



Food and Agriculture
Organization of the
United Nations



National gender profile of agriculture and rural livelihoods



ETHIOPIA

Country Gender Assessment Series



Cooperative members making baskets and mats from the harvest of the date palm, which they sell to the local market.

Country Gender Assessment Series

National Gender Profile of Agriculture and Rural Livelihoods

E T H I O P I A

FOOD AND AGRICULTURE ORGANIZATION OF THE UNITED NATIONS

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FAO supported animal fodder and restocking project Human and Animal Health Post.



Members of 'Selam Vegetable Growers Group' working on a vegetable garden owned and managed by the youth group.

Preface



The Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) recognizes the centrality of gender equality and women's empowerment for achieving food security and nutrition for all, improving agricultural productivity and natural resource management, and providing better livelihoods to rural populations.

The 2030 Sustainable Development Agenda, African Union's Agenda2063 and the Malabo Declaration on Accelerated Agricultural Growth and Transformation for Shared Prosperity and Improved Livelihoods provide a renewed commitment to end hunger, malnutrition and poverty and reduce gender inequalities. The implementation of such frameworks will create opportunities to address gender inequalities in the agriculture and rural sectors, food security and nutrition, and the management of natural resources in the context of climate change.

It is with this background that FAO has prepared a National gender profile of agriculture and rural livelihoods in Ethiopia as an important step towards inclusive agricultural growth and transformation. This Profile provides a very useful reference to inform the implementation and monitoring of the frameworks highlighted above with stronger attention to gender. It will also inform the country periodic reporting on the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) and the upcoming Beijing Plus 25 review process which will take place in 2020.

The Profile identifies the existing gender relations and gaps in the various sub sectors of agriculture, their possible causes and impact on food security and nutrition, sustainable agriculture and natural resource management as well as promising good practices. It reviews extensively existing policy and legal framework, including latest national agricultural policies and investment plans, to assess gaps and options for improvement.

The report shows that women continue to face challenges of unequal access and control of productive resources and services. For instance, women own only 19.5% of land titles, 51% of women farmers have access to extension services compared to 62% of male, 19% women against 28% men use extension package, and 15% female against 21% of male land holder have access to credit. Women also provide most of the unpaid labour with heavy workload due to their responsibility in caring for the family and fetching water and firewood, while handling other productive and responsibilities in the community. Women's participation in rural institutions and markets is also lower than that of men.

Partnership will be crucial to implement gender-transformative strategies that address cultural, socio-economic, tradition and conventional practices, legal frameworks, and rural infrastructures and services that have negative implications on gender equality. We need meaningful initiatives to empower women economically.

FAO has been long involved in supporting gender equality and women empowerment in agriculture, supporting nutrition initiatives, innovative technology for women (e.g. fuel-efficient stove), gender analysis of value chains and enhancement of gender disaggregated statistics to inform sound policies and programmes. FAO remains strongly committed to working with other UN agencies and partners to support the Government of Ethiopia in addressing the gender gaps highlighted in the report.

A handwritten signature in blue ink.

Ms FATOUMA DJAMA SEID
FAO Country Representative



Supported Pastoral Community Development Programme (PCDP III) Human and Animal Health Post



Food distribution in Gode wereda Dolo Baad distribution centre.

Acknowledgements

The Food and Agricultural Organization of the United Nations (FAO) recognizes the centrality of gender equality to its mandate to achieve food security for all by raising levels of nutrition, improving agricultural productivity and natural resource management, and improving the lives of rural populations. FAO's Policy on Gender Equality adopted in 2012 aims at advancing equality of voice, agency and access to resources and services between women and men in sustainable agricultural production and rural development. This Country Gender Assessment (CGA) of the agricultural and rural sectors in Ethiopia has been undertaken as part of FAO's efforts to effectively implement its Policy on Gender Equality.

The development of the CGA for Ethiopia was conducted under the leadership of the FAO Country Representative, Fatouma Djama Seid and the overall coordination of Tacko Ndiaye, FAO Senior Gender, Equality and Rural Development Officer at FAO Regional Office for Africa. It was spearheaded by: Workicho Jateno, Rural Development Officer and Terhi Paikkala, former Gender and Rural Development Officer based at the FAO sub-regional office for East Africa in Addis Ababa. The preparation of the report benefitted from the technical backstopping of Francesca Distefano, Gender and Development Consultant and Nozomi Ide, Associate Professional Officer, Gender in Value Chains, both at the Social Policies and Rural Institutions Division (ESP) at FAO Headquarters in Rome.

This gender assessment report benefitted from the contribution of a wide range of stakeholders from the Government of Ethiopia, United Nations organizations, civil society organizations (CSOs), farmers' groups and academia at various stages whose interest and commitment were a great asset to the report. FAO commends all the informants and all those who participated in the validation meeting (see lists in Annex) for their substantive inputs into the report. The information, data and comments they provided enriched the report.

Special thanks go to partners that include the Ministry of Agriculture and Natural Resource, Ministry of Environment, Forestry and Climate Change, Ministry of Women and Child Affairs, Agricultural Transformation Agency, and the following United Nations Organizations: United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women (UNWOMEN), United Nations Development Program (UNDP), United Nations Children's Education Fund (UNICEF), International Labour Organization (ILO) and World Food Programme (WFP).

FAO is indebted to the intellectual contribution of Edemo Herego, consultant commissioned to prepare this CGA. His dedication to excellence in undertaking this challenging yet exciting assignment is shown in the quality of the report. Appreciation also goes to Ann Dela Apekey and Pious Asante, consultants at the FAO Regional Office for Africa who contributed tremendously to the editing of the report. Thanks are also due to Sadhana Ramchander, consultant editor, BluePencil Infodesign for the final editing and layout of the report.

Acronyms and abbreviations

ACHPR	African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights
ACSI	Amhara Saving and Credit Association
ADLI	Agricultural Development Led Industrialization
AGP-LMDP	Agricultural Growth Project - Livestock Market Development
AGP	Agricultural Growth Program
ATA	Agricultural Transformation Agency
ATP	Agricultural Transformation Plan
Birr	currency of FDRE
BOA	Bureau of Agriculture
BPA	Beijing Platform for Action
CAADP	Comprehensive African Agricultural Development Programme
CBHI	community-based health insurance
CBN	Community-Based Nutrition
CBOs	Community Based Organizations
CCI	Complementary Community Investment Program
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women
CGA	Country Gender Assessment
CIDA	Canada International Development Agency
CPF	Country Programme Formworks
CPRW	Convention on the Political Rights of Women
CRS	Catholic Relief Services
CSA	Central Statistics Agency
CSO	Civil Society Organization
DAs	Development Agents
DESCI	Dedebit Credit and Saving Association
DFID	UK Department for International Development
DEVAW	Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women
DHS	Demographic and Health Survey
DRMFS	Disaster Risk Management and Food Security

DRM	Disaster Risk Management
DPs	Development Partners
DPT	Diphtheria Pertusis Tetanus
EARI	Ethiopian Agriculture Research Institute
EARO	Ethiopian Agriculture Research Organization
EDRI	Ethiopian Development Research Institute
ENGINE	Empowering New Generations to Improve Nutrition and Economic Opportunities
EOS	Enhanced Outreach Strategy
EPHI	Ethiopian Public Health Institute
ESP	FAO Social Protection Division
FDRE	Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia
EU	European Union
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization of United Nations
SFE	Subregional Office for Eastern Africa
FCA	Federal Cooperative Agency
FHH	female headed households
FGM	Female Genital Mutilation
FMOH	Federal Ministry of Health
FS	Food Security
GDI	Gender Development Index
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GEI	Gender Equity Index
GEM	Gender Empowerment Measure
GFP	Gender focal person
GGI	Gender Gap Index
GHI	Global Hunger Index
GII	Gender Inequality Index
GNI	Gross National Income
GoE	Government of Ethiopia
GPI	Gender Parity Index
GPV	Gross Production Values
GRB	Gender Responsive Budgeting
GTP	Growth and Transformation Plan
GRAD	Graduation with Resilience to Achieve Sustainable Development
GTP II	Growth and Transformation Plan
ha	hectare
HABP	Household Asset Building Program
HDI	Human Development Index

HDR	Human Development Report
HGSF	Home Grown School Feeding Programme
HH	household head
HIV/AIDS	Human Immunodeficiency Virus/Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome.
HTPs	Harmful Traditional Practices
HDSP	Health Sector Development Programme
ICCPR	International Convention on Civil and Political Rights
ICESCR	International Convention on Economic Social Cultural Rights
ICPD	International Conference on Population and Development
ICT	Information Communication Technology
IFPRI	International Food Policy Research Institute
IGAD	Intergovernmental Authority on Development
IHDI	Inequality-adjusted HDI
ILO	International Labour Organization
ILRI	International Livestock Research Institution
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IPMS	Improving Productivity and Market Success
IRLI	International Livestock Research Institute
JICA	Japan International Cooperation Agency
JP GEWE	Joint Programme on Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment
JP RWEE	Joint Programme Rural Women's Economic Empowerment
Kg	kilogram
LACs	Land Administration Committees
LIVES	Livestock and Irrigation Value Chains for Ethiopian Smallholders
LSMS	Living Standards Measurement Study
M&E	Monitoring and Evaluation
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MFI	Micro Financial Institutions
MHHs	male headed households
MND	Livestock Market Development
MoANR	Ministry of Agriculture and Natural Resources
MoEFCC	Ministry of Environment, Forestry and Climate Change
MoLF	Ministry of Livestock and Fishery
MoLSA	Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs
MoWA	Ministry of Woman's Affairs
MoWCA	Ministry of Women and Child Affairs
MoWCYA	Federal Minister of Women, Children and Youth Affairs
mm	millimetre

MPI	Multidimensional Poverty Index
MT	metric tonne
NAIP	National Agricultural Investment Plans
NAPA	National Adaptation Plan of Action
NAPG	National Action Plan on Gender
NAP-GE	National Action Plan on Gender Equality
NCGE	National Committee on Gender Equality
NEPAD	New Partnership for African Development
NFALRC	National Fisheries and Other Aquatic Life Research Center
NGO	Non Government Organization
NNP	National Nutrition Program
NORAD	Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation
NPWE	National Policy for Women in Ethiopia
NSAs	non state actors
OCSO	Oromia Credit and Saving Cooperation
PASDEP	Plan for Accelerated and Sustained Development to End Poverty
PCDP	Pastoral Community Development Project
PIF	Agricultural Investment Framework
PIG	Programme Impact Groups
PoA	Programme of Action
PPP	Purchasing Power Parity
PRIME	Pastoralist Resiliency Improvement and Market Expansion
PRSP	Poverty Reduction Strategy Program
PSNP	Productive Safety Net Program
PSSIP	Participatory Small-scale Irrigation Project
RDPS	Rural Development Policy and Strategies
REACH	Renewed Efforts against Child Hunger and under-nutrition
RED	Rural Economic Development
RSACCO	Rural Saving and Credit Association
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
SDPR	Sustainable Development and Poverty Reduction Plan
SIGI	Social Institutions and Gender Index
SLMP	Sustainable Land Management Project
SNNPR	South Nations Nationalities and People Region
SNV	Netherland Development Organization
SO	Strategic Objective
SUN	Scaling up Nutrition
SWG	Sector Working Group

TLU	Tropical Livestock Units
TSF	Targeted Supplementary Feeding
TVET	Technical and Vocational Education and Training
TWG	Technical Working Group
UN	United Nations
UNCT	United Nations Country Team
UNDAF	United Nations Development Assistance Framework
UNDP	United Nations Development Program
UNFCCC	United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNWOMEN	United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
VSP	Voluntary Resettlement Program
WABs	Women Affairs Bureaus
WADs	Women Affairs Directorates
WAO	Women Affairs Office
WEOI	Women's Economic Opportunity Index
WFP	World Food Program
WHO	World Health Organization
WMHHs	Women in Male Headed Households



Young girls and women collecting water from a water spring situated in a cabbage field owned by a local woman farmer.

Executive summary

Ethiopia is classified as a 'low-income food-deficit' country by the World Bank with a Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of US\$181.6 billion and a GDP per capita at Purchasing Power Parity (PPP) of US\$1 719 (UNDP, 2018). Agriculture accounts for about 37 percent of GDP (UNDP, 2018), and hence it is the backbone of the economy. Agriculture is also the main sector of employment, worth about 73 percent of total employment. Ethiopia has Human Development Index (HDI) of 0.463 (0.424 for female, 0.501 for male) and ranked as 173rd from 189 countries in the world (UNDP, 2018).

Ethiopia is the second most populous country in Africa with an estimated population of 100.6 million in 2015, with an average annual growth rate of 2.6 percent between 2010 and 2015. From this, females constitute 50.8 percent and males 49.2 percent. From the total population, 82.2 percent and 17.8 percent live in rural and urban areas, respectively. The median age was 18.6 and the average size of family was 5.0 and 5.3 for rural areas. There were estimated 5 262 households (HHs) in the country; from these female headed households (FHHs) were 25 percent and male headed households (MHHs) were 75 percent.

With regards to the labour force participation rate which is the proportion of a country's working-age population (ages 15 and older) that engages in the labour market, either by working or actively looking for work, expressed as a percentage of the working-age population, it was estimated at 79 percent in 2013. However, 91.2 percent of this was identified as vulnerable employment. The proportion of the labour force engaged in the agriculture sector was 79.3 percent of the total employment in 2012 which has decreased to 73 percent as more people are employed in other sectors of the economy. Labour force participation rate 82.5 percent for females was 77.2 percent and males was 87.8 percent (UNDP, 2018). It was 70.3 percent in 2010 and 78.4 percent in 2007 in urban and rural areas, respectively.

Ethiopia is committed to and has taken several actions to ensure gender equality by reviewing policy and legal frameworks which were unfair for gender equality and incorporating gender issues in agricultural, rural development and poverty reduction programmes. However, it is one of the lowest performing countries against the gender equality indicators among Sub-Saharan African countries. Women and girls in Ethiopia are disproportionately disadvantaged as compared to men and boys in several areas, including literacy, health, livelihoods, food security and nutrition. They also suffer from low status in society and lack of formal social support programmes. Manifestations of discrimination against women are numerous and acute. These include limited access to productive resources resulting from cultural norms and practices that have a negative impact on their engagement in the agricultural production as well as their level of productivity. FHHs have, in fact, significantly less value of production (mean = 9,898 Birr¹/ha) than MHHs (mean = 11,273 Birr/ha). There is a large gender gap in owning decisive productive assets such as agricultural land holdings, which indicates that a lower proportion of FHHs (19.5 percent) has land titles as compared to 80.5 percent MHHs; only about 42 percent females owned one or more ox(en) as compared to 74 percent of their male counter parts. The percentage share of female holders who received extension advisory services was about 51 percent as compared to 62 percent for male holders who received the same services. The same pattern of lower rates in extension package utilisation was observed with 19 percent for female holders as compared to 28 percent males who used the package. The proportion of female holders who applied chemical fertilisers was about 50 percent as compared to 58 percent for their male counterparts. At the national level, 15 percent

1. Birr is the currency of Ethiopia. \$1=27.8Birr (As at 19/07/2018)

of female landholders and 21 percent of male landholders reported taking out loans. Similarly, 11.3 percent and 9.4 percent of FHHs participated in vegetable and fruits irrigation production, respectively as compared to 88.7 percent and 90.6 percent of MHHs who participated in the same.

FAO has commissioned a Country Gender Assessment (CGA) of the agriculture and rural sectors with the aim to explore the situation of rural women compared to men, and to understand the extent to which rural women are able to realize their rights and potential in those areas where the FAO is mandated to assist the country. To achieve this objective both qualitative and quantitative data was collected from primary and secondary sources and systematically organized and reported.

It is recommended for the federal and local governments, working with FAO and other development partners (DPs) in agriculture and rural development to:

- Design and integrate more gender-transformative strategies that address cultural, socio-economic, tradition and conventional practices that have negative implication on women's access to productive resources. This will contribute to the realization of women and men's full potentials and their significant contributions to address food insecurity, malnutrition and poverty.
- Review policies and/or laws that limit equal participation and benefit men and women as well as boys and girls such as forestry, livestock and cooperative policies.
- Enhance the capacity of government's staff and their partners to enable them to conduct quick gender assessment before planning any interventions, programmes/projects. This involves disseminating policies, guidelines and tools on gender equality and women's empowerment and making them familiar to all departments and implementing units, including at decentralised level.
- Develop the capacity of extension system and development agents (DAs) to mainstream gender in their activities and their ability to analyse different needs and interests of men and women (both FHHs and Women in Male Headed Households (WMHHs)), boys and girls.
- Use communication channels that are accessible by women, and ensure trainings are women-friendly.
- Develop gender sensitive indicators and design gender-responsive result based monitoring and evaluation systems, and tools for collecting and analysing sex disaggregated data.



Project beneficiary working on a potato crop. To ensure a plentiful harvest, she planted a variety of crops – maize, onions and potatoes.

1. Introduction

1.1 Background

The Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) has recognised the importance of gender equality both as a human right with value in it, and for the achievement of its mandate to eradicate hunger and poverty worldwide by raising levels of nutrition, improving agricultural productivity and natural resource management, and improving the lives of the rural population.

The FAO Policy on Gender Equality identifies gender mainstreaming and women-targeted actions as a twofold strategy for the achievement of gender equality in the agricultural and rural sector. In this regard, the Policy sets out a number of minimum standards for gender mainstreaming. These include a requirement to undertake a CGA for the formulation of country programmes established between FAO and member country governments, articulated as Country Programme Frameworks (CPFs) and to carry out gender analysis at the identification and formulation stages of technical assistance projects.

FAO's experience has shown that the absence of a gender assessment of the agricultural and rural sector at the country level hinders sound policy formulation and resource allocation. There is a general lack of baseline gender-related information about the sectors of FAO competence.

The objective of the assessment is to analyse the agricultural and rural development sector of Ethiopia from a gender perspective at the macro (policy), and meso (institutional) level in order to identify gender inequalities in access to critical productive resources, assets, services and opportunities. In particular, the assessment identifies needs and constraints of both women and men in selected FAO areas of competence as well as priorities and gaps. Also, it provides recommendations and guidance to promote gender responsiveness of future programming and projects as well as identifying possible partners for gender-related activities.

Overall, this assessment aims to inform FAO's programming and policy work. It also provides a strong baseline for monitoring the implementation of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and National Agricultural Investment Plans (NAIP) and other government policies and programmes.

1.2 Methodology

The purpose of the assessment was to conduct a comprehensive gender assessment (at macro and meso levels) in agriculture and the rural development sector in Ethiopia, and on the basis of analysis of the results, to provide recommendations to the Government of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia (GoE), FAO and DPs on how to strengthen gender equality in agriculture, food security and rural development interventions.

The methodology involved secondary and primary as well as qualitative and quantitative data collection, identifying stakeholders for consultation, adopting study tools and conducting interviews.

Secondary data review

The secondary data collection involved desk review of available literatures from published and unpublished sources that include: strategic frameworks such as the (Country Programming Frameworks (CPFs); documents related to the Comprehensive African Agricultural Development Programme (CAADP)- and other policy

documents; legislations; reports from government and other organizations including those related to the Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discriminations Against Women (CEDAW); gender mainstreaming tools; gender profiles and assessments; academic literatures; project/programme evaluation reports; statistical data/information; and UN reports/databases.

Primary data collection

The aim of primary data collection was to complement the data collected through the literature review. This involved interview with stakeholders working in agriculture and rural development sector - Ministry of Agriculture and Natural Resources (MoANR), Ministry of Livestock and Fisheries (MoLF), Ministry of Environment, Forestry and Climate Change (MoEFCC), Ministry of Women and Child Affairs(MoWCA)' different departments, Federal Cooperative Agency (FCA), Ethiopian Agricultural Research Institute (EARO), UN agencies staff UNWOMEN, UNDP, FAO, UNICEF, ILO, WFP), IRLI, SNV, and Cooperative Federations. Annex 1 depicts a list of key informants interviewed.

1.3 FAO's presence in the country

Ethiopia is one of the original members of FAO, joining the organization in 1948. Since 1981 when FAO-Ethiopia was established, FAO has been an active DP to the Government of Ethiopia (GoE) in implementing a wide range of programmes and projects to improve the food security and nutrition of its population as well as respond to emergencies in food and agriculture.

In line with the GoE's initiatives and policies, as well as strategies in agricultural and rural development starting from the early 1990s' Five Year Development Programmes to the current Growth and Transformation Plan (GTP), FAO has been playing a crucial role in delivering relevant and timely interventions to support the development objectives and humanitarian needs of the GoE in various fields of agriculture and natural resources management. In addition, all FAO interventions are aligned with the GoE's Agricultural Investment Framework (PIF), the United Nations Development Assistance Framework (UNDAF), and the joint Rural Economic Development/Food Security (RED/FS).



A woman and a man spinning cotton using the traditional method.



Woman sifts beans from dirt, dust and hay.

©FAO/IFAD/WFP/Petterik Wiggers

FAO Ethiopia's CPF guides FAO's work in the country with the following focus areas: crop production, productivity and commercialisation; livestock and fisheries production, productivity and commercialisation and sustainable resource management (details given in Annex 2). The goal of FAO's policy on gender equality, 'Attaining food security goals in agriculture and rural development' is to achieve equality between women and men in sustainable agricultural production and rural development for the elimination of hunger and poverty.

Food insecurity remains a delicate issue in Ethiopia, and yet its agriculture sector has great potential to play a stronger role in development, food security and poverty reduction, as the Government has set out to do through its strategy of Agricultural Development Led Industrialization (ADLI). FAO, therefore, has a key role to play in helping Ethiopia to realize its agricultural potential and help enable the country not only to attain food security but also to be competitive at regional and global levels (List of operationally active projects is depicted in Annex 3).

1.4 Organization of the report

The report consists of six main sections. Section One is the executive summary that highlights the overall content of the report. Section Two is the introduction which includes a background of the study, methodology followed for the data collection, the history of FAO's presence in Ethiopia and its focus areas. Section Three describes the country context focusing on human development and gender, and the county's policy, legal and institutional contexts. Section Four is devoted to gender analysis of the agriculture and rural sector with more focus on agriculture and rural development, political commitments and policies, institutional level, gender disparities in agriculture, food security, and rural sector. Section Five provides stakeholders analysis. Finally, Section Six summarises the main findings of the report and the recommendations.



Steam water harvest project supported by FAO.

2. Country context

2.1 Human development and gender

This section addresses human development aspects that are fundamental for a decent livelihood, and which influence gender roles and relations as well as opportunities for women.

2.1.1 Human Development Index

The Human Development Index (HDI) is a summary measure of average achievement in key dimensions of human development: a long and healthy life, being knowledgeable and having a decent standard of living. Ethiopia is categorised as one of the low human development countries with a HDI of 0.463 (0.424 for female, 0.501 for male) and ranked as 173rd from 189 countries in the world. Breaking this into sub-indexes gives the following results: life expectancy at birth 65.9 years (67.8 for female, 64 for male); expected years of schooling 8.5 years (for females 8.2, and for males 8.8) and mean year of schooling was 1.6 for females and 3.8 for males; Gross National Income (GNI) per capita (2011 PPP\$) 1 719 and Inequality-adjusted HDI (IHDI) was 0.331. When we look at HDI trends from 2010 to 2017 there is slight progress as it was 0.412 in 2010, 0.423 in 2011, 0.429 in 2012, 0.436 in 2013, 0.442 in 2014, 0.451 in 2015, 0.457 in 2016 and 0.463 in 2017 (UNDP, 2018).

2.1.2 Multidimensional Poverty Index

Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI) from the human development report specifications value for Ethiopia was 0.490 with a head count of 83.8 percent in 2016. The population head count in multidimensional poverty was estimated 85 834 000 that was the whole population with the density of 58.5 percent; population vulnerable to multidimensional poverty was 8.7 percent and under severe multidimensional poverty was 61.8 percent in 2016. We see the contributions of deprivations in three main dimensions for the overall poverty were education 29.2 percent, health 20 percent and living standard 50.8 percent. The population living below the national income poverty line between 2006 and 2017 was 29.6 percent, but below PPP\$1.90 a day was 26.7 percent during 2006 and 2016 (UNDP, 2018).

2.1.3 Gender Inequality Index

The Gender Inequality Index (GII) is a composite measure reflecting inequality in achievement between women and men in three dimensions: reproductive health, empowerment and the labour market. Ethiopia was ranked 121st from 160 countries with the GII value of 0.502. The maternal mortality ratio (the number of deaths due to pregnancy-related causes per 100 000 live births) was 353. The share of seats in the legislative body (both in the House of Peoples Representatives and House of Federation) was 37.3 percent female and 62.7 percent male. The percentage of the population ages 25 and older who have reached (but not necessarily completed) a secondary level of education was 11.2 percent for females and 21.4 for males. Furthermore, there is a significant gap in labour force participation between females and males with 77.2 percent and 87.8 percent, respectively (UNDP, 2018). The maternal mortality ratio-trend was 1 200 in 1995; 990 in 2000; 740 in 2005; 420 in 2013 and 353 in 2015 (WHO, 2016). A progressively reducing trend was recorded in the last 25 years.

2.1.4 Gender Development Index

The Gender Development Index (GDI) was 0.846 in 2017. The HDI for females was 0.424 and for males 0.501) in 2017. For life expectancy and years of schooling, see Section 2.1.1. The estimated progress in national income per capita (PPP US\$) was 1 304 for female and 2 136 for male in 2017 (UNDP, 2018).

2.1.5 Gender Empowerment Measure

The Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) seeks to measure relative female representation in economic and political power. It considers gender gaps in political representation, in professional and management positions in the economy, as well as gender gaps in incomes. From the legislators, senior officials, and managers' positions, females and males held 27 percent and 73 percent, respectively and was ranked 80th from 145 countries with a 0.36 score. From the professional and technical positions, 33 percent and 67 percent were held by females and males, respectively. The estimated earned income (PPP US\$) varies with female, 1 139 and males 1 862 and ranked as 73rd with a 0.61 score (World Economic Forum, 2015).

2.1.6 The World Economic Forum Global Gender Gap Index

The Global Gender Gap Index (GGI) examines the gap between men and women in four fundamental categories (sub-indexes): economic participation and opportunity, educational attainment, health and survival, and political empowerment. Ethiopia was ranked 115th with the gender gap value of 0.656 from 145 countries in the world in 2017. Breaking down this result into sub-indexes, in economic participation and opportunity Ethiopia was ranked 109th with the value 0.604; in educational attainment it ranked 134th, with score 0.819; in health and survival it ranked 44th with 0.979, and in political empowerment ranked 50th with the value of 0.223 from 145 countries. The data indicated that Ethiopia has moved up nine places from 2015 and has seen the region's biggest improvement on the political empowerment sub index. Ethiopia was ranked 22nd from 30 countries in the Sub-Saharan region. (World Economic Forum, 2017).

2.1.7 Social Institutions and Gender Index

The Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI) is an unweighted average of the following five sub-indices: i) discriminatory family code ii) restricted physical integrity iii) son bias iv) restricted resources and assets and v) restricted civil liberties. The SIGI and its sub-indices values are between 0 and 1, with 0 indicating no inequality and 1 indicating complete inequality (OECD, 2014). However, Ethiopia was not globally ranked based on a SIGI score in this report.

The family law guarantees the same minimum age of marriage for both women and men, and the minimum age is 18. However, the percentage of girls aged 15-19 who are mothers or pregnant with their first child was 12.4 percent in 2010/11 (CSA, 2011). The law guarantees the same parental authority to women and men during marriage and after divorce. There is the same guarantee for inheritance rights to both daughters and sons, as well as to both widows and widowers (FDRE, 2000). The law guarantees the same rights to hold, use and control land and non-land assets as well as access to formal financial services to women and men, and there are no discriminatory laws that restrict women's access to public space, their political voice and their participation in all aspects of public life. The law criminalised violence against women and Female Genital Mutilation (FGM) as well as guaranteed reproductive autonomy. There is no evidence of women missing in the country. However, there are some customary, traditional or religious practices that discriminate against women and there are widespread practices of violence against women.

2.1.8 Women's Economic Opportunity Index

The Women's Economic Opportunity Index (WEOI) contains three concepts: the participation gap, the remuneration gap and the advancement gap. Accordingly, Ethiopia was ranked 43rd in labour force participation (females 79.9 percent and males 90.3 percent) and a female to male ratio of 0.88 from 145 countries with a 0.885 score; ranked 95th in wage equality for similar work with a female to male ratio of 0.59 and a 0.588 score. It was ranked 74th in estimated earned income (PPP US\$) (females 1 308 and males 2 163) and a female to male ratio of 0.60 with a score 0.604. It was ranked 83rd in legislators, senior officials, and managers (females 26.5 percent, males 73.5 percent) and with a female to male ratio of 0.36 with score 0.361. Regarding professional

and technical workers it was ranked as 114th with a female to male ratio of 0.48 and a 0.484 score (World Economic Forum, 2017).

2.1.9 Demography and population dynamics

Ethiopia is the second most populous country in Africa with an estimated population of 102.4 million in 2017, with an average annual growth rate of 2.48 percent and average fertility rate of 4.2 percent between 2010 and 2017; from this females constituted 50.8 percent and males 49.2 percent. The sex ratio at birth was 0.944 in the same period (World Economic Forum, 2017). Of this 82.2 percent and 17.8 percent live in rural and urban areas, respectively. The population between age 15 and 64 constituted 51 percent, under age 5 was 46.3 percent and age 65 and older was 2.7 percent. The median age was 18.6. The average size of family was 5.0 and in rural areas, 5.3. The dependency ratio for age 0 to 15 was 75.2 percent and that of 65 and older was 6.3 percent. There were estimated 5 262 HHs in the country; from these FHHs were 25 percent, and MHHs were 75 percent (World Economic Forum, 2015). According to the same sources of data 397 200 people was found internally displaced in 2013.

A survey conducted by the World Bank indicated that migration from rural to urban areas constitute the highest proportion with the following figures - large towns 17 percent, medium towns 12 percent, small towns 16 percent and 56 percent from rural areas. More than half of Addis Ababa migrants arrive from rural areas. The proportion of migrants by their origin of the region was: 30.7 percent from Oromia, 30.2 percent from Amhara, 25.1 percent from South Nations Nationalities and People Region (SNNPR), 10.7 percent from Tigray, and the remaining 3.3 percent from four other regions and city administrations. When we look at rural-urban migration by age-group, those less than 15 years old comprise the highest proportion with 23.6 percent, followed by the 25-35 and 35-55 age groups with each constituting 19 percent. Age group 15-19, and 55+ constituted 14.4 and 9.2 percent, respectively. Education and labour are the primary reason for migrating for more than 77 percent of migrants. The progressive population pressure and the high degree of plot fragmentation in rural Ethiopia are often viewed as important push forces of rural-urban migration (World Bank, 2010). Under these circumstances, the youth is likely to move from one rural area to another to take advantage of different seasonal calendars of farm production, or to move to urban areas and abroad to find non-farm jobs.

Outward migration displays a basic demographic characterisation similar to internal migration. Adults between 25 and 55 years old and the young between 15 and 25 years of age are the population groups most likely to migrate abroad, accounting for 59 percent and 36 percent of international migrants, respectively (World Bank, 2010). It is difficult to view the overall picture of the country's international migration as there is lack of data on migration in general, and sex disaggregated data in particular, in particular; the fact that there is primarily irregular movement through different routes makes the issue more complex (IOM, 2015).

2.1.10 Health

The three commonly used anthropometric indicators to measure child nutritional status are height-for-age, weight-for-age, and weight-for-height. At the national level, child stunting, underweight and wasting rates are 40 percent, 22 percent and 11 percent, respectively. Child malnutrition rates are higher in rural areas than in urban areas. Female children are slightly better off than male children. Child stunting is higher in rural areas than urban areas. About 43 percent of male children and 41 percent of female children in rural areas are stunted compared with about 22-25 percent in urban areas. In rural areas, the underweight rate is 27 percent for male children and 23 percent for female children. It is lower in urban areas with males and females 14 percent and 9 percent, respectively. At the national level, the prevalence of wasting is about 13 percent for males and 10 percent for females (CSA, 2015). The Global Hunger Index (GHI) of Ethiopia was 24.4 (WHO, 2016).

Based on a Federal Ministry of Health (FMoH) assessment report, the social and economic impact of child undernutrition in Ethiopia is significantly high. Accordingly, 44 percent of the health costs associated with undernutrition occur before the child turns 1 year old; 28 percent of all child mortality is associated with unde nutrition; 16 percent of all repetitions in primary school are associated with stunting; stunted children achieve 1.1 years less in school education; child mortality associated with undernutrition has reduced the country's workforce by 8 percent, and 67 percent of the adult population in Ethiopia suffered from stunting as children. The annual costs associated with child undernutrition was estimated at US\$3.36 billion, which is equivalent to 16.5 percent of GDP (FMoH, 2012).

The proportion of fully immunised children rose from 44.5 percent in 2004/2005 to 87.6 percent in 2012/2013. On the other hand, infants lacking immunisation for Diphtheria Pertusis Tetanus (DPT) was 16 percent and Measles was 38 percent in 2013. However, child mortality rate per 1 000 live births was still high with 64.4 for under-five years and 44.4 percent for infants in 2013. Adult mortality per 1 000 people was 198 for females and 239 for males in 2013. Death due to malaria per 10 000 people was 48.1 and due to TB was 18 in 2012. HIV/AIDS was one of the top priorities of HSDP IV. According to the “HIV related estimates for Ethiopia-2012”, the adult HIV prevalence is estimated at 1.1 percent (0.8 percent in males and 1.5 percent in females) and the adult HIV incidence was 0.03 percent in 2015 (FMoH).

The percent of pregnant mothers who gave birth in the five years preceding the 2011 survey who received antenatal care from skilled providers was 34 (76 percent urban and 26 percent rural). About 57 percent of women did not receive any antenatal care for their last birth in the five years preceding the survey.

According to a 2011 Demographic and Health Survey (DHS), the percentage of women between 15-19 years who are mothers or pregnant with their first child was 12.4 percent and births attended by skilled health personnel was 10 percent in 2010/11. Based on the same source, the median age of first birth for women aged 25-49 is 19.2, and women with no education have an even lower median age of 18.8 (WHO, 2016). Young motherhood is considered one of the main causes for Ethiopia's high levels of maternal mortality.

Although FGM is prohibited by law, it is still practised in several parts of the country, particularly in rural areas. A 2014 UNICEF report revealed that the prevalence of genital mutilation among adult women was 74.3 percent between 2002 and 2012. However, the prevalence was lower for girls - 24.4 percent. The study also found that the attitude of supporting FGM practice was significantly high, with 31.4 percent of women embracing the practice (UNICEF, 2014).

About 42 percent of currently married women were using a method of contraception, mostly modern methods (40 percent). Use of modern methods among currently married women has increased from 6 percent in 2000 to 40 percent in 2014 (CAR, 2014). Further, data from study reports indicated that basic health service coverage has improved from 76.9 percent in 2005/06 to 94 percent in 2011/12 (CSA, 2014).

2.1.11 Education and literacy

The majority of Ethiopians have little or no education, with females even less educated than males. The literacy rate for females was 48 percent and 57 percent for males in 2012. Despite this gender gap, there has generally been a remarkable change in illiteracy rate, which was reduced from 71 percent in 2004/5 to 53.3 percent in 2012/13 (CSA, 2014).

The educational attainment gap is much higher among the rural population than among the urban population. For example, in urban areas 27 percent of females and 15 percent of males have no education, compared with 53 percent of females and 41 percent of males in rural areas (CAR, 2014). Substantial variation in educational attainment also occurs across wealth quintiles. Only 24 percent of females in the wealthiest households have no education, compared with 69 percent in the poorest households. Similarly, 14 percent of males in the wealthiest households have no education, compared with 57 percent in the poorest households. The gender gap in education is more evident at higher levels of education (UNDP, 2014).

The Gender Parity Index (GPI) measures sex-related differences in school attendance ratios, particularly the ratio of female to male attendance. Accordingly, the GPI for primary school attendance was 1.06 for Net Attendance ratio (NAR), but 0.94 for Gross Attendance ratio (GAR). For secondary school attendance, it was 1.42 for NAR and 1.23 for GAR. This data indicates that the gender gap is slightly smaller at the primary level than at the secondary level of schooling.

2.1.12 Employment

In Ethiopia, the employment to population ratio was 79 percent in 2013. However, 91.2 percent of this was identified as vulnerable employment. Key sources of vulnerability in employment as identified by the ILO are their casual, seasonal, temporary or short term nature - because these jobs provide no expectations of a long-lasting employment relationship. The proportion of the labour force engaged in the agriculture sector was 68.2 percent of the total employment in 2017. The unemployment rate in the youth labour force

was 7.4 percent (UNDP, 2018). The labour force participation rate for females was 77.2 percent and males 87.8 percent. This indicates that females have an 10.6 percent lower rate of participation than their male counterparts. A much higher percentage of men than women are employed (76 per cent of urban men versus 50 per cent of urban women, and 80 per cent of rural men versus 33 percent of rural women) in 2012/13. When the underemployed are included in the employed, a lower share of urban men are unemployed (12 percent) and an even lower share of rural men (2 percent). This is in sharp contrast with women whose unemployment share is 42 per cent, both in urban and rural areas. The reason why unemployment is not higher for rural women is a high share of underemployment in rural areas (UNDP, 2014). This is mainly attributed to unequal access of males and females to education and vocational trainings as well as labour markets. On the other hand, women are mainly engaged in reproductive, care and support work which are not recognised as formal employment work.

The rate of child labour in the country was 27.4 percent during 2005 to 2013. Based on 2002-2012 data from UNICEF, child labour affected boys more than girls. Recent estimates also show that women are more likely than men to be employed in the informal sector. Around 74 percent of women who are non-agricultural workers are informally employed, compared to 61 percent of men (IOM, 2015). The proportion of domestic workers was 1.5 percent for women and 0.1 percent for men (from overall workers during 2000 to 2010), working poor at PPP \$2 a day from the total employment was 73.8 percent during 2003 to 2012.

2.1.13 Women's voice and political representation

The Ethiopian Constitution adopted in 1955 guaranteed women the equal right to vote. The proportion of seats held by women in the national parliament is expressed as percentage of total seats. In Ethiopia there is a bicameral legislative system: the share of seats is calculated based on both houses. Currently, women and men hold respectively 38.8 percent and 61.2 percent of the seats in the federal parliament, respectively and globally Ethiopia was ranked as 17th out of 145 countries studied in GEM, with a 0.63 score in the participation of women in the legislative body. The proportion of women and men in ministerial positions is 10 percent and 90 percent, respectively, resulting in Ethiopia's ranking as 109th with a 0.111 score (Global Economic Forum, 2017).

Legally both men and women (sons and daughters) have equal inheritance rights. However, full realization of this right, particularly in rural areas has been influenced by traditional norms and cultural and religious beliefs (details in Section 3.2.2).

The 2000 revised Family Law guaranteed women the right to retain their nationality upon marriage with foreign nationals.

Both men and women legally have equal rights in marriage, including owning and managing family and properties. But there are differences in practice due to existing traditional norms that prevail in the communities. For example, the legal minimum age for marriage for both males and females is 18 years. Rates of early marriage are higher for women, however this have fallen recently (CSA, 2011).

Domestic violence is a crime under the Criminal Code. However, the prevalence rate of gender based-violence is still high in the country. A study conducted by the Federal Minister of Women, Children and Youth Affairs (MoWCYA) indicated that a total of 8,655 reported cases of physical violence, and even cases of psychological and economic violence were evident (MoWCYA, 2013).

2.1.14 Basic infrastructure

According to the report from WHO/UNICEF, the percentage of people who have access to improved sanitation is 24 percent (urban 27.3 percent and rural 19.4 percent)². In rural areas, protected wells, unprotected wells and rivers/lakes are the main sources of drinking water respectively for 37 percent, 19 percent and 20 percent of HHs. Rural people who get pipe water were 21.3 percent, as compared to around 69 percent and 33 percent of people in large and small towns, respectively. The proportion of rural HHs using electricity as a main source of lighting was only 12 percent when compared to 85 percent and 95 percent for the small and large towns, respectively. Sex-disaggregated data regarding women's access to electricity is also scarce.

2. WHO/UNICEF Joint Monitoring Programme (JMP) for Water Supply and Sanitation. <http://www.wssinfo.org/>.

There is also variation in access to telecommunication services among rural and urban areas. Accordingly, mobile coverage was 46.4 percent at the national level with 37.2 percent (rural), as compared to 74.9 percent and 88.4 percent in small and large towns, respectively (SCA, 2015). Between June 2014 and May 2015, 20 percent of new mobile subscribers were women. However, there is a lack of sex-disaggregated data to shed light on questions of gender equality in terms of mobile use. Very little is known about women's use of transportation infrastructure in Ethiopia (Beyene, 2015).

At the country level, about 75 percent of the students can get to the nearest primary school in less than 30 minutes, while only 61 percent of the students attending secondary school get to school within the same time. About 63 percent of urban students and 37 percent of students in the rural areas can get to their primary school within 15 minutes. About 42 percent and 17 percent of students in town and rural areas, respectively can get to their secondary schools in less than 15 minutes (Bayene, 2015).

2.2 Policy, legislative and institutional context

The GoE expressed its commitment to gender equality in the policy to abolish all discriminatory laws and regulations, as well as creating an enabling environment for the full participation of all members of the society in the socio-economic and political sectors, with special focus on the subordinate position of women.

This section deals with the socio-economic situation and political system, legal framework and institutional setup for promoting gender equality.

2.2.1 Socio-economic situation and political system

Ethiopia is classified as a 'low-income food-deficit' country by the World Bank with a Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of US\$181.6 billion and a GDP per capita at Purchasing Power Parity (PPP) of US\$1 730 (UNDP, 2018). Agriculture accounts for about 46 percent of GDP, and hence it is the backbone of the economy. Agriculture is also the main sector of employment, worth about 85 percent of total employment. Despite rapid urbanisation rates, Ethiopia is still mainly rural, as about 82 percent of the population lives in rural areas.

According to official data, Ethiopia achieved rapid and broad-based economic growth averaging 10.9 percent, and real GDP per capita growth of 8.3 percent annually for the last 11 years. Substantial progress was also made across a broad range of social and human development indicators (World Bank, 2015). The incidence of poverty declined sharply from 38.7 percent in 2005 to 29.6 percent in 2011, and is estimated to decline further to 23.4 percent in 2015. Income inequality measured by the Gini Coefficient has remained low and stable at around 0.3 for the last decade. The country is "on track to achieve" by end-2015 six of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and efforts are under way to meet targets set for Goals 3 and 5.³

Ethiopia has a decentralised federal system of government comprising nine regional states and two administrative cities. The key government institutions consist of line ministries and bureaus at the federal and regional levels respectively. Line ministries are responsible for coordinating the design and implementation of public strategies and policies. The regional bureaus are further decentralised to *woreda* (district) and *kebele* (lowest administrative unit) levels. The MoANR and MoLF have overall responsibility for agricultural and rural development policies, strategies and plans, including the management of agricultural research and extension services, natural resource management, input and output marketing, disaster risk management and food security (DRMFS), and private investment support (MoARD, 2010).

2.2.2 Legal framework

The 1995 Federal Constitution lays basic legal ground for gender equality. The Constitution explicitly recognises the equal right of men and women in all matters including cultural, social, economic and political spheres, and women's equal rights to acquire, administer, control, use, transfer and sell property including equal treatment in the inheritance of property. This subsection is summarised from the 1995 Federal Constitution, Revised 2000 Family Law; FAO, 2014; MoWCYA, 2010; MOLSA, 2012; ILO, 2013, and UNWOMEN, 2014.

3. MDGs Report 2014.

International treaties and conventions

The GoE adopted/endorsed most major international conventions and treaties related to women and gender equality. The constitution recognises the international conventions ratified by the country as part of the law of the land (Article 9-4). Accordingly, the following conventions/treaties have been adopted:

- ***The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development:*** The GoE strongly supports the SDGs which have succeeded the MDGs. Goal 5 on achieving gender equality and empowering women calls for the recognition and value of women's unpaid care and domestic work through the provision of public services, infrastructure and social protection policies, and the promotion of shared responsibility within the household and the family as nationally appropriate. Women's participation and leadership at all levels of decision-making is also essential.
- ***CEDAW.*** GoE has ratified CEDAW. This convention addresses discriminatory practices and exclusion experienced by women in areas of economic, social and cultural rights, participation in public activity, sex stereotyping and equality in law. There is urgency and the need for emphasis on the protection of the rights of rural women. In particular, Article 14 provides protection for rural women and their special problems, ensuring their right to participate in development programmes, "to have access to adequate health care facilities", "to participate in all community activities", "to have access to agricultural credit" and "to enjoy adequate living conditions."
- ***The Malabo Declaration on “Accelerated Agricultural Growth and Transformation for Shared Prosperity and Improved Livelihoods”*** adopted by the African Union Summit in June 2014 calls for deliberate and targeted public support to women to participate and directly benefit from the growth and transformation opportunities to improve their lives and livelihoods.
- ***The Declaration on “African Year of Human Rights with Particular Focus on the Rights of Women”*** adopted at the AU Summit in July 2016 in Kigali calls upon Member States to "protect and promote women's human rights as embodied in the Protocol on the African Charter on Human and People's Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa and the Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality in Africa which specifically addresses rights that are particular to women in Africa and rooted in the Constitutive Act of the African Union". It therefore provides good avenues for addressing rural women's rights to food, land and decent employment.
- The Declaration "***2015 Year of women’s empowerment and development towards Africa’s Agenda 2063***" adopted by the African Union Summit in June 2015 sets an ambitious agenda to enhance women's contribution and benefits from formal agriculture and agribusiness value chains. It invites AU Member States to increase mechanization, technological innovation, education and skills development for women, intensify their financial inclusion in agribusiness and empower them with knowledge and skills to use modern technologies in agribusiness and agricultural value chains. Another key dimension is to enforce women's rights to productive assets, including land and their access to public procurement processes in agribusiness. The Declaration also calls upon financial institutions to have a minimum quota of 50 percent to finance women to grow from micro to macro businesses. It stresses the need to ensure that the Continental Free Trade Area promotes the empowerment of women in agribusiness and agricultural value chains.
- ***African Union Gender Strategy 2018.*** This is a commitment by Heads of States in Africa to social and economic development, which takes into account the diversity in social, cultural, and traditional settings on the continent. It also sets out to address cultures and practices that militate against enjoyment of freedom and rights by women and girls.
- This gender strategy of the AU will achieve the goal of Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment (GEWE), a goal that is common to both Agenda 2063 and Agenda 2030. The new gender strategy focuses on successes and lessons learned in the development of Agenda 2063 and 2030, as well as to take into account other recent commitments of importance to women.
- Ethiopia is also signatory to the "***Voluntary Guidelines on the Responsible Governance of Tenure of Land, Fisheries and Forests in the Context of National Food Security***" adopted by the Committee on Food Security in 2012. The Guidelines call upon Member States to ensure that women and girls have equal tenure rights and access to land, fisheries and forests independent of their civil and marital status, and provide policy, legal and organizational frameworks that are non-discriminatory. The Guidelines further invite Member

States to address the obstacles faced by women and girls with regard to tenure rights, and to take measures to ensure that legal and policy frameworks provide adequate protection for women; and that laws that recognize women's tenure rights are implemented and enforced. They advocate for Member States to facilitate the full participation of users of land, fisheries and forests in tenure governance, including in the formulation and implementation of policy, law and decisions on territorial development.

National policies, legal frameworks and programmes:

- *National Policy on Ethiopian Women:* The National Policy on Women was adopted in 1993 with an aim to institutionalise the political, economic and social rights of women by creating an appropriate structure in government offices and institutions so that the public policies and interventions are gender-sensitive and can ensure equitable development for all men and women.
- *Women's Change and Development Package:* It was introduced in 2006 with the objective to facilitate the implementation of the National Policy on Women and to stress equal participation of women in all sectors.
- *National Action Plan on Gender and Development (2006-2010):* Prepared to promote the implementation of Ethiopia's commitment to the BPA. The plan was later included in the Plan for Accelerated and Sustained Development to End Poverty (PASDEP) and currently in GTPII. The plan's strategic objectives specifically aimed to enhance rural women's equal access to and control over productive resources and services (land, oxen, extension, credit) in order to make them food secure and come out of the poverty trap; improve the lives of pastoral women; develop and implement guidelines on environmental management and women in pastoral areas; and increase pastoralist and agro-pastoralist girls' access to education.
- *Growth and Transformation Plan (GTPII) (2016-2020):* This is the five-year national development plan adopted with fundamental pillars on women and youth empowerment. In the current national development plan of the GTP, gender has been integrated in the six major pillars as well as allotted a stand-alone seventh pillar. The GTPII in general comprises specific commitments to increase women's participation in political life and decision making, promoting women's economic empowerment and reducing violence against women. The plan intends to ensure gender equality at all educational levels, creating a conducive environment for female students, increasing the number of female teachers, increasing gender equality in employment, ownership of land and other fixed resources, eradicating harmful traditional practices, and increasing women's equal participation in political and decision making processes. It aims to increase women's engagement in agriculture from 27 percent to 50 percent to enhance their access and use of relevant technology, provide trainings for vulnerable women to enable them to benefit from agriculture and environmental conservation activities. It also intends to create accountability on the implementation of the strategy in addressing gender issues.
- Development Plan for Women and Children (2011-2028). The plan comprises specific commitments to increase women's participation in political life and decision making, promoting women's economic empowerment and reducing violence against women as GTP.
- *The Revised Family Law, 2000:* This grants spouses equal rights in the management of the family and recognises the equal rights of a married woman to possession and administration of personal property. It allows for joint ownership and administration of land and property in marriage.
- *Revised Criminal Code:* It has served as a landmark for gender equality and criminalises domestic violence, rape, harmful traditional practices (HTPs) such as FGM/cutting, abduction and early marriage.
- *Labour Proclamation No. 42/1993:* This has explicit provisions that protect women against discrimination in employment and payment, as well as protect pregnant women.
- *Land Administration and Land Use Proclamation No. 456/2005:* This emphasises "the equal rights of women with respect to use, administration and control of land, as well as in respect to transferring holding rights".

Although there are adequate policy and legal frameworks to promote gender equality and women empowerment, customary norms, religious beliefs and social practices hamper their full realization, particularly in rural areas. The country is characterised by great ethnic and religious diversity, with over 85 ethnic groups and most major world and animist religions, and a multiplicity of patrimonial and customary laws; this implies variations in the status of women. Semitic traditions and the Orthodox Church of Ethiopia

tend to dominate in the northern part, where, according to customary norms, women cannot plough the land and are forced to rent their land to others and share only 30 percent of the products. The southern regions are characterised by Cushitic traditions, traditional beliefs and Muslim and Protestant faiths. In these regions, traditionally women have no right to own land but also can only have access to land through their husbands (FAO, 2014).

2.3 National gender machinery

The 1993 National Women Policy underlined the need for the institutionalised strategy for women's empowerment through policy frameworks and gender equality structures within government. Based on the policy, women's machineries have been established at all levels: federal, regional, zonal and *woreda* levels. This resulted in the following:

- The Women Affairs Office was set up in 1991, within the Prime Minister's Office, to co-ordinate the implementation of the gender equality activities.
- Women's Affairs Directorates (WADs) were created as local implementation instruments in government ministries and agencies including MoANR and MoLF (see details in Section 4.4.1), while Women's Affairs Bureaus (WABs) were set up to implement the National Policy on Women in Ethiopia (NPWE) from regional to district (*woreda*) level. At the lowest structure of the government (*kebele*), there is no government bureau or office, except DAs and *kebele* administration, and Women's Affairs Units are established to participate in *kebele*-level planning discussions and reflecting women issues.
- A National Committee on Gender Equality (NCGE), set up to implement the National Action Plan on Gender Equality (NAP-GE) (2002-2006), including representatives of WADs, WABs, international organizations, national non-governmental organization (NGOs), registered women groups, associations and donors.
- In 2006, the WAO was upgraded to the Ministry of Women's Affairs (MoWA). It has been renamed as the Federal MoWCYA in 2010 and recently as Minister of Women's and Children's Affairs (MoWCA) in 2015. It is delegated with the responsibility of planning, coordinating and facilitating programmes that would allow women to contribute to and benefit from the country's development process. It is also responsible for creating conducive environment for the implementation, M&E of the women's policies/programmes in various government and other organizations.

The women's machinery has twin coordination mechanisms: horizontal and vertical. Vertical coordination involves MoWCA's working and reporting relationship with the regional women's institutions. MoWCA has the coordination role. Horizontal coordination engages the gender departments/directorates of sectoral ministries and other public organizations at the federal level and involves experience sharing, capacity building and joint planning and monitoring of related policies and interventions.

The MoWCA has power and authority to design strategies to follow up and evaluate the preparation of policies, legislations, development programmes and projects by Federal Government organs to ensure that they give due considerations to gender issues. Furthermore, it has the authority to conclude international treaties relating to women and children in accordance with law, follow up the implementation of the same and submit reports to the concerned bodies. The Women and Child Affairs offices and directorate in the regional states and federal ministries have similar authorities and roles in their respective areas of influence. However, limited capacity in terms of budget, and skilled and committed human power has negatively affected the effective function of the gender machineries.



Cooperative members making baskets and mats from the harvest of the date palm, which they sell to the local market.

3. Gender analysis of the agriculture and rural sector

3.1 Agriculture and rural development policies and strategies

The GoE recognised that the country's overall development is to be agriculture and rural centred while the basis of the rural sector is agriculture-led development. Further, the agriculture and rural development policy envisages that agriculture should be the starting point for initiating transformation of the national economy, and peasant farmers and pastoralists constitute the cornerstone of the economic growth. The policy argues that the country's chief and abundant resources are land and labour. The great majority of people (more than 82 percent) live in rural areas engaged in agriculture. Consequently, the country has no other alternative but to employ these resources soundly and efficiently in order to bring rapid and sustainable development. Within agriculture, predominant focus was on smallholder farms, with greater attention given to crop production than others subsectors such as livestock. Accordingly, the major five cereal crops produced include maize, sorghum, teff, wheat and barley. Coffee, pulse and oil crops are also produced as cash crops.

Ethiopia has developed a consistent set of policies and strategies for agricultural and rural development that reflect the importance of the sector in the nation's development aspirations. All policies and programmes are linked to ADLI. The Poverty Reduction Strategy Program (PRSP) was prepared and implemented in 2001. The Sustainable Development and Poverty Reduction Plan (SDPR) and the PASDEP were formulated and implemented during 2002–2004 and 2005–2010, respectively. Since 2010/2011, the government has been implementing its five-year GTP which is a comprehensive multisectoral national development plan for 2010–2015 and currently (2016–2020) and PIF (2011–2020). Under the GTP, several sector-specific development plans were developed, including the Agricultural Transformation Plan (ATP), which aims to sustainably improve the production and productivity of smallholder agriculture and strengthen market linkages to curb poverty and food insecurity, especially in the poorest rural households (MoARD, 2014).

Commitments to gender equality and women's rights are reflected in the country's policies on poverty, agriculture, rural development, safety nets, water and environment. However, the results of these commitments are less visible on the ground because the informal social institutions both within and outside of formal government, households and communities resist the ideals of equality (World Bank, 2010).

This section presents the existing policies and political discourses in promotion of gender equality in agriculture and rural development and empowerment of rural women.

3.2 Gender mainstreaming into agriculture and rural development policies and strategies

Key issues in agriculture and rural development: Increasing productivity in smallholder agriculture is GoE's top priority, recognising the importance of the smallholder sub-sector, the high prevalence of rural poverty and the large productivity gap. Productivity enhancement, however, must be complemented by efforts to help farmers graduate from purely subsistence farming to semi-subsistence/semi-commercial status, practising farming as a business and to adopt more sustainable natural resource management practices in order to arrest and reverse environmental degradation (MoARD, 2010). To this effect, efforts have been made to enhance the skills of public- and private-sector actors including providing important agricultural extension services by assigning about 63 000 (17 percent women) DAs graduating from Technical and Vocational Education and Training in Ethiopia (TVET) to promote improved agricultural practices; establishing the Farmers' Training Center; and enhancing access to agricultural credit and inputs (MoARD, 2014).

The sector remains dominated by a subsistence, low input and output rain-fed farming system in which drought periodically reverses performance gains with devastating effects on household food security and poverty levels (MoARD, 2015). Table 1 below describes some key agriculture and rural development sector policies and programmes with reference to gender equality and the empowerment of rural women.

Table 1: Gender analysis of agriculture and rural-development related policies and programmes

Policies	Description
Rural Development Policy and Strategies (RDPS) (2003)	The policy recognised the need for mobilising about 50 percent of the community, women and men for realization of agricultural and rural development as well as poverty reduction. Further, it emphasised on the need for enhancing women capacity through creating access for primary education and health care as well as tackling HTPs that hinder full utilisation of their productive potentials.
Agricultural PIF (2011-2020)	It recognises the disadvantaged position of rural women in terms of access to resources, level of education, membership of cooperatives, and participation in HH and community decision-making processes and emphasises the need for strengthening gender mainstreaming in order to increase the benefit obtained from rural labour (men and women) and enhance value addition in the agricultural sector, as well as address gender imbalances at all levels of the institutional frameworks.
Food Security Strategy (1996)	The strategy identified pregnant and lactating mothers and children under five as the highest priority with both the highest risks and the area suffering the most serious consequences of malnutrition that needs to be addressed. It further, recognised the multifaceted positive effect of providing agricultural inputs to resource-poor farmers and loans to destitute women to develop sustainable livelihoods as well as the importance of provision of cash transfers to orphans, the aged and handicapped.
Food Security Programme (2010-2014)	The programme makes reference of the needs and interests of both WMHHs and FHHs in all interventions and the in planning and implementation of awareness creation and capacity building activities and need to take into account their specific needs and capacities. This could include attention to low levels of asset holdings (in particular, land), household labour availability and availability of draught power, women's needs in terms of business skills and financial literacy training.
National Nutrition Programme (2013-2015)	The programme sets specific targets on the prevalence of child stunting and wasting and aims to reduce the prevalence of chronic under nutrition in women of reproductive age from 27 percent to 19 percent in 2015.
Environmental Policy of Ethiopia (1997)	The policy recognises the need for empowering women to enable their full participation in population and environmental decision-making, resource ownership and management; and facilitate the participation of women across all sections of society in training, public awareness campaigns, formal and informal education and decision making in environment and resource management.
Water Sector Policy (2001) and Water Sector Development Programme (2002-2016)	Advocates involvement of water resource users, particularly women in planning, design, implementation and follow up in their localities of water policies, programmes and projects so as to carry them out without affecting the ecological balance.
National Policy and Strategy on DRM (2013)	The policy recognised that women, children, the elderly, people with disabilities as well as people living with HIV/AIDS are the most vulnerable to the impact of hazards and related disaster; DRM activities should be implemented by taking into consideration this objective reality.
National Social Protection Policy of Ethiopia (2012)	It undertakes equitable distribution of the benefits of growth among the different groups, i.e. the females and males of the society as well as their needs as may be required for affirmative action to further empower women; encourages gender-focused mainstreamed interventions.
GTP II (2016-2020)	GTP II puts women and youth economic and social empowerment as one of its seven pillars. It further recognises the contributions of these key social groups' participation and effective utilisation of untapped potential for socio-economic and political participation as well as development of the society.

3.3 Gender analysis of the Policy Investment Framework

The PIF is a 10-year road map for agricultural and rural development that identifies priority areas for investment and estimates the financing needs to be provided by the Government and its DPs. It is aligned to the five-year GTP and the CAADP. PIF was launched in 2011 and its implementation is overseen by the Rural Economic Development and Food Security Sector Working Group (RED&FS SWG).

The gender analysis of the PIF will focus on the following three stages and the data is summarised from MoARD (2010), CAADP (2010), MoARD and NEPAD (2014), RED and FS Secretariat (2014), and African Union Commission (2014).

Preparation stages

In the process of developing CAADP (2009) and PIF (2010) and in identifying priority areas that needed attention, the participation of Civil Society Organization (CSOs), non state actors (NSAs)/NGOs, and the private sector in general, and women in particular, was limited. It was prepared with the participation of high level officials from GoE and donors. Open and free participation of NSAs and CSOs, including women's organizations and networks in policy formulation is weak. Generally, civil society involvement in policy reform is informal, and is largely limited to *ad hoc* invitations to attend stakeholders' meetings, if any.

The PIF document made reference of gender dimensions of the Constitution and National Action Plan on Gender (NAPG) in its background but it does not mention the national gender policy. Moreover, there is limited sex disaggregated data and gender sensitive indicators in the PIF for the analysis of the situation that the framework expected to address.

Formulation of PIF

PIF recognises that the existing gender disparities are impeding women's empowerment, and the need to remove gender disparity and ensure gender equality and women's empowerment is key to accelerated economic growth and social development. It has been designed with four Strategic Objectives, 14 Objectives, 60 Outputs and more than 170 Indicators. Gender equality and/or women's empowerment are not mentioned at the strategic objective, specific objective or output levels. At the indicator level, women are mentioned nine times, and in the majority of cases the indicator requires that the annual reporting against targets includes gender disaggregated data e.g. house hold headed farmers certified with first level land ownership certificates in millions. The exceptions are the three indicators that aim at improving agricultural production and productivity by improving extension services utilisation and agriculture inputs' objective, where specific mention is made of extension services reaching 30 percent smallholder pastoral FHHs and agro-pastoral FHHs.

Policymaking for the national development agenda, including agricultural and food security policy formulation and implementation is centralised within the executive branch, while sectoral issues are decentralised to the line ministries, but with substantial influence from the Prime Minister's Office. Donors play a major role in providing technical advice and development funds. While the RED and FS structure allows a majority of the donors to coordinate their activities, several donors do not participate in it. The business meeting was held with high participation of the GoE and donors and with limited participation of CSOs, NSAs/NGOs, and the private sector in general, and women in particular. Furthermore, the PIF process is characterised by the lack of participation of women, youth and NSAs.

PIF identifies that the primary beneficiaries of production and productivity enhancement will be smallholders adopting improved agricultural practices that increase food production and cash income generation, but there is no clear target of men and women beneficiaries in actual or relative terms. There is also no evidence that women and youth interests are currently incorporated in PIF and other agricultural sector programmes and processes. Moreover, it is not clear from PIF annual budgets how much of the funds from the GoE, bilateral and multilateral partners have been dedicated to gender equality.

Implementation and evaluation of impact

The GoE achieved allocation of 16-17 percent of its total budget to agriculture when compared to the 10 percent CAADP target, and provides a majority of the financing required to implement PIF (reportedly 60-70 percent of the total estimated cost). This sends a clear signal about the government's strong commitment to PIF, and has attracted the support of DPs. Accordingly, some initiatives were implemented and corresponding results were achieved.

The achievement of the investment in the agricultural sector by PIF strategic objectives (that is, Strategic Objective (SO) 1 (SO1 to SO 4) according to their importance includes: Productivity and Production Improvement,

Agricultural Commercialisation, Sustainable Land Management, and DRMFS accounted respectively for 45 percent, 9.1 percent, 20.1 percent, and 25.7 percent of committed investments during 2010–2014. However, it is not clear from the PIF assessment review reports how much of the funds from the GoE, bilateral and multilateral partners have been spent to promote gender equality.

The PIF envisages several policy reforms for the implementation of the framework such as efficient and effective land policies, legislation, certification and administration: in livestock development; in seed supply chain; and in creating access to medium/long term loans and foreign exchange; however, no gender issue is explicitly addressed in these proposed policy reforms. It also intends to improve land administration and land use planning in order to achieve sustainable land management by enhancing security of tenure for smallholder farmers, pastoralist and agro-pastoralists; but no clear strategy is mentioned about how to address the gender disparity and disadvantaged position of women in this regard. On the other hand, first-level land titles deeds have been issued to 98 percent of rural HHs in the four regions of Amhara, Oromiya, SNNPR, and Tigray. Further, in 2014, second-level landholding certification was started in eight *woredas* in each of these regions. But there is no sex disaggregated data to shed light on how many men and women or FHHs and MHHs were addressed in the process.

3.4 Institutional level

3.4.1 Gender mainstreaming in the Ministry of Agriculture and Natural Resources

The MoANR acknowledges and holds itself accountable to a number of national laws, policies, strategies and programmes that seek to promote gender equality and women's empowerment. In response to the Constitution and women's policy, the MOANR has designed gender inclusive agricultural policies and established the WAD to facilitate the gender mainstreaming process and women and youth empowerment in the agriculture sector. The directorate has in turn developed guidelines for facilitating the gender mainstreaming process in the sector. These guidelines are supposed to serve as a tool for practitioners to incorporate and prioritise gender issues in the general interventions in the agricultural sector. All departments under MOANR are expected to take their own actions accordingly to pursue gender mainstreaming initiatives in their own programmes (MoANR & ATA, 2015).

The gender performance of MOANR in terms of programme design and implementation shows that it is exerting considerable effort to ensure the participation of women in various activities. The policies, programmes and projects designed by MOANR contain sex-disaggregated targets and women-specific activities. The specific strategies and programmes like the Agriculture Growth Program (AGP), the Food Security Program, the GTP, National Nutrition Program (NNP), National Policy and Strategy on Disaster Risk Management, Participatory Small-scale Irrigation Project (PSSIP), Sustainable Land Management Project (SLMP), Productive Safety Net Program (PSNP) and Household Asset Building Program (HABP) have gender components and/or give consideration to gender. Some of these are also flagship programmes and include adopting gender mainstreaming approaches that are supported by guidelines, training and in some cases the recruitment of gender officers at the federal and regional levels.⁴ The inclusion of gender in the curriculum of the agricultural TVET colleges since 2010 and the improved conceptual understanding of staff through various trainings on gender equality and gender mainstreaming are notable achievements (ATA & MoA, 2014).

However, lack of a needs assessment or gender analysis as a basis of planning and programme designing due to limited technical capacity and lack of political will of leadership on gender mainstreaming is identified as a major gap. Further, the audit report revealed that plan documents of the Ministry have no gender sensitive indicators, other than sex-disaggregated targets for some activities, and there is an observed overall reluctance to properly mainstream gender. Important limitations to mainstream gender include: limited understanding of what gender mainstreaming actually entails, inadequate conceptual clarity regarding gender in general and the focus on mere participation of women; and the widely held perception that equal participation or opportunities of women and men will automatically ensure that they obtain equal outcomes and benefits regardless of the structural power relations that may work against gender equality (ATA & MoA, 2015).

4. JP GEWE Pro doc (2012-2015) Ethiopia Joint Programme on Gender Equality And Women's Empowerment: Phase II, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

3.4.2 Gender mainstreaming in the Ministry of Environment Forestry and Climate Change

The Ministry of Environment Forestry and Climate Change (MoEFCC) coordinates activities to ensure that the environmental objectives provided under the Constitution, and the basic principles set out in the environmental policy of the Country are realized; to formulate or initiate and coordinate the formulation of policies, strategies, laws, guidelines and programmes to implement national and international environmental agreements to which Ethiopia is a party. The ministry has set up a women directorate with the aim of creating enabling environment for gender mainstreaming in the activities of all directorates. This is to influence gender integration in policy and programme formulation, as well as in the planning and implementation processes. However, the capacity of the directorate in terms of skilled and committed human power and budget is limited to fully discharge its responsibility.

The Ministry designed the gender sensitive environment policy. The policy foresees to maximise equity for economic, ethnic, social, cultural, gender and age groups, especially the socially disadvantaged and to facilitate the participation of women across all sections of society in training, public awareness campaigns, formal and informal education and decision making in environment and resource management. Although men and women have essential roles in growing, managing and marketing the forest and its products, forest policy is not gender sensitive in its objective and strategies.

3.5 Gender disparities in agriculture, food security, and rural sector

3.5.1 Gender roles and dynamics

It is possible to make some broad generalisations regarding the typical division of labour between women and men in crop and livestock production, although the division of tasks varies between commodities and between locations (Aregu & Puskur, 2011).

In rural areas, in most parts of the country, women are deeply involved in most aspects of agricultural production, marketing, food procurement and household nutrition; however there is a view widely held that “women do not farm”. This cultural perception remains strong even though numerous agricultural tasks are regarded as women’s work, including weeding, harvesting, preparing storage containers, managing all aspects of home gardens and poultry, transporting farm inputs to the field and procuring water for household and some on-farm use. Women often dominate in the cultivation of horticulture, especially vegetable crops. Such crops are commonly grown on small plots in the vicinity of the house, or in the compound. Tending to livestock is most commonly performed by boys and young men. For the livestock types kept near the home, women are frequently responsible for providing feed and water for the livestock and for dairy production and marketing, cleaning stalls, managing young calves and looking after sick and weak livestock (Mogues et al. 2009).

In peak cropping seasons, particularly during weeding and harvesting, women and men work together with other household members. Women provide refreshments for groups of labourers. With regard to tree crops (such as coffee or fruit trees), men tend to do most of the heavy manual labour, including land clearance, tillage, nursery, weeding and pruning. Women assist with manuring, soil conservation, harvesting and management, depending on the region. Women’s participation is greater when the trees are planted close to the home (Aregu & Puskur, 2011).

Crop marketing, and the control over revenues from these sales, are often gender differentiated, and in some cases vary by crop type. Many female farmers handle the vegetables and fruits, their production and transport to the market, and may retain these incomes to pay for HHs’ needs. In contrast, the marketing and income from cash crops grown by the HH in larger scale, such as coffee, teff and wheat, are controlled by the household head (who are mainly male in MHHs), though there are many cases where small quantities of these important crops may be sold by the head’s spouse. As is the case with crops, control over the sale of and income from livestock and livestock products is generally gender differentiated, with women tending to market small livestock and poultry, as well as dairy products and eggs. The sale of cattle and other large livestock is mostly handled by men (Aregu & Puskur, 2011).

Women are responsible for all the household chores. In addition to the support they provide in agriculture and livestock production, they have been socially assigned the task of safeguarding and tending to their

family's basic needs through the provision of food, health and hygiene. They are responsible for cooking, fuel wood collection (for both household consumption and income generation), collecting water and taking care of the children and elderly. In very poor rural communities women do not have access to labour saving devices that reduce drudgery in the household work and food production (Gebrehiwot, 2007).

An FAO report revealed that in comparison with men, women bear a disproportionate work burden which leads to time poverty (FAO. 2015). Women have limited access to solutions in the form of labour-saving technologies, services and infrastructure, and in many regions they also face mobility constraints. Rural women's long working hours correlate to a triple work burden in the productive, reproductive and social spheres, and in contrast to men their work is mostly unpaid and unrecognised. This work overload restricts women's well-being and their engagement in remunerative activities.

3.5.2 Gender and food and nutrition security

In Ethiopia food availability is seasonal. The major planting seasons - April to October - before the harvests are major slack months, particularly in rural areas. Rural households tend to be the most affected by seasonal food shortage. The CSA-LSMS finds that when compared with the small and large town HHs, rural HHs consume less diverse food items for more number of days. Hence, child malnutrition rates are higher in rural than in urban areas with slight difference between female and male children (CSA, 2015). Based on WHO data the proportion of the population whose food intake falls below the minimum level of dietary energy requirements, and who therefore are undernourished or food-deprived was 32 percent during 2014-2016 (WHO, 2016).

In order to address this serious problem in the country since 2004 there is the Enhanced Outreach Strategy/ Targeted Supplementary Feeding programme (EOS/TSF) run by the GoE that aims to reduce morbidity and mortality amongst children and lactating mothers screened for acute malnutrition. There is the NNP (2013-2015) with primary impact objectives on prevalence of child stunting, wasting which aims to reduce the prevalence of chronic under-nutrition in women of reproductive age from 27 percent to 19 percent in 2015, underweight prevalence from 41 percent in 1996 to 21 percent by 2015, and reducing the prevalence of stunting from 46 percent in 1996 to 38 percent in 2015 (UNICEF & FAO, 2013). The Accelerated Stunting Reduction Strategy that was developed by the GoE in February 2011 prioritises the first 1 000 days for its implementation. Furthermore, the CAADP compact and PIF 2010-2020 has put 3 percent stunting reduction per year as an impact indicator, however, it does not explicitly state specific nutrition interventions to achieve this. Ethiopia (GoE) is equally committed to the Renewed Efforts against Child Hunger and under-nutrition (REACH) mechanism and Scaling-Up Nutrition (SUN), both of which add extra impetus to steering the nutrition agenda in Ethiopia. It has joined the renewed global commitment to end under-nutrition. REACH Ending Child Hunger and Under-nutrition Partnership was jointly established by FAO, WHO, UNICEF and WFP. REACH is a global partnership committed to meeting the nutrition needs of the world's most vulnerable children and women (UNICEF & FAO, 2013).

Similarly, UNICEF and FAO have been working in collaboration since 2009 in strengthening the nutrition situation of the country. Furthermore, the two agencies optimise on their individual comparative technical advantages through engagement with the REACH mechanism since 2011. An innovation of the interventions being proposed is for the two agencies to now work collaboratively on planning and executing specific joint food security and nutrition interventions in the four large agrarian regions. Accordingly, they have implemented two integrated community based nutrition intervention projects (2014-2017) with the intended impact of contributing to the national targets for stunting and underweight prevalence reduction and improved maternal nutritional status in 72 target woredas in three regions namely, Amhara, Oromia and SNNP (UNICEF & FAO, 2013).

However, malnutrition has been identified as a serious problem and attributed to low nutritional diets and insufficient food intake, poor infant and young child feeding practices, food insecurity, and limited access to health services are major determinants of the high prevalence of malnutrition among young children in the country (CRS, 2013). Furthermore, the Catholic Relief Services (CRS) sample survey results revealed that women and children, particularly FHHs, the elderly, and pregnant and lactating women, were identified as the most vulnerable to malnutrition due to heavy workloads and lack of sufficient access to food. Pregnant and lactating women's poor and inadequate diets and ill health increase their risk of childbirth complications. As mothers, they may have an insufficient supply of breast milk to feed their infants.

Furthermore, low educational status, culturally defined food taboos that restrict pregnant and lactating women and children from eating certain nutritious foods like vegetables and eggs, or priority given to selling

these products. In some communities there are culturally defined feeding practices dictating that men eat first, then children, then women and girls. In most communities in the country there are socially defined gender roles in which men are not responsible or engaged in reproductive works such as domestic work and childcare. These were found to contribute to female malnutrition in the CRS sampled study sites in the eastern part of the country.

3.5.3 Gender and rural development planning

In Ethiopia, public consultation and participation are enshrined in the country's Constitution. Article 89, Sub-Article 6 of the Constitution states: "Government should at all times promote participation of the people in the formulation of national development policies and programmes; it shall also have the duty to support the initiatives of the people in the development endeavors." In the same article, Sub-Article 7 stresses the need to ensure equal participation of men and women in all economic and social development endeavours (FDRE, 1995).

However, there is no evidence of the effective participation of women, gender machinery, gender equality and women empowerment advocacy organizations in the process of three major consecutive generations of agriculture and rural development sector policies and programmes since the early 1990s (MoARD, 2014). For example, development of the agricultural sector requires mainstreaming gender and environmental management, water use and management. Moreover, the degree of coordination between the MoA and other sector ministries and agencies is not clear.

In Ethiopia, all ministries have established departments of Women's Affairs in response to the broader government agenda to advance gender equality as evidenced by a NAP-GE and recent gender responsive legislative reforms. Responding to this enabling environment, the department of women's affairs in MoFED developed a Gender Responsive Budgeting (GRB) guideline to fulfill its mandate to monitor and coordinate gender equality actions with regards to planning, resource allocations and expenditure. Based on this guideline, most ministries including MOANR have developed their own guidelines and are applying them.

Some regions have put in place a structure in which local people find a way of expressing their interest and wishes, particularly in the development process of their locality. For instance, in both Tigray and Amhara regions, grassroots development teams comprising people from different sectors of society (youngsters, women and the elderly) have been established. These development teams are accountable to *subkebeles* which in turn are accountable to the *kebeles*. It seems that these development teams are created to express their wishes and participate in developmental work through contribution of resources. While the *kebele* level plan is being prepared, the chair person of the women's association and leaders of women and men development groups have the chance to participate and reflect on the plan. However, currently, the scale of representation and participation of women has been perceived to be inadequate, even though the extent varies from district to district. It was intended that the needs and priorities of women were to be identified in the respective development groups as well as one-to-five networks where women also have a chance to participate in the planning processes and voice their needs. But those networks are not effective and functional and women participation has still been found limited in most regions except Tigray. However, FHH have more access to participate during discussions on the planning process than WMHH (MoANR & ATA, 2015).

3.5.4 Gender and representation in rural organizations

In the formal and informal organizations in which women are involved, such as community based organizations (CBOs), local government and NGOs, associations and service cooperatives, the role of women within these institutions, as beneficiaries, participants and members of the community, and moreover, the extent of their participation in decision making is not well emphasised and recognized (MoANR & ATA, 2015). The role of women as decision-makers is very limited, even on issues that directly affect their rights, including important HH decisions. In general, lack of confidence and limited life skills together with discriminatory norms make FHHs more vulnerable. The existing practices have made them voiceless ((FDRE, 2013).

Traditionally, women are not given leadership roles and they are not taken seriously as decision makers. Moreover, many rural women are illiterate and not used to expressing ideas publicly in a male-dominated society. At the same time, they are not supposed to participate in public affairs, and their productive contributions often go unacknowledged (Cohen & Lemma, 2011).

This study indicated that in most rural areas, *kebele* administrations were male dominated, have little awareness of gender issues and did not provide support for women's economic or political empowerment.

According to a FCA report, there were 363 cooperative unions with 74 904 member primary cooperatives, which consisted of 14 063 132 (10 216 320 male and 3 846 812 female) individual members in 2015 indicated in Table 2 (Mogues et al, 2009). That means that females constituted 27.4 percent, which shows a slight increase from 19.5 percent in 2010 (FCA, 2015). However, men are five times more likely than women to hold a leadership position within the cooperative. About 3 percent of women who are in cooperatives hold such positions, while 15 percent of male cooperative members have some leadership roles within the cooperatives (Cohen & Lemma, 2011).

Table 2. Gender and cooperatives membership

S/No.	Type of cooperatives	No. of coops	Members		
			Male	Female	Total
1	Agriculture related	22 379	6 634 307	1 540 848	8 175 155
2	Non-agriculture	27 726	767 221	290 450	1 057 671
3	Saving and credit	18 527	1 894 212	1 478 158	3 372 370
4	Purchasers	3 469	747 576	495 274	1 242 850
5	Mining	1 337	102 932	25 091	128 023
6	Natural resources and tourism	1 060	61 669	9 255	70 924
7	Artisan	406	8 403	7 736	16 139
	Total	74 904	10 216 320	3 846 812	14 063 132

Sources: FCA Report 2015

Although women are generally still considered subordinate, their number is progressively increasing at different leadership levels including the rural women community councils. The representation of women in the higher decision-making bodies of the rural communities such as in the regional, zonal, district (*woreda*), community (*kebele*) and in the rural development councils, at different levels has been enhanced. Women in rural development projects and the appointment of a number of women to the *Kebele Council* is acknowledged and supported by governmental and non-governmental development projects. This visibility has contributed to creating awareness in the population on gender issues, and more particularly on the aspirations of young girls (Gebrehiwot, 2007). There have been significant impacts on enabling women to participate in local institutions where there are deliberate project interventions like the Pastoral Community Development Project (PCDP). This project implementation manual has clearly identified the number, roles and responsibilities of women in the committees (ensuring 50 percent and more than 30 percent overall and committee participation respectively) (FDRE, 2013).

3.5.5 Gender and rural finance

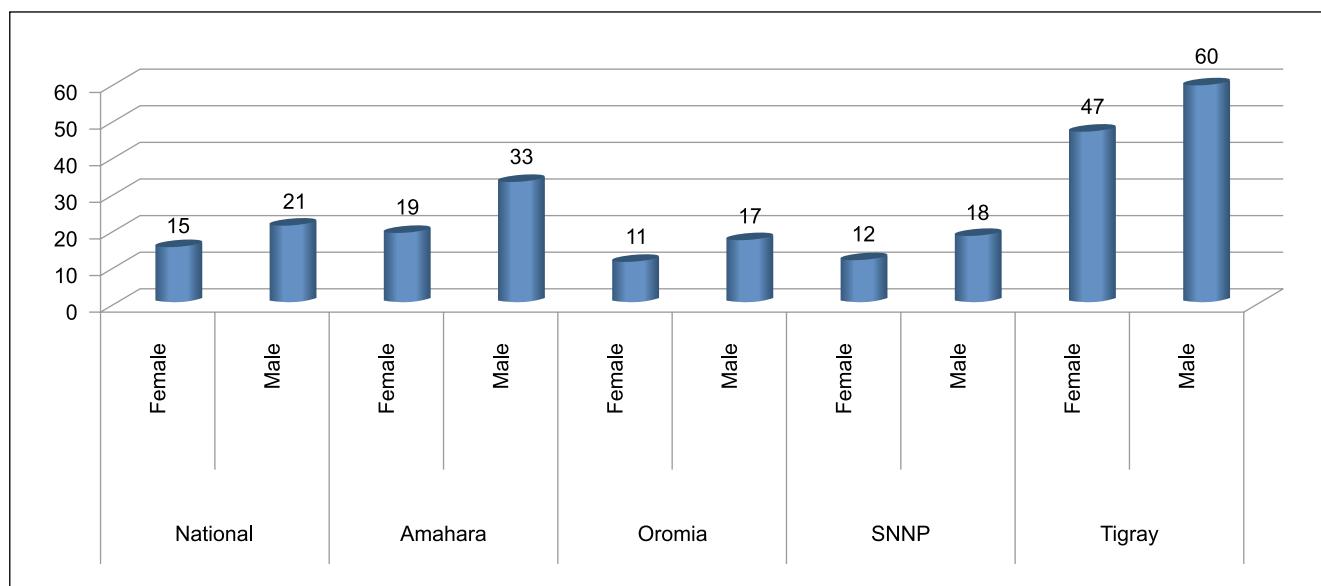
The institutions that are supposed to provide financial services in rural areas are Micro Financial Institutions (MFIs) and rural saving and credit associations (RSACCOs). Other financial institutions like commercial banks are not accessible for most rural men and women. The Microfinance Proclamation 40/1996 added the possibility for MFIs to provide deposit-taking services. Despite these efforts in March 2015, there were only 24 MFIs providing financial services in rural areas. Their penetration ratio is still low, with less than 4 percent of the national population being served. Similarly, RSACCOs, which are voluntary associations with a purpose to save and lend money to its members, remain small by international standards. Although they are growing in number, their coverage is insignificant relative to the size of the unbanked population (IFM, 2015). A study by Aregue et al found that rich and middle wealth HHs access credit from credit and savings associations, while the poor access credit through regional, zone and *woreda* agriculture offices (Aregue et al, 2010). Hence, general access in Ethiopia to credit remains the lowest among the SSA countries.

Moreover, despite this slight increase in the number of rural financial service provider institutions (micro-finance and financial cooperatives) in recent years, the use of credit generally remains low (Figure 1). At the national level, only 15 percent of female landholders and 21 percent of male landholders reported taking out

loans, even though this segment of population who own land has better access to loans as compared to the overall population. Regionally, there is significant variation, but the gender gap in credit use is substantially high across regions, and credit use is higher among male landholders than among female landholders in all regions. Among both male and female holders, the use of credit service is lowest in Oromia and highest in Tigray. The largest gender gap in credit use exists in Amhara, while the smallest gender gap is observed in Tigray.

Although there are no policy barriers to women accessing credit, most women do not hold title deeds or own assets, which limits them from accessing credit to valid collateral. Other reasons are women's limited awareness about the availability of credit, women's lack of collateral and economic stability required to access credit, and culturally a general lack of trust of women in society. With few personal assets, women are required to ask their husbands, fathers or brothers to sign for their loans and women risk losing that loan to the control of the male family member who signed (AGP-LMDP, 2013). None of the MFIs' products addresses the specific needs of poor rural women, such as credit without collaterals.

Figure 1. Percent of female and male holders using credit by region



Source: Computed from Kasa et al 2015 data.

For both female and male holders, an inability to pay previous overdue loans has been reported as the main obstacle for current limited credit uses. However, at the country level, female holders reported this reason 15 percent more often than male holders. In regions like Oromia and SNNP, lack of credit service providers and inadequate credit size are also important factors that deter farmers from using credit (Kasa et al, 2015).

3.5.6 Gender and agricultural value chains and markets

Since the value chain concept is relatively new in Ethiopia, understanding the role of men and women in the area is very important. Gender analysis and assessments are required to collect information that can aid in the facilitation of women as accepted operators in value chain activities. For the purpose of this study, four more relevant agricultural value chains, including livestock, are selected based on the relative comparative advantage of FAO in the country's agricultural development programmes. Most agricultural production is produced for consumption; for example, up to 77 percent of the crop is produced for consumption and up to 22 percent for sales. Culturally important HH resources like land, traction animals and farm implements are entitled to men, particularly in MHHs. As a result of this women have limited engagement in producing and marketing of agricultural commodities, particularly for those commodities that require resources like land and animal traction to produce. Moreover, women are also traditionally prohibited to perform cultivation using animal traction, which potentially obstructs their engagement in producing and marketing of agricultural commodities. The points in the table below are summarized from IFPRI, (2008/9); Aregu and Ranjitha ; CSA (2013); AGP-LMD (2013); SCA (2015); Kasa et al. 2015.

Table 3: Relevant agricultural value chains and role of men and women

Value chain	Description	Challenges/gender based constraints
Livestock value chain	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The participation of women across the livestock value chain is mostly at the production nodes rather than in higher nodes, at the value addition stages which is more lucrative and economically valuable. In fattening and breeding, most of the work is done by women, but they don't have control and full rights over use and sale of animals. Women are deeply involved in the rearing and fattening of small ruminants and poultry. Fattening requires women to leave the house in order to buy, sell, and market livestock, and its products. Women are thus prone to shy away from being involved in livestock fattening due to their household responsibilities and traditional restrictions on their mobilities. Women are closely engaged in dairy production and marketing of products. They are mainly responsible for the feeding and caring for dairy cows. They sell small volumes of milk and butter and control the income from the dairy products. Women are excluded from the selling and controlling of the income from small ruminants; it is men who sell and control the income, except for eggs and chicken. Traditionally women are excluded in the production and marketing of honey in many parts of the country. This is due to the means for traditional production that requires crossing the forest and the hanging of beehives on the tips of tall trees. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Lack of access to feed due to limited mobility and access to information. Limited access to high productive breeds. Limited access to infrastructure, technologies and markets. Widespread traditional practices that hamper women's control and benefit from the sector.
Fruits and vegetables value chain	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Women have a considerable contribution to the production of fruit. Fruit is usually produced for the market. There is a gender difference in the selling and controlling of the income from the sale of fruit depending on the volume of the production and mode of marketing. If the production is small-scale, women tend to sell and control the income; they usually sell at road sides and small open markets characterised by poor infrastructure and sanitary situations. When it comes to commercialised produce, the merchants tend to buy it from the farm gate and men tend to take over the marketing activities from women. The proportion of women who participated in vegetable production is lower (about a quarter) than that of males. This is because vegetable production required land and irrigation, which is usually labour and capital intensive. As a result, women farmers who own irrigated land mostly sharecrop or rent out their land. Women participation is even lower in vegetable wholesale and trade as it requires traveling long distances from production areas to central markets, dealing with transporters, brokers and buyers as well as adequate capital which women often lack. However, women are dominant in informal vegetable retail trades in towns and rural areas. Different studies show that about 90 percent of vegetable retailers are women. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Limited access to production technologies and infrastructures (irrigation) by women. Lack of storage and processing technologies. Labour and capital intensiveness and limited access to credit is particularly challenging for women.
Maize value chain	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Maize is the staple cereal crop with the highest current and potential yield from available inputs, and it plays a central role in Ethiopia's food security; Maize production activity is performed by three types of actors: subsistence farmers, market-oriented smallholders, and commercial farmers. Most women producers are expected to be in the first category, as their average land holding is less than 1 ha (Section 4. 4.12) and there is limited application of technologies (Section 4.4.9); About 8 million small holders are involved in maize production with comparable proportion of female and male participation, 58 percent and 62 percent, respectively; Maize is mostly sold by the second group of actors in maize production – market-oriented smallholder farmers – which account for roughly 40 percent of total holdings. These producers own relatively larger land (2 to 5 ha on average); 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Limited access for inputs. Inability of women to plough their plots due to prevailing traditional beliefs. Limited mobility and communication by women with male dominated traders and brokers as well as lack of capital to engage in large-scale trading.

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The value chain network functioning around smallholder farmers comprises linkage among input suppliers (private), farmers, co-operatives, extension service providers, credit service providers, and traders. Where co-operatives are well developed and organized, they tend to provide input supply and product marketing services to smallholders. Among these, not significant number of women are involved in cooperatives, input and extension service providers. But, they are more visible in maize storage like <i>dibigit making and storing and petty trade</i> to supply middlemen and small consumers at local markets. The maize marketing chain is not only long but also complex so involving in its trade requires travel for couple days and leaving home which is not convenient for women given the cultural set up and home based triple roles. 	
Teff value chain	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 5.8 million smallholders participated in teff production. However, the proportion of female holders who participate in teff production was lower with 27 percent as compared to 41 percent for male holders, due to its labour intensive nature of production for preparing fields, weeding and threshing. Since it is mostly produced for market women are marginalized from its sales and control of income as in the case of any other cash crops. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Its production is labour intensive which women lack. Widespread traditional practices that consider teff as a male product.

Studies revealed that the nature of market engagement differs significantly between women and men and is also influenced by the wealth of the household. Men from rich and middle wealth households often sell major cash crops in bulk on an intermittent basis and may travel to more distant markets to secure higher prices. They have the advantage of accessing transport to travel further afield (using cart or pack animals) and may be less pressed for time. In contrast, poorer farmers and women tend to accept prices at local markets which they can reach on foot. Women and poorer farmers are more likely to sell directly to consumers, whereas men and more wealthy households sell to private traders and cooperatives.⁵ Njuki and Sanginga found that the types of products and distance to markets can influence the level of control that women have over these products and the income derived from their sale (Njuki et al. 2011).

3.5.7 Gender and agricultural labour

Agriculture is one of the largest sources of employment for Ethiopians, until recently. In 2014, agriculture constituted 75.1 percent of the total labour force, and females comprised 45 percent of the total agricultural labour force.⁶ However, the proportion of female work contribution is found to be lower (8.5 percent) in agro-forestry and fisheries. The country is characterised by low aquaculture production, with annual 16 tonnes and average production rate of 1,951 kg/ha/year. Total employment in the fisheries and aquaculture sector was 23 365 people (89 percent male, of whom 819 men in aquaculture and 11 percent women in only the fishery sub-sector) (FAO, 2014). Furthermore, CSA data from the Labour Force Survey indicated that females constituted 32 percent of the total skilled labour in the agricultural, forestry, and fishery fields (CSA, 2013).

Occupational distribution data (disaggregated by sex) indicates that significant gender disparities and gender-biased labour market segregation still exist. Wage data also show that for the same occupation within or outside the agricultural sector, women in Ethiopia continue to earn on average less than 40 percent of what men do in paid employment. In rural areas, the wage gap between men and women grew from 43.0 percent in 2009 to 44.7 percent in 2010 (ILO, 2013).

Based on CSA data, more than half of women are nearly three times as likely as men to be unpaid for their work (30 percent compared to 9 percent), and 56 percent engaged in agricultural work are unpaid workers, most likely employed by family members at the peak of the agricultural season. Women are more likely to be paid in cash if they are employed in the non- agricultural sector, and they are also more likely to work for someone outside the family. Around 44 percent of women are self-employed (CSA, 2011).

Most of the job opportunities in the agriculture and rural sector are informal, family and/or self- employment labour. Hence, in such cases rural women and men are not entitled and cannot effectively access social security

5. Aregu.L and Puskur. R. commodity value chain development: Experiences from IPMS

6. FAOSTAT. "Ethiopia. Economic Indicators."

schemes like schemes for maternity, right to paid leave, retirement, unemployment, sickness, invalidity and old age benefits, maternity leave, job security, health and occupational safety, etc.

3.5.8 Gender and agricultural extension and rural advisory services

The government of Ethiopia adopted its ADLI policy in 1993. In the context of this strategy, the government commenced in the early 1990s a big push to disseminate agricultural packages to farmers, which included fertiliser, improved seeds, credit, and the provision of extension services. The main government institutions responsible for planning and implementing agricultural policies and projects are MoANR, and recently, MoLF at the federal level, and the corresponding regional bureaus and zonal and *woreda* offices (Mogues et al, 2009).

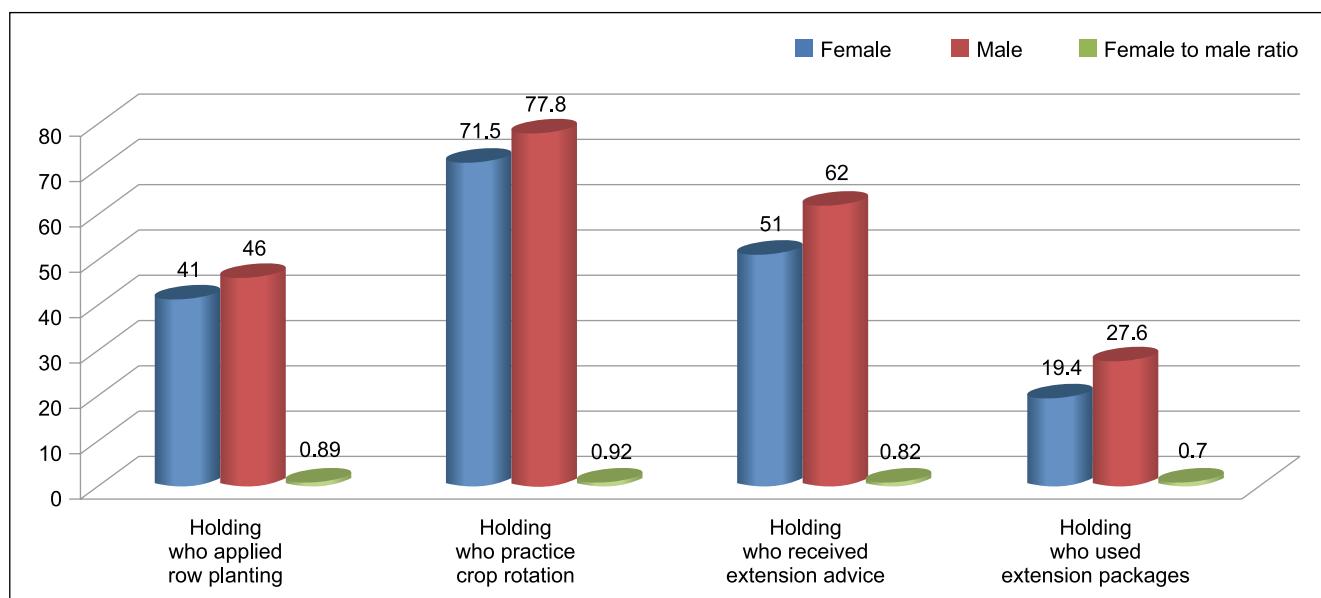
MoANR, along with similar structures from regions to *woredas*, are the fundamental providers of formal extension services to various beneficiaries at larger scales. At the grassroots (*kebele*) level, extension services are being facilitated by DAs, both male and female, even though female DAs account for only about 17 percent (MoANR and ATA, 2015).

The agricultural extension system is striving to address complicated problems of farmers and ensure improvements in their livelihoods through adopting various approaches, and the extension strategy clearly stated that 30 percent of the extension beneficiaries shall be women.

There are two categories of crop extension services: crop extension advisory services and promotion of crop technologies as a package. The main crop extension packages are improved seed and fertiliser, as well as commodity specific agronomic practices, based on recommendations from extension agents. An agriculture sample survey conducted by CSA in 2013 revealed that at the national level, on average, more than half of sample crop growers reported that they received crop production related advisory services. However, the percentage share of female holders who received such advisory services was about 13 percent lower than that of male holders who received these services (Figure 2). The same pattern of lower rates of access to advisory services among female holders was observed in all regions (SCA, 2013).

Only less than 20 percent of female holders used various crop extension packages, as compared to 28 percent male holders (Figure 2). Extension advisory services and participation rates were higher for both male and female farmers in the Tigray Region than in other regions, while use is relatively low for both male and female holders in SNNPR (Kasa et al, 2015). This could be explained by the fact that public services may be better coordinated in the Tigray Region than others.

Figure 2. Access for extension packages by gender (percent)



Source: Computed from Kasa et al. 2015 data

Another study by MoANR and Agricultural Transformation Agency (ATA) revealed a high proportion of FHHs benefited in the Tigray Region (followed by the SNNP Region), and that out of the total extension beneficiaries, 49 percent in Tigray, 35 percent in SNNPR, 15 percent in Amhara and 12 percent in Oromiya regions benefitted. (MoANR & ATA, 2015). This is partly due to the large proportion of FHHs in the Tigray Region, as well as the existence of relatively better established systems to address the gender issue.

In spite of the promising targets in the extension strategy and annual plan to increase women participation, the actual implementation has faced challenges of identifying the real problems of women and designing appropriate extension approaches that respond to their real needs and priorities. In effect, most of the rural women are not yet able to benefit from the different services given by the extension system because of their diverse roles and needs. Even though there are limited attempts made, the extension system fails to tailor its services to meet the various needs of female farmers. Some of these needs can include trainings, demonstrations, access to labour and time saving technologies, engagements in farmers groups, and access to other extension services like credit, inputs, technologies and innovations, access to market and others. Particularly, WMHHs have almost been neglected from the services. This is due to the mostly unrealistic assumption that they are represented with or addressed through their husbands. Moreover, the standard guidelines and regulations established at the national level to help promote participation of rural women in agricultural extension services has not been cascaded to lower structures, such as the regional, zonal and woreda levels (MoANR & ATA, 2010).

A sample survey by Aregue et al found that the sources of agricultural and non-agricultural information generally depend on gender differences. Men depend mainly on formal information sources while women mostly exploit informal sources of information. In addition to gender differences, wealth status also influences the kind of knowledge and sources of skill for farmers (Aregue et al, 2010). Hence, as an ATA report revealed, FHH are typically less endowed and lack access to productive resources (including credit, fertiliser, labour, technologies, animal draft and seed), manage smaller plots, seldom use rented land for production and have lower levels of market involvement. In addition, they have less participation in rural groups and less access to extension advisory services (ATA, 2015). Furthermore, Cohen and Lemma found that there are cultural barriers for male DAs in advising women farmers since local customs may prevent married women from interacting with men other than their husbands. Moreover, the extension approaches are blamed in that they do not differentiate between WMHHs on the one hand and single FHHs on the other. There are cases in which even when FHHs have access to land, they frequently lack other productive resources such as labour, oxen, and credit, making it difficult to work the land themselves and obtain inputs. As a result, they frequently must sharecrop their land, and usually do so from a weak bargaining position that results in unfavourable arrangements. Extension advice generally does not address these obstacles (Cohen & Lemma, 2011).

Another area of constraint is related to gender-orientation of extension services. Extension in Ethiopia has long focused on male farmers, in keeping with the cultural perception that “women do not farm”, a perception that ignores the wide range of agricultural activities in which women engage. Moreover, extension traditionally concentrated services on model or progressive farmers, and extension agents were evaluated on how many farmers they could get to adopt packages. Hence, they preferred to work with HH decision makers, who in MHHs are always the male (Cohen & Lemma, 2011).

Similarly a study result conducted by Ethiopian Development Research Institute (EDRI) and IFRI revealed that the education level of the head of a HH and endowment of higher proportion of male members in the FHHs significantly determine access to different types of extension services. Male heads with primary education and FHHs that are endowed with a higher proportion of male members are more likely to have DA visits, attend community meetings, and visit demonstration plots or research centres (EDRI & IFRI, 2012).

Hence, women farmers usually have limited access to extension services, advice and packages promoted by the extension system. This constrains their access to various inputs and services including knowledge, and affects their production, productivity, as well as food and nutrition security, and limits their participation in market-oriented agricultural activities. This loss in productive potential not only impacts at the HH level but also on the national economy.

3.5.9 Gender and agricultural technologies

In Ethiopia, the rate of technology adaptation and application is found to be limited as could be observed from the data. A CSA survey result indicated that most of the rural HHs own traditional farming tools such as sickle, axes, *mofer*, *kenber* and other traditional ploughs. Only very few rural HHs have modern ploughs and improved farming equipment and machineries, such as carts and water pumps (CSA, 2015). There is a growing need to introduce labour- and drudgery-saving technologies by farm family members. Some of the indicators of modern technology application are improved seeds, fertilisers, agricultural chemicals (such as herbicides, pesticides, etc.), and irrigation. However, the data indicated that most of the seeds used in major crops production were traditional (CSA, 2015). In almost all the indicators of technology and input use, female heads are less likely to use or adopt improved technologies and use less input. Plots of male heads are more likely to be applied with chemical fertiliser, improved seeds and herbicides, while plots of female heads are more likely to be applied with manure and limited improved seeds.

Only 2 percent of agricultural land is irrigated and applied with pesticide, with plots of male heads more likely to be irrigated and applied with pesticide (EDRI & IFRI, 2012). Irrigation technologies are supply driven and technically focused. Little technical consultation is done by farmers who rely on indigenous knowledge instead, and therefore have limited access to innovations.⁷ ILRI/LIVES baseline data shows that women play an indispensable role in the irrigated agriculture value chain development. They can also be leaders in small-scale irrigated agriculture in and around the homestead. About 11.3 percent and 9.4 percent of FHHs participated in vegetable and fruits irrigation production, respectively as compared to 88.7 percent and 90.6 percent of MHHs. Although both women and men benefit from improved technology availability and adoption, men tend to benefit more. Women have limited access to solutions in the form of labour-saving technologies, services and infrastructure, and in many regions they also face mobility constraints (FAO, 2015).

Aregue et al found that rates of technology uptake vary across technologies. Usually the rich and middle wealth HHs derive the most benefit from the introduction of new technologies. Adoption among poorer HHs tends to be repressed by limited access to the technology coupled with limited availability of credit, and low levels of awareness (Aregue et al, 2010).

The national Information Communication Technology (ICT) policy of Ethiopia explicitly states that it “supports the development of ICT systems and programmes that enhance the participation of women and the disabled.” However, a 2008 survey undertaken by Research ICT Africa on access and use across 17 African countries (including Ethiopia) showed that Ethiopian women’s use of mobile phones lagged behind that of men while, in the last 3 years, Ethiopia’s mobile use, including the share of female users, had grown exponentially (Bayene, 2015).

Starting and developing an agro-processing enterprise in Africa is constrained by the uncertainty that exists over access to finance, information, lack of value-adding technologies and reliable markets.

Some projects have created access for men, women and producer groups/primary cooperatives to time and energy saving technologies such as milk processing facilities and fuel saving stoves. The milk processing facilities reduce the time required to process milk by women by 75 percent, and the fuel saving stoves improves efficiency by 50 percent. As a result, the fuel-efficient stoves introduced by FAO to beneficiary HHs are now produced and sold locally by trained women beneficiaries. The production and promotion of improved fuel-efficient stoves has been seen as relieving stress on the environment, as well as saving time for women (FAO, 2011).

3.5.10 Gender and social protection

Ethiopia does not have a comprehensive and integrated social protection system. Rather, the country has an array of support mechanisms, programmes, action plans and interventions that serve a variety of social protection purposes (MOLSA, 2012).

The Social Insurance Scheme: This is a contributory pension scheme, which provides benefits in old age, invalidity, survivors and employment injury (for only 7.2 percent of the total work force who are engaged in government and parastatal institutions, both in urban and rural areas). The private and charitable

7. ILRI Workshop on Developing Policy for More Effective Management of Water and Livestock Resources for Community Based Irrigation in Ethiopia

organizations, which employ less than 1 percent of people of working age, provide some employment benefits including a contributory provident fund that employees are paid, usually at termination of employment. Other than the above schemes, almost all self employed and unemployed people have no access to any kind of formal social insurance.

The Food Security Program: This consists of the PSNP, HABP, Voluntary Resettlement Program (VRP) and the Complementary Community Investment Program (CCI). The PSNP provides 8.3 million chronically food insecure HHs in 319 *woredas* with predictable cash and/or food transfers during lean months to smooth consumption in these HHs, and protect and help them grow their assets, thus improving their resilience to shocks and resulting in their graduation from the programme (MOLSA, 2012). Women represent between 25-53 percent of the direct beneficiaries in each participating region and evaluations have confirmed that the PSNP has helped to meet women's practical gender needs such as nutrition needs for pregnant and lactating women (World Bank, 2-13).

National Nutrition Program: Since 2004, the EOS/TSF has provided a free service that aims to reduce morbidity and mortality amongst children and pregnant and lactating mothers screened for acute malnutrition. The programme has clear targets and strategies to achieve at the end of its implementation in 2015. As a strategy, it focuses on strengthening existing community structures to reach mothers and children through health posts, health extension workers, *kebeles* and CBOs.

Support to vulnerable children: The Bureaus of Labour and Social Affairs, often together with the Bureaus of Women, Children and Youth and with Women's associations manage programmes that target HHs with children who are defined as vulnerable and provide with micro credit or grants, school materials, food and shelter often coupled with training aiming at improving the livelihoods of their HHs.

Health insurance: A combination of the community-based health insurance (CBHI) and social health insurance, which was introduced just recently for workers in formal sectors, aims to cover about 50 percent of the national population by the end of the HSDPIV period (2016 -2020). CBHI mobilises and collects contributions at the community (*kebele* and *woreda*) levels from the beneficiaries and cover health treatment cost on need, with subsidy support from the national and local governments.

Disaster Risk Management (DRM): Over the last ten years, the number of people that have required support through disaster risk management actions has ranged from 1.36–13.2 million people.⁸ The actions involve food and non-food emergency resource transfers. The food transfers ensure that affected people receive more predictable and timely relief in the event of shocks. Health, nutrition, water and environmental sanitation, agriculture and livestock services make up the non-food component of the DRM actions. Women and children are believed to be more affected by disaster risks and enjoy purposeful targeting in relief interventions.

Community-based social support: In Ethiopia there are customary social security mechanisms or networks that have helped HHs to cope with various forms of hazards and risks. These institutions or networks have different names and forms in different communities and involve sharing of labour, finance, milk/dairy products, livestock, information and other resources for HHs that lost their belongings, including members of a HH through different shocks or needy individuals (FDRE, 2013). Women are active participants and beneficiaries in such community-based social supports.

3.5.11 Gender and agro-food trade

In Ethiopia both men and women are engaged in agro-food trade, however with difference in volume and scale of trade in men and women. Women often engaged in small-scale and retail agro-food trade dealing in local markets. Women often face challenges in accessing better markets for their food production when compared to men due to limited access to transport, market information and limited mobility. Women could not be away for a long time to look for better market for their products due to traditional practices that limit women movement and triple HH and community roles that women are expected to deliver. Hence, their products are marketed locally and they often get lower prices when compared with men at the farm gate.

8. DRM and Strategic Investment Prgrammme. 2014.

Furthermore, rural women are constrained in accessing market information because they have limited or no access to means of communication and technologies like mobile phones, market agents like brokers. The existing situation in agro-food trade favours men more than women to engage in wholesale trade due to limited access to financial services and traditional barriers that hinder communication with male dominated market actors. Women are more active in retail and small-scale home-based food processing such as *injera*, bread, *tella* and *areqe* and marketing, while men are more engaged in large-scale and agro-processed foods trading.

3.5.12 Gender and land and water

Land is one of the essential productive resources for agricultural production. The productivity and efficiency of the rural labour force is based on the degree of access and control over this natural resource. In Ethiopia, land and natural resources ownership is vested in the State according to Article 40 of the 1995 Federal Constitution. Citizens, both men and women have use rights and inheritance of use rights, and this include a short term lease. This has been reiterated by the Rural Land Administration Proclamation (2005). The Federal Constitution, as well as all regional land proclamations, stipulates that the existing land rights are to be granted equally to men and women. On the other, land-use rights do not include mortgage, collateral, change or exchange.

National and local institutions enforce land regulations. The federal government is responsible for enacting laws for the use and conservation of land and other natural resources. The federal MOANR has been given the responsibility to implement the Rural Land Administration Proclamation by providing professional support and coordinating the competent authorities. The ministry is also responsible for coordinating the work at the federal and regional levels in order to provide necessary inputs for further policy making. Regional governments have the duty to administer land and other natural resources in accordance with federal laws. Regional governments are also entrusted to administer land regarding “the assignment of holding rights and the execution of distribution of holdings”.

Each regional council is responsible for developing regional land proclamations and additional regulations or implementation rules to guide the relevant institutions at the regional, zonal, *woreda*, and *kebele* levels. At the local level, Land Administration Committees (LACs) have been established all over the country. They are given the responsibility to implement field-based land registration and certification(FAO, 2014). Based on the information from the same source, registration and user right certification have been introduced in four regions out of nine regional states: Tigray, Amhara, Oromya and SNNPR at different times. Other regions have yet to endorse the land reform.

FAO data on agricultural holdings indicates that a lower proportion of female agricultural holders, 19.2 percent, has agricultural resources, including land, as compared to 80.8 percent of male agricultural holders (Table 4). This pattern of agricultural holding demonstrates a gender gap in the management of agricultural holdings, identifying the extent to which women and men have the management responsibility of agricultural production resources. This incidence of land owners adds further nuance to the sex disaggregated statistics on land by showing the share of women (12 percent) out of all women and the share of men (28 percent) out of all men in the country who own agricultural land. Table 4 also provides information on how much of the land is owned individually by men (45 percent plots), and by women (15 percent), and how much is owned jointly (39 percent).

Table 4. Distribution of agricultural land by gender (2011-12)

Land	Female (sole only)	Male (sole only)	% jointly owned
Agricultural holders (%)	19.2	80.8	
Incidence of landowners (%)	12	28	50 (for female) 54 (for male)
Distribution of agricultural land area (%)	15	45	39

Source: FAO (2015) Gender and Land Data Base

The data in Table 5 below also shows that gender inequalities are evident in the management of agricultural holdings. Although Table 5 provides an overall picture of FHHs having comparably similar access to lands as

MHHs, and Table 4 demonstrates that gender disparities in agricultural land holdings are greatest when men and women are compared at individual levels, a closer look presents different perspectives. For instance, the percent HHs who rent out their land was 21 for FHHs as compared to 9.7 for MHHs, and those who rented it was 9 percent and 30 percent for FHHs and MHHs, respectively. As a result, MHHs have more fields and larger land holdings compared with FHHs. On average, MHHs cultivate about 12 fields, while FHHs cultivate nine fields. The cultivated area of land owned by MHHs is about 1 ha compared with 0.60 ha of land owned by FHHs (CSA, 2015).

Table 5. Agricultural land holders by gender

Item	FHHs	MHHs
Percent who held land	92.7	94
Average total land size (ha)	0.79	1.07
Percent who rent out their land	21.0	9.7
Percent who rent in land	9.4	29.9
Percent who acquire land by other means of tenure	2.6	6.9
Average total cultivated land holdings (ha)	0.59	1.01

Source: CSA (2015)

According to the FAO, women's rights to land were sidelined despite the legal provisions that envisage joint ownership of husbands and wives. "Moreover, widows, divorced women and polygamous wives are not taken into consideration" (FAO, 2014). Although the Constitution guarantees women's rights upon dissolution of marriage, "in reality the only way for widows or divorced women to secure their rights to land is to enter into marriage with one of their brothers-in-law". Indeed, if women return to their natal homes, they will not be provided for lands because traditional inheritance and marriage practices envisage that a woman's right to land resides with her husband in the eastern, southern and south-western parts of the country (FAO, 2014). Land reforms in the form of registration and certification which aim to improve tenure security for women are not yet fully enforced in practice; the traditional gender bias against women cultivating their own land leads single women to depend on male assistance or on renting and sharecropping their land (FAO, 2014).

Similarly, a study result by Mogues et al found that important gender asymmetries in *de facto* access to and control over land still exists. Upon forming a new HH through marriage, women bring only a negligible amount of land into the HH, and nearly all land is brought in by the male spouse, suggesting high intra HH land inequality at the initial stage of a HH. Traditionally, this inequality in land has been perpetuated later in the HH's life cycle, upon the death of the spouses' parents. Husbands nearly always inherited land when their parents died, whereas wives very rarely inherited their parents' land. However, more recently in the northern part of the country, women have regularly inherited their parents' land (Mogues et al, 2009) in the Tigray and Amhara regions. On the other hand, with the exceptions of FHHs, women in Oromiya, Gambella, Afar and the SNNP regions, have no right to own land. This is because a HH was considered as a unit for land distribution in those regions and only heads of HHs were registered as members of the peasant association (Gebrehiwot, 2007).

However, another sample survey by CRS argued that the combination of new gender-equitable constitutional rights and land registration coupled with awareness rising about gender equality and women's property rights by government and other DPs has led to some improvements in women tenure security. Now more women are able to challenge or bypass customary or religious personal law by transferring cases to civil courts; nevertheless, men are still the primary owners and women have secondary status (CRS, 2013).

Such disparity between men and women in land management, as well as the size of agricultural land holding owned has its own negative consequences in women participation and their agricultural production as well as their food and nutrition security, as discussed in the following subsection.

The overall land mass of the country is hydrologically divided into 12 basins. Eight of these are river basins, one lake basin and three dry basins, with no or insignificant flow out of the drainage system. The rainfall varies from about 3000 mm/annum at Masha in the Baro-Akobo Basin to barely 200 mm/annum along the Ethio-Djibouti and Ethio-Somali Border in the Ogaden and Aysha Basins. The complex interaction between the climate, biophysical and socio-economic characteristics of Ethiopia resulted in important features of the

basins, such as the high level of spatial and temporal variability of flow, enormous turbidity, and tremendous potential for hydropower in the highlands and irrigation in the lowlands and sceneries along the major gorges (Mekuria et al, 2015). Women, however, have limited access, control, and voice over these water resources as described in Section 4.5.9.

3.5.13 Gender and crop production

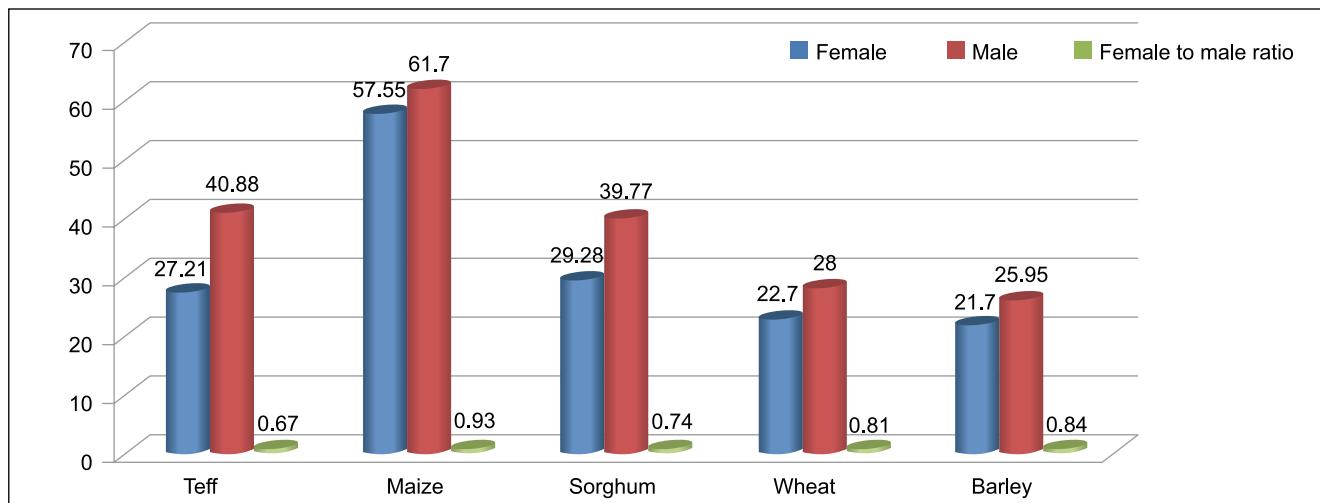
a. Gender and cereal crops production

About 12 million smallholder farmers produce around 95 percent of agriculture production, with more than half of them holding 1 ha or less of land. The main crops include coffee, cereals, maize, sorghum, wheat, barley and millet. According to the FAO, cereals production accounts for about 70 percent of the agricultural GDP (FAO, 2014). Cereals account for 71 percent of the total area cultivated and 66 percent of the total crop production during the 2012/13 *meher* season (CSA, 2013).

The CSA data shows that in Ethiopia mainly five major cereal crops are produced, 55-77 percent are used for HH consumption but they sell between 7-22 percent of crop produced. This composition varies by crop type. Farm HHs tend to sell more of high value crops such as teff, and consume more of low value cereal crops such as sorghum and maize (CSA, 2015).

Both male and female holders participate in cereals production. However, the percentage share of female holders who participated in cereal production is, on average, lower than the percentage of male holders who engage in this activity as indicated in Figure 3 below. In general, cereals are mostly field crops unlike other crops grown on homesteads; as a result, cultivating cereal crops by female holders may not be convenient vis-à-vis their busy domestic work (Kasa et al, 2015). For example, the proportion of female holders who participate in teff production was lower with 27 percent as compared to 41 percent male holders. This may be attributed to, as Kasa et al found, higher labour requirements for teff, including land preparation, weed management, and other agronomic practices. The proportion of female holders who are involved in wheat and barley production was lower than their male counter parts and this also may be attributed to use of the crops for marketing rather than HH consumption.

Figure 3. Cereal crops production participation by gender (percent)



Sources: Computed from CSA (2013) and Kasa et al (2015) data

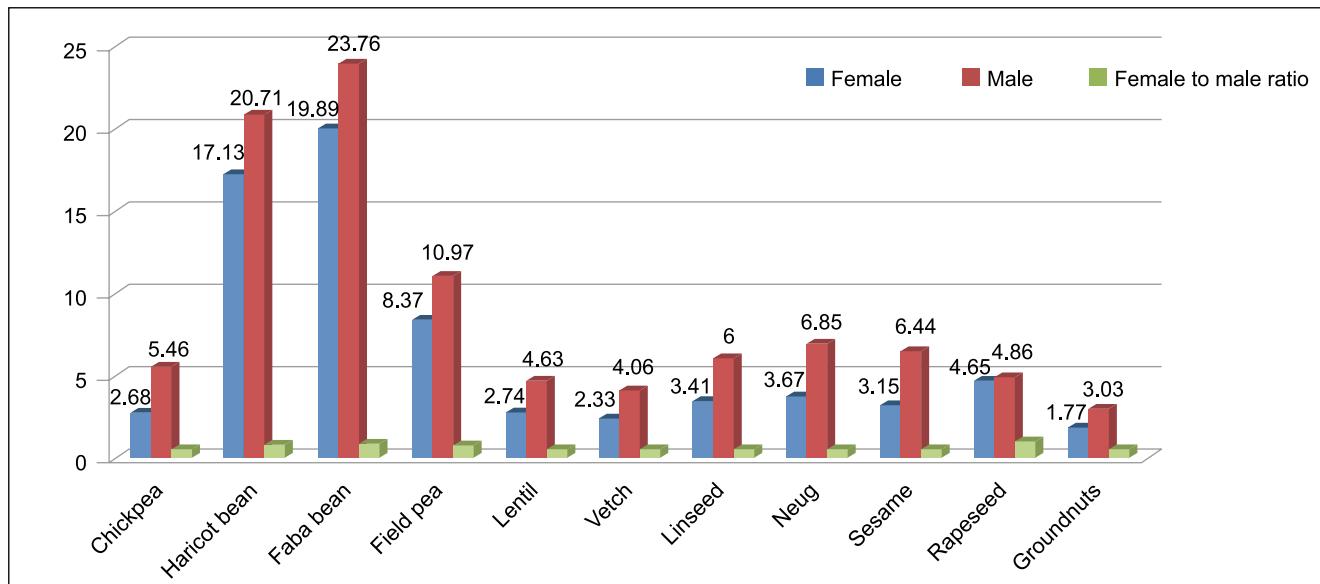
b. Gender and pulse and oil crops production

Pulse crops are the second most widely cultivated crops in terms of area coverage and output, with 14 percent of the total crop cultivated area and 9 percent of the total crop output value harvested in 2012/13 *meher* season. Oil crops accounted for 6 percent of the total crop cultivated area and 2.5 percent of the total crop output. Pulse crops significantly contribute to smallholders' income as a high-value crop besides food consumption. In terms of exports, they are the fourth largest export crop after coffee, oilseeds, and flowers, accounting for about a 7 percent share in total export earnings. Oil crops are produced mostly for domestic

market, as well as export. Accordingly, it was the second highest in export earnings next to coffee, accounting for approximately 16 percent of total export earnings (EEA, 2012).

However, the proportion of female holders who participated in pulse and oil crops production on average is relatively lower than the male counterparts; similar to patterns observed for cereals, Even the gender gap is wider for pulse and oil crops production with an average value of 0.66 for female to male ratio, as compared to the average 0.80 female to male ratio for cereal crops. This is consistent with Aregue et al finding that women's preferences for crop varieties differ from that of men in Ethiopia, and that women tend to produce types or varieties that are mainly used for domestic consumption (Aregue et al, 2010). Furthermore, the largest and the least gender gaps were observed in the Amhara and Tigray regions respectively.

Figure 4. Pulse and oil crops production participation by gender (percent)



Sources: Computed from CSA (2013) and Kasa et al (2015) data

c. Gender and fruits and vegetables production

Vegetables covered 1.4 percent of the total cultivated area and accounted for 3 percent of the total crop output value in the country in the 2012/13 *meher* season. This reflects that vegetable production is not common among most rural farm HHs. Most of the vegetables are produced in peri-urban areas. Green and red peppers, Ethiopian cabbage, and tomatoes are the dominant vegetables grown in the country.

Like in the case of other crops, the percentage share of male holders who participate in the production of vegetables is relatively higher than the share of female holders. However, the gender gap in this case is much narrower than in other crops, with an average female to male ratio of 0.77 as indicated in Table 6 below. This is mainly due to the fact that most vegetables produced by the smallholders are cultivated at the homesteads. It is also in conformity with several other studies that label vegetables as female friendly crops. The exceptional case observed in this data is the red pepper, with a female to male gap ratio of 0.66 which is significantly greater than the same average ratio for the other vegetable crops. This fact implies that red pepper production is the most commercialised.

Fruit production accounted for 0.5 percent of total farmland and 1.6 percent share of the total crop production. The proportion of female holders who produce fruit is lower, on average, than the share of male holders producing fruits. But the gender gap in this case is even narrower than in the case of vegetables, with a female to male average ratio of 0.91. In SNNPR female holders are more likely than male holders to produce both oranges and avocados. At the national level, avocado is exceptional as indicated in Table 6 below, in which the rate of participation by female holders was greater than male holders. Within the fruit crops there has been a larger gender gap in banana and orange production as compared to other fruit crops, which may be related to their volume of production and level of commercialisation as these entail male domination.

Table 6. Vegetables and fruits production participation by gender (percent)

Vegetable type	Female	Male	Female to male ratio
Green pepper	6.53	7.75	0.84
Cabbage	2.42	3.03	0.80
Tomato	1.4	1.78	0.79
Red pepper	9.57	14.44	0.66
Banana	14	16.31	0.86
Mango	7.62	8.06	0.95
Papaya	4.72	5.49	0.86
Orange	2.78	3.35	0.83
Avocado	8.24	7.89	1.04

Sources: Computed from CSA (2013) and Kasa et al (2015) data

A study by EDRI and IFRI revealed that on average, the value of production per hectare of farming HHs was 10 942 Birr. FHHs have significantly less value of production (mean = 9 898 Birr/ha) than MHHs (mean = 11 273 Birr/ha). This is attributable to significant gender differences in crop choice. Female heads are significantly more likely to grow crops mostly used for HH consumption such as maize, enset, potatoes and fruits; while male heads are more likely to grow mostly cash crops like teff and pulses for sales (EDRI & IFRI, 2012).

d. Access to draught power and agricultural inputs by gender

In Ethiopian smallholder agriculture, draught animals, especially oxen, are the principal source of power for pulling ploughing tools during land preparation, threshing and transporting of crops during harvest. Traditionally a pair of oxen is used for pulling ploughing tools and carts for transporting. As indicated in Table 7 below, there is a large gender gap in owning this decisive asset: only about 42 percent female owned one or more ox(en) as compared to 74 percent for their male counter parts.

Although the use of improved seeds has been promoted for the last couple of decades in the country, the rate of application for improved seed, in general, remains low. Further, the percentage of female holders who applied improved seed was 11 percent, which is lower when compared to 16 percent for male holders in the 2012/13 *meher* season (Table 7).

Table 7. Access for draught power and agricultural inputs by gender (percent)

Type technology	Female	Male	Female to male ratio
Have one ox only	14.9	21.5	0.69
Have more than one ox	27.2	52.2	0.52
Have two or more oxen	12.3	30.7	0.40
Improved seeds	10.63	16.1	0.66
Chemical fertilizers	49.61	58.18	0.85
Irrigation scheme	5.32	7.95	0.67

Sources: Computed from CSA (2013) and Kasa et al (2015) data

The proportion of female holders who applied chemical fertilisers was about 50 percent as compared to 58 percent for their male counterparts. Regionally, both male and female holders in Tigray have the highest fertilizer application rates and volumes.

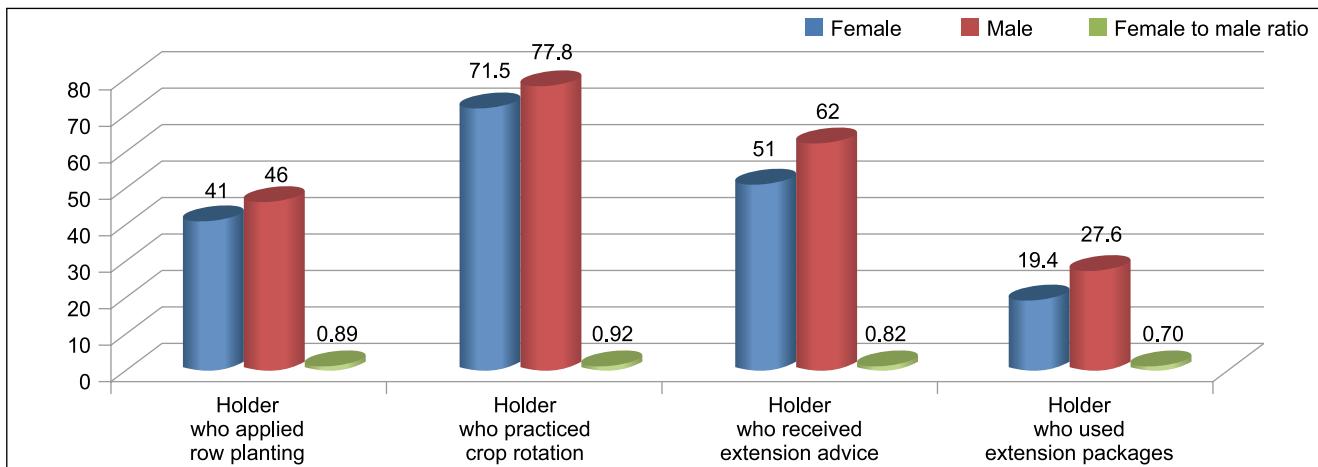
There is also a high need to irrigate crop production, mostly characterised by rain-fed agriculture. Despite this need the use of irrigation by smallholder farmers in Ethiopia during the 2012/13 *meher* crop production season was below 10 percent. Moreover, the proportion of female holders who use irrigation was 5 percent as compared to 8 percent for male holders. The proportion of both male and female holders who use irrigation is highest in Tigray, followed by Amhara and Oromia (Kasa et al 2015).

e. Gender and some agronomic practices

Existing gender disparities are seen in applying some common agronomic practices. These include access to crop production advisory services, use of crop extension packages, and application of good practices such as

row planting and crop rotation. As indicated in Figure 5, the percentage share of female holders who received extension advisory services was 51 percent as compared to 62 percent for male holders. The same pattern of lower rates in extension package utilisation was observed with 19 percent for female holders as compared to 28 percent male holders who used the package. Moreover, 41 percent of female holders and 46 percent of male holders use row planting. The difference is statistically significant. The low rate of application of row planting by female holders could be attributed to its relatively higher labour demand (Vandercasteelen et al, 2014). Furthermore, women do not plough the land due to customary gender roles although they have access to land and draught power in terms of ownership

Figure 5. Application of some agronomic practices by gender



Sources: Sources: Computed from CSA (2013) and Kasa et al (2015) data

Therefore, such limited usage by women of extension packages and productive assets like agricultural inputs (such as improved seeds and agri-chemicals) and draught power (oxen) as seen above, coupled with limited access to agricultural technologies as well as credit and extension services, as already indicated in the sections 4.5.5 and 4.5.8, respectively has a negative impact on their production and productivity. In this regard, the ATA report on GTPI revealed that Ethiopian female farmers produce on average 23 percent less than their male counterparts. Those women's constraints have resulted from cultural norms and practices and have a negative impact on their engagement in the agricultural sector (ATA, 2015). In addition, women are forced to rent their land or give out to share croppers at a share of only 30 to 50 percent of the products (Gebrehiwot, 2007). A report by the FAO argues that if women were to have access to the same level of resources as men, agricultural productivity would go up by upto 30 percent and agricultural output would increase by up to 4 percent (FAO, 2011).

3.5.14 Gender and livestock

Ethiopia is believed to have the largest livestock population in Africa. The country has an estimated cattle population of 53.4 million, including 10.7 million dairy cows, 25.5 million sheep, 22.9 million goats, 6.2 million donkeys, 2 million horses, 1.1 million camels, 49.3 million poultry, and 5.1 million beehives. Almost all cattle, sheep and goats are indigenous breeds with low productivity (CSA, 2010/11). Aregue et al found that both men and women in Ethiopia prefer local dairy cattle and small ruminants for fattening because of their low feed requirements and high adaptability (Aregue et al, 2010).

This livestock sector has been contributing a considerable portion to the economy of the country. It is eminent that livestock products and by-products in the form of meat, milk, honey, eggs, cheese and butter, etc. provide the needed animal proteins that contribute to the improvement of the nutritional status of people. Livestock also plays an important role in providing export commodities, such as live animals, hides and skins to earn foreign exchange to the country. On the other hand, draught animals provide power for cultivation, crop threshing, and for human and goods transport. Furthermore, livestock provide manure to improve soil fertility and which is also used as a source of energy such as animal dung and biogas (CSA, 2010/11). The livestock sub-sector accounts for 16.5 percent of the national GDP, 35.6 percent of agricultural GDP, and 16 percent of the national foreign currency earning (MoFED & MoA, 2011).

In general, the proportion of female holders participating in some form of livestock production is about 4-5 percent lower than the share of male holders participating in these activities. There is a clear gender disparity in cattle ownership, with a female to male ratio of 0.73 in the average size of livestock holding (Table 8). The number of total livestock (measured in Tropical Livestock Units (TLU)), owned by female holders, was found to be about 25 percent less than the number owned by male holders. The differences varied among regions, highest in the Tigray Region with women holders about 30 percent less likely to own cattle, while the gap is less with only about six percentage point differential in SNNPR.

Table 8. Livestock ownership by gender

Livestock type	Female (%)	Male (%)	Female to male ratio
Involved in livestock raising	90.22	95.26	0.95
Size of livestock (TLU)	3.12	4.28	0.73
Owned cattle	65.42	81.3	0.80
Number of cattle owned	4	5	0.80
Owned goat	25.4	33	0.77
Number of goat owned	7	7.5	0.93
Owned sheep	31	36	0.86
Number of sheep owned	4.7	5.5	0.85
Owned poultry	50.6	58	0.87
Number of poultry owned	5.6	6	0.93
Owned honeybees	3.5	10.6	0.33
Number of honeybee colonies	3	5	0.60

Sources: Computed from CSA (2013) data

Goats and sheep are the main source of cash earnings or income for a considerable number of rural farm HHs, particularly during crop failure and off harvest seasons. Traditionally it was believed that small ruminants were considered the female domain. However, on average, the proportion of female holders who owned sheep was less than that of male holders with a female to male ratio of 0.85. Similarly the proportion of female goat holders is less than that of male holders with a female to male ratio of 0.77. When compared, the gender gap observed in the case of goats' ownership was greater than the gender gap in the case of cattle. The gender gap was found to be highest in the Amhara region, and lowest in the Tigray region for sheep. In the case of goats, the gender gap was highest in the Tigray but lowest in the Oromia region (Kasa et al, 2015).

As it is generally believed that poultry production is in the female domain, the results in Table 8 above indicate that despite a relatively higher proportion of male holders, 58 percent and 51 percent female holders are involved in poultry production. The gender gap in the number of poultry owned by both females and males was significantly lower when compared with cattle and small ruminants.

Njuki and Singinga found that women were more likely to be considered the owners of small livestock compared to larger livestock, and to have a say in the disposal and sale of their livestock and its by-products, and in the use of income accrued from the sales. Despite their significant roles in livestock production, women's control over produce has gradually declined. Productivity has increased and more and more products (including dairy) have been marketed through organized groups such as cooperatives, whose membership is predominantly male (Njuki & singinga, 2013). This phenomenon is especially prominent in the areas of the country where livestock production is commercialised.

The largest gender disparity in favour of the male was observed in the case of honeybee colony ownership. The proportion of male holders who own honeybee colonies was about three times the number of female holders, with a female to male ratio of 0.33 (Table 8). There was also a significant gender gap in the number of bee colonies owned by female and male holders, with a female to male ratio of 0.60. However, when we look at the ownership of female and male for modern beehives, the survey result showed that female holders have a relatively higher proportion of modern beehives in most regions (CSA, 2013). This could be attributed to the convenience of modern beehives for female homestead management in contrast to the traditional ones. The latter are believed to be difficult for female management from a cultural and physical point of view; since their management includes heavy physical tasks like climbing on tall trees to put on and off beehives. The

higher proportion of female ownership for modern beehives also indicates the existence of project support targeting women (CSA, 2013).

Milk and dairy production are crucial for the daily food and nutrition security of rural families throughout the country. They are a vital source of nutrition and provide important livelihood opportunities for dairy farmers, processors, transporters, retailers and other dairy value chain actors. Women in Ethiopia play a significant role in activities related to animal husbandry and dairy production. However, their participation is commonly concentrated at the production level, in less profitable activities than those of men. They often remain excluded from the decision-making processes and governance structures of dairy value chains (FAO, 2017).

Regarding animal health protection, taking animals to health posts and giving drugs for the sick is mostly the men's role, but women take the responsibility in the absence of men. Women are more active in identifying and caring for the sick animals. Although access to health services is generally limited for both men and women, women particularly have limited access to these services due to limited mobility and remoteness of the service centres. As rural women tend to take care of the daily cattle management as well as the milking and processing of dairy products, rural women could play a complementary role as regards the monitoring and control of livestock diseases, if they are empowered and trained on how to identify and prevent diseases, as well as provided with improved technologies and husbandry practices for animal health (FAO, 2014).

3.5.15 Gender and fisheries

Ethiopia has a potential of producing over 51 500 tonnes of fish per annum. However, their exploitation and consequently, contributions of the fishery sector to food security and growth in the country are minimal despite the available technologies to resolve the problems of fisheries production. Freshwater fishery is one of the most important economic activities in Ethiopia (FAO, 2012).

The inland water body of Ethiopia is estimated to encompass about 7 400 km² of lake area and a total river length of about 7 000 km. The water bodies support a diverse aquatic life including more than 180 fish species, of which about 40 are endemic. However, as is the case of many other countries in the world, population rise, urbanisation, agricultural development, industrialisation and other water resource development activities have resulted in a decrease in the species diversity of freshwater fish species (FAO, 2012). Improvements in the fishery sector would contribute not only to poverty alleviation but also to environmental sustainability in Ethiopia (FAO, 2012).

Fish has a long history in Ethiopia as a source of human food. People consume large amount of fish on fasting days, in big cities, around production areas and towns, around lakes and in Addis Ababa. Outside these areas, however, the domestic market for fish is small.

Gross Production Values (GPV) by the fishing subsector was US\$106 201 521 and the contribution of fishing to the GDP was 0.34 percent. The total employment opportunities created in fisheries in Ethiopia constituted 22 546 people; from these fishers constitute 1 026 (99 percent male and 1 percent female). Most of the produced fish is sold fresh (worth US\$76 974 403) but a significant proportion (US\$19 414 408) is artisanal fish processing. The processing created a total of 21 520 jobs (88.4 percent male and 11.6 percent female) with a better participation of women than male fishers, as they play a major role in food processing in general (FAO, 2014).

Fishermen around Lakes Zeway, Chamo and Abay practice fish drying where they are unable to sell their catch in fresh form. Currying fish by salting is not popular in inland fishing, mainly due to lack of knowledge on storage and salt currying. Fish smoking is also not popular in the country. However, the Zeway Fishery Research Centre has recently started smoking tilapia on an experimental basis to diversify the fish market in the country. Canning of fish has recently been started by an Ethiopian Meat Concentration Factory (Lemma & getahun, 2011).

3.5.16 Gender and forestry

The 1995 Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia (FDRE) Constitution provides the basic and comprehensive principles and guidelines for natural resources management and environmental protection. The Constitution declared that all land including natural resources and forests is the common property of the state, and

nations, nationalities and peoples of Ethiopia and shall not be subject to sale or to other means of exchange and those individuals shall have only usufruct right. The rural land administration proclamation that was enacted in 1997, and revised in 2005, also made it clear that land rights remain under the government. With respect to use, transfer, administration and control of land, women legally have equal access as men to benefit from natural resources, including forest resources.

Forests and woodlands are used for various purposes in Ethiopia. Forests supply goods of commercial, cultural and sacred values and they comprise a vital safety net in times of need. About 96 percent of fuel consumption in Ethiopia comes from biomass fuels, mainly from woody biomass. Wood is also used as poles and as industrial timber, whose demand is expanding with increased population. Other uses include incense, myrrh and gums as non-timber forestry products, grazing places for livestock especially during the dry season, medicinal plants, sanctuary for wildlife, protection of soil from water and wind erosion, improvement in agricultural productivity through farm forestry, integration of ecosystems and water regimes, and foraging for honey bees. Some important species such as korerima (*Aframomum korarima*) and (wild) coffee are also produced in the forest (Gurmessa, 2015). Carbon sequestration with an estimated carbon stock of 0.6-2 billion tons in 2005 further increases the contribution of forests (Gebrehiwot, 2007).

Excluding a number of non-marketed contributions of forest resources to output and employment, their contribution is estimated at about 5 percent of the GDP and about 2.2 percent of employment of the total labour force in 2006 (Gebrehiwot, 2007).

Regarding the forest area in the country, the forest coverage has been alarmingly decreasing. The current coverage is less than 12 percent; and this number is significantly low when we compare it with the world and Sub-Saharan Africa average forest cover: about 30 percent and 27.3 percent of total land area, respectively (World Bank, 2012). As noted by the FAO, the current demographic and socio-economic conditions have led to an unprecedented pressure on the remaining mountain forest ecosystems.

Taking this degradation into consideration, forestry and watershed development programmes are currently carried out as public works through government funding and government-led campaigns that mobilise rural HHs outside of their normal agricultural activities. GTPII (2016-2020) has also paid attention to the initial assessment and identification of key systemic bottlenecks in the sub-sector, with a particular focus on income generation and incentive mechanisms (including the development of value chains for non-timber forestry products) to promote private investments in watershed and forestry development (ATA, 2015).

Men and women have different interactions with the use and benefit of forest resources as they have different assets and access to forest resource opportunities. The CSA data indicated that the proportion of field allocation for forests was different between MHHs and FHHs: 3.1% and 2.6%, respectively (CSA, 2015). However, Ethiopian women have traditionally benefited from forest resources for HH consumption and income generation to secure their livelihoods. Forest resources remain a great source of independent income generation sources for women forming part of their "safety net" strategy (Gebrehiwot, 2007). 41 percent of urban energy use is obtained from purchased firewood, while rural HHs obtain 76 percent of their energy sources from collected firewood (Gebrehiwot, 2007). For example, a fuel wood market survey by the Green Hawassa project showed that more than 97 percent of fuel wood supply of the Wosha, Shashemene and Hawassa markets are sold by women living in the surrounding rural forest area. This case study implicitly confirmed that the rural women contribute a high annual income to improving the livelihood of the HH in particular, and the community in general from fuel wood and other minor forest products. Some of the minor forest products that are mainly collected by females and children include gum and incense, which contributes to about a half of the officially traded products in volume for rural HHs. They also play an economically significant role at the HH and the community levels in the northern and southern woodlands of the country. As described in the Forestry Society of Ethiopia (2002), in the Amhara, Oromia and Somali Regions, the cleaning and grading process of gum is carried out by women, and the 1999 harvest amounted to 7,000 MT and nearly 3 million Birr (US\$357 142) was paid to harvesters and cleaners. However, the role of forest products in the rural community and the gender-based roles in its production are poorly documented.

Furthermore, forests provide other major sources of income for rural women in Ethiopia. What they extract from the forest is processed and marketed to bring supplementary cash for the HHs. As a result, thousands of farming communities in rural areas depend on forest harvesting employment as an important additional source of income during the seasonal agricultural cycle. In addition, wood industries and forest enterprises pay these people a reasonable amount in salary and wages. Seasonal working activities in the forest, such as planting, weeding and tending operations, among others, also provide employment for a large number of community members in the rural areas, including rural women. Although there are few reliable statistics, it is estimated that most of the employees for seedling production and tree nursery activities, such as pot filling, transplanting, weeding, watering, and planting, are women, while sawmilling, logging, loading and unloading activities are for men.

Water and fuel wood collection is mainly carried out by the female members of the HH. About 54 percent of female HH members spend some time collecting fuel wood or water to the HH on a daily basis. They work for between 10–12 hours per day, half of which is spent on HH tasks such as fetching water and firewood, preparing and cooking food, and caring for children (Aregue et al, 2010). On the other hand, only 22 percent of male members reported spending time on fuel and water collection for the HH. The gender difference holds true in all regions as well as in rural, small town and large town areas. In addition, the economically active female group (aged 15–64 years) is more likely (59 percent) to work on these activities than the other groups. This statistic is also significantly greater than the male group (18 percent) of the same age group (CSA, 2015). The gender difference holds true in all regions as well as in rural, small town and large town areas.

Rural women are the main group of society affected by deforestation and forest degradation. Because, deforestation reduces access to forest products that are required on a daily basis, it adds to the drudgery of women who are forced to cover long distances and spend more time in fetching fuel wood and other forest products.



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Cooperative members making baskets and mats from the harvest of the date palm, which they sell to the local market.

3.5.17 Gender and climate change

Communities in Ethiopia are vastly dependent on natural resources but highly differentiated in terms of access to resources, their vulnerability and adaptive capacity. With 80 percent of farmers dependent on rain-fed agriculture, rural communities are particularly vulnerable to weather-related shocks. Rain falls vary greatly by region and are also unpredictable (World Bank, 2013). The southern and eastern lowlands of the country are among the country's most vulnerable regions to the impacts of climate change. Recurrent droughts, flash floods, and pest and disease outbreaks are among the prevalent disaster risks related to climate change in these areas. Pastoral communities are the major victims of these disaster risks.

In 2007, the government of Ethiopia developed the country's National Adaptation Plan of Action (NAPA) as per Article 4.9 of the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC), which encouraged the governments of highly indebted poor countries to draw a plan of action for adaptation to protect against climate change vulnerabilities. Other policies, strategies and programmes put in place by the GoE include PASDEP, the Environmental Policy of Ethiopia, and the Agriculture and Rural Development Policy and Strategy. However, the NAPA remains Ethiopia's sole document addressing identification of its adaptation priority in light of the country's low adaptive capacity. While it speaks to the main climate change challenges facing the country, the plan of action lacks gender-based constraints (African Feminism, 2011). The gender dimension of climate change impact has largely been neglected in the design and implementation of national adaptation policies and strategies.

The consequences of climate change are greatly seen in poor communities in which the most vulnerable of the population are women. This vulnerability emanates from socio-economic disparities that exist between men and women (African Feminism, 2011). Furthermore, recent evidence shows that poverty is higher among women, and wide-spread among FHHs (Amsalu et al, 2013). This is partly explained by women's comparatively limited access to productive assets including land, technology and credit, as well as limited access to decision-making processes. Gender differences in property rights and in issues related to access to information and different cultural, social and economic roles for men and women, means that climate change is likely to affect them differently (African Development Forum, 2010). When severe drought occurs, men travel long distances in search of water and pasture for the cattle, leaving children and women back at home. This leaves women with the burden of taking care of children, the elderly and the sick, as well as the cattle, single handedly. The situation also entails that women march in search of fuel, fodder and water, to ensure availability of food for family (Amsalu et al, 2013).

The preservation of a healthy and functioning ecosystem is therefore critical to the country's well being generally, but also specifically to Ethiopian women's safety, and the socio-economic and spiritual dimensions of their existence.

3.5.18 Gender and disaster risk reduction and management

Ethiopