involved in productive tasks of farming and other income generating tasks. Daily activity analysis indicates that men have greater leisure time than women.

Table 53: % women reporting equitable distribution of time between productive/domestic tasks and satisfaction with available time for leisure activities

	Female Headed Households	Male Headed Households	Total Sample
% women reporting equitable distribution of time between productive/domestic tasks and satisfaction with available time for leisure activities	57.8*	70.5	65.4
n	360	533	893

* Indicates at least a 10% difference from the mean value of male-headed households

7. Socio-cultural Norms and Gender Equity

7.1.1. Attitudes on Gender-equity Roles in Family Life

Polygamy is still prevalent, though at lesser levels than in times past due to government, NGO and church advocacy against this practice. One contributing factor explaining polygamy relates to the prevalence of AIDS, which has contributed to relatively high numbers of female headed

households, following husbands passing away from AIDS. Widows with legal rights to land may face difficulties in adequately farming the land. Underemployed male farmers or male relatives of deceased husbands may develop relationships with widows and gain access to the land. This dynamic can adversely impact family life, including disenfranchising wives and treating children unequally.

Men in FGDs expressed the belief that women have a *duty* to solely handle traditional household activities such as some gardening, food preparation, cooking, cleaning and caring for the young. One man said about this duty of women, “*it is not important to thank a woman in front of her*” when she does this work. Men may face shame if they are seen within the community taking on work and roles normally done by women. Comments from one focus group of men are illustrative:

The shame... (According to men)

A man actually “falls under the status” of a wife if he is seen to do household activities. Wives will talk to other wives and a husband’s wife will be shamed as well, to the point of even crying to others about this (*paraphrased*).

Identifying male and female daily activities with community member input provides perspective on gender roles. Men’s daily schedules do not show any cooking, care for children or cleaning the household. Women bring breakfast to men working in the fields at various times of the year and feed men first when at home. Only men report any regularity in activities such as attending community meetings or visits to other homes.

Male heads of households and primary female decision-makers in households were asked four questions relating to their attitudes on sharing of work roles and a husband’s use of free time with his family, as seen in Table 55. Answering in a gender-equity supportive way for each question provides a positive attitude expression for the measurements underlying Table 54. A little over one quarter of females responded affirmatively with gender-equitable attitudes, contrasted with 11.6% of men with such responses.

Table 54: % respondents expressing attitudes that support gender-equitable roles in family life

	Female Respondent	Male Respondent
% respondents expressing attitudes that support gender-equitable roles in family life	26.5	11.8
n	879	523

Around half of women believe that most household decisions should be made by men and those men and women should not do the work of each other. A strong majority of women believe that men should help with household duties if women are working outside the home and that husbands should spend free time with family members.

Table 55: % of female respondents to agree with the below gender equality statements:	
	%
Personally, I think that most household decisions should be made by the man	46.8
Personally, I think that there is men’s work and women’s work and the one shouldn’t ever do the work of the other	52.9
Personally, I think that if a woman works outside the home, her husband should help with child care and household chores.	69.1
Personally, I think that a husband should spend his free time with his wife and children.	89.5
n	893

7.1.2. Attitudes about Household Gender-based Violence

In stark contrast to what women in the FGDs told the qualitative team, nearly all groups of men deny the existence of gender based violence in their communities. This contradicts, to some degree, the clearly articulated fear among men that women are at risk of abuse when venturing out – especially at night. Male woreda and kebele officials are quick to point out that laws protecting women and their rights are enforced and GBV generally does not happen in their jurisdictions. One official somewhat sarcastically pointed out that GBV is the current “hot issue.” Political dynamics and community sensitivities may limit accurate information provided to outsiders on this topic. Some women officials acknowledge serious GBV issues, while others say this is not much of a concern.

The government has initiated strong campaigns against female genital cutting and polygamy. The GOE has prioritized women’s rights in many ways – including laying an infrastructure of offices to deal with women’s issues at many levels of government and support to women’s associations and leagues. GBV is a sensitive issue for everyone.

An indication of this issue being taken more seriously would be greater public acknowledgement by local community and government leaders and men in general of the severity of the GBV issues faced by women.

A group of elders in the programme area, all men, say there has been an increase of rape in their community. They occasionally are called on by the community to help resolve some of these situations. Elders perceive that hitting of women is on the decrease over the last decade

due to increased public awareness campaigns, churches admonishing against this and stricter legal consequences of this activity.

Women's perceptions of gender-based violence are significantly different than those expressed by men and government authorities who are men. Women in the programme region generally describe GBV as prevalent in all forms, including hitting, sexual harassment, polygamy and female genital cutting. Women say that abduction of females for marriage purposes has now become a rarity.

For the same reasons elders cite, women say that awareness and concern over GBV has increased in recent years. Female genital cutting is now generally understood as negative; however FGD discussions indicated it is believed to be still widely practiced in two out of the three programme woredas: Loka Abaya and Shebedino . In Dale, a kebele situated along the major highway in proximity to the regional city of Yergalem, women seemed to agree that FGC is *“very much on the road to total elimination.”*

Female Genital Cutting, a story unfolding while the survey team was in a local community and having discussions with a local Food Security Task Force...

A recently married couple was feeling pressure to leave a village due to pressures from one of the families for the bride to be cut. This created significant challenges for the couple and the community from where the couple arrived. A village health volunteer became involved in mediating the dispute and advocated for the couple. The consequences were serious to all parties: bad feelings between the families and livelihood concerns about where the couple could live and work. This discussion brought out many issues. Often, women are cut in very unsanitary conditions, jeopardizing their health and the overall livelihood of their families. There is also a time when girls are at greater risk: during school vacations when their absence will not be noticed and authorities will be less suspicious that the girl may be in danger.

Men in male headed households and primary women decision-makers in households were asked two questions: If there are times women deserve to be hit and whether women should tolerate violence at times for family stability. Answering negatively to both qualifies as a rejection of household violence and serves as the underlying measurement for the indicator summarized in Table 56 and Table 57 below. Though less than a majority of women completely reject violence in this measurement, slightly more women in female headed households do so than in male headed households.

The survey data shows slightly fewer men reject violence than women. Men's responses, however, may be suspect since some men may think their responses could be seen as an indication that they are perpetrators of violence.

Table 56: % of Women that reject household violence			
	Female Headed Households	Male Headed Households	Total Sample
% of women that reject household violence	44.7	41.3	42.7
n	360	533	893

Table 57: % of respondents that reject household violence		
	Female Respondent	Male Respondent
% of respondents that reject household violence	42.7	40.6
n	893	548

The approximately 55% of women not meeting the program threshold of rejecting violence is strongly influenced, to some degree, by their tolerance for it “to maintain stability in the family.” Additionally, approximately one quarter of women believe there are times when women deserve to be hit.

Table 58: % of respondents agreeing with the below statement:		
	Female Respondent	Male Respondent
There are times a women deserves to be hit	21.2	22.8
A woman must tolerate violence in order to maintain stability in the family	54.5	55.6
n	893	548

7.1.3. Women’s Mobility

Women’s mobility is a sensitive issue. Women generally must gain men’s approval prior to going places outside of their immediate home area and regular routines of mobility – such as neighbour’s homes, churches and markets. If they do not, men will suspect women to be seeing other men. Women also fear gender-based violence, especially at night time.

Daily activity analysis indicates far less mobility for women, particularly in attending community events, visits to other homes and excursions outside their community. A common location for women to congregate is community water points as women continue to carry the task of water collection. This typically involves a long walk. Women are able to socialize as they await water collection. Women indicated to the qualitative team that although women and girl children are invariably 100% tasked with water collection, most water points are managed by men.

Men and women FGD participants indicate that women normally require men’s approval to venture outside of home and village areas during the day and anywhere outside their homes at night. Men say this is due, in part, to concern over their safety. Government public works programmes combined with income seeking responses to economic hardship have contributed in recent years to increased women’s mobility. Examples of such activities include the hardships of carrying wood to the markets and cutting and laying rock for road building.

Significantly and pervasively men remain suspicious when women leave the household without approval. The consequences may be serious for women. As one man said, *“there will be grave conflict if my wife leaves the compound without my permission.”* Many women have few opportunities to deviate from their daily routines. Lacking control of financial resources and requiring men’s approval combine to limit women’s mobility.

Table 59: Women's mobility (0 = no mobility, 30 = completely mobile)

	Female Headed Households		Male Headed Households		Total Sample	
	Mean	N	Mean	n	Mean	n
Women’s Mobility	22.8*	360	4.3	533	11.8	893

* Indicates at least a 10% difference from the mean value of male-headed households

Primary women decision-makers in households were asked if they had to ask permission to go to ten different locations with three possible responses: always, now and then, and never. This data, as reflected in Table 59 through Table 61, indicate far more limited mobility for women in male headed households than those in households they head. A score of 15 is the threshold for WE-RISE programmes for women to be considered mobile. Women who head households are, by necessity, mobile for such needs as securing income and purchasing household goods. Table 60 indicates they are nearly twice as mobile as women in male headed households.

Table 60: % of women who are mobile (score of 15 or more)

	Female Headed Households		Male Headed Households		Total Sample	
	%	n	%	n	%	n
% of Mobile Women	74.7*	260	4.9	533	33.0	893

* Indicates at least a 10% difference from the mean value of male-headed households

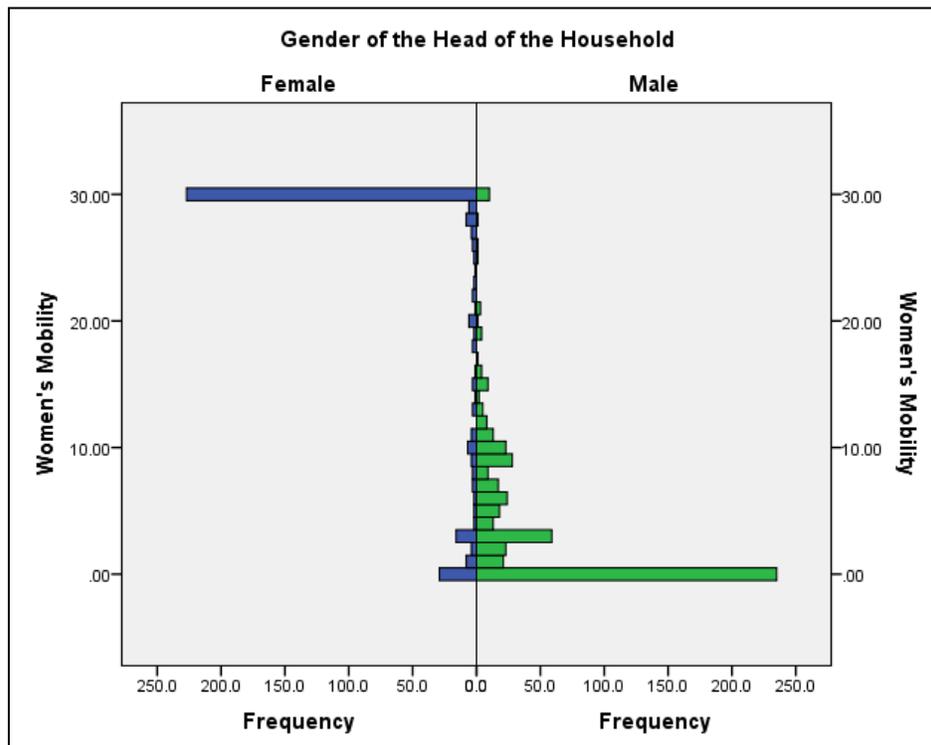
Although one-third of women respondents currently can be classified as mobile, only approximately 5% of women residing in male-headed households reached the mobility threshold as compared to about 75% of women heading households.

The mobility disparity is even more event in the table below, showing extremely high rates of immobility for women in male headed households, and high mobility for those in female headed households.

Table 61: % of women who are mobile – disaggregated (score of 15 or more)						
	Female Headed Households		Male Headed Households		Total Sample	
Mobility	%	n	%	n	%	N
Not Mobile	19.20	69	78.60	419	54.60	488
Somewhat Mobile	6.10	22	16.50	88	12.30	110
Mobile	4.40	16	24	13	3.20	29
Highly Mobile	70.30	253	2.40	13	29.80	266

The extreme nature of gender mobility disparity can be seen in the figure below.

Figure 8: Women's mobility by gender of head of household



8. Gender-equitable Policies

Note: the quantitative assessment of the next three indicator groups are intended to be assessed by Ethiopia programme staff:

8.1.1. Project Groups and Gender Policy
8.1.2. Institutions and Gender Equality
8.1.3. Women and Civil Society & Government Responsiveness to Agricultural Rights and Needs

Aside from participation in government supported women’s groups, such as the women’s league, women are generally not politically active. Very few women identify themselves in focus groups as participating in these networks though there may be a sense of obligation to do so to please authorities.

Men nearly always are the spokespersons in their communities. Women speak out informally, such as in coffee gatherings. They talk about a number of things, including farming challenges such as water availability and input prices, and also school issues.

9. Participation and Representation of Women Farmers

9.1.1. Women’s Participation in Formal and Informal Groups

Venn Diagrams, which graphically show both men and women’s perceptions and involvement in formal and informal institutions, can be seen in Annex 8.

Table 62: % women participating in formal and informal groups			
	Female Headed Households	Male Headed Households	Total Sample
% women participating in formal and informal groups	99.7	99.8	99.8
n	337	507	844

Sidama men and women greatly value the *idir* – the local death and burial support membership group – as the most important institution within their communities. Men and women alike participate. Membership is dictated by a regular system of contributions dependent on the economic capacity of families. Men lead the *idirs*. When a member of a family dies, the *idir* provides vital resources to help with burial costs and burdens, and strong support to families in other ways during these difficult transitions. Though women report very high levels of participation in groups, their participation must be seen in a more nuanced context. When in groups with men, it is not common for women to speak out in comparison to men in the group. Their participation is more active within informal groups of women as opposed to more formal institutions.

Type of Group	%	n
Religious Groups	92.4	728
Mutual Help/Insurance Groups (including Idirs)	92.0	796
Civic Groups	87.5	80
Water Groups	83.3	156
Women's Groups	80.5	164
Local Groups	53.6	686
Trade Groups	50.5	194
Forest Groups (Area Enclosure)	45.5	22
Microcredit Groups (VSLA)	38.6	606
Producer/Marketing Groups	35.0	80

9.1.2. Women and Leadership Positions

Men recognize the growing number of women holding positions in government and NGOs, and see this as resulting from improvements in education for women and commitment of the government and NGOs to the rights and needs of women. Women in female headed households are slightly more likely to have leadership positions in groups when compared to primary women decision makers in male headed households.

	Female Headed Households	Male Headed Households	Total Sample
% women holding leadership positions in formal and informal groups	14.5*	12.8	13.5
n	346	515	861

* Indicates at least a 10% difference from the mean value of male-headed households

9.1.3. Speaking about Gender and Community Issues at the Local Level

Men are comfortable in speaking out publically on farming issues, particularly the impact of climate change and water shortages, rising costs of inputs, soil degradation, lack of employment possibilities and inadequate infrastructure – such as roads and electricity. In discussions they say they generally believe it is their role to speak out, not the woman's, because men think more analytically and have more experience to engage in this public dialogue.

Women in focus groups reported they rarely speak up in public forums concerning important issues facing their lives and community, which is under the purview of men. Women prefer speaking in smaller groups composed of other women, to articulate concerns such as those relating to climate change and crop failure, the need for improved education, strengthened

infrastructure including roads and water access, improved health facilities and gender-based violence.

In mixed groups of men and women both small and large, women were observed by the evaluation team as not speaking up. Men dominate discussions. Women and men normally sit in different locations at these meetings and while in church. When at school functions and at government-sponsored or initiated gatherings, focus groups report that men are the spokespersons – though it is acknowledged that some women have taken on leadership roles at schools and in public administration functions.

A number of women’s organizations, such as the women’s league, are invited to have a presence at community holidays and special government functions. Typically women spokespersons are designated to speak, though this appears to be along very formal lines with little content relating to neither controversial topics nor those that might embarrass government officials.

Table 65 shows responses by men and women if they answered in a continuum of comfort ranging from “Yes, with a little difficulty” to “Very comfortable.”

Table 65: % of respondents confident speaking in public about gender and other community issues at the local level		
	Female Respondent	Male Respondent
	%	%
% of respondents confident speaking in public about gender and other community issues at the local level	73.8	81.9
n	894	552

Male respondents have a higher degree of confidence than women in speaking out on both gender issues and community infrastructure decisions as seen in the tables below. This is especially true of gender issues where 83.2% of men are in the range from “comfortable with little difficulty” to “very comfortable” versus 65.6% for women. About 25% of women say they are “very comfortable” speaking in public regarding gender issues, less so than men of which about 33% have this degree of comfort.

Table 66: Comfort speaking in public regarding gender issues (e.g., women's rights, access to common resources)

Female Respondents	%	n
Not at all comfortable	18.0	161
Comfortable, with a great deal of difficulty	16.3	146
Comfortable, with a little difficulty	13.5	121
Fairly comfortable	27.2	243
Very comfortable	24.9	223
Total	100.0	894
Male Respondents	%	n
Not at all comfortable	7.2	40
Comfortable, with a great deal of difficulty	9.6	53
Comfortable, with a little difficulty	15.8	87
Fairly comfortable	34.8	192
Very comfortable	32.6	180
Total	100.0	552

About 40% of women are “very comfortable” in speaking out about community infrastructural decisions, while approximately 32% of men have the same high level of comfort.

Table 67: Comfort speaking in public regarding decisions about community infrastructure (like small wells, roads, water supplies)

Female Respondents	%	n
Not at all comfortable	14.9	133
Comfortable, with a great deal of difficulty	14.4	129
Comfortable, with a little difficulty	10.7	96
Fairly comfortable	20.2	181
Very comfortable	39.7	355
Total	100.0	894
Male Respondents	%	n
Not at all comfortable	6.0	33
Comfortable, with a great deal of difficulty	12.1	67
Comfortable, with a little difficulty	15.2	84
Fairly comfortable	35.0	193
Very comfortable	31.7	175
Total	100.0	552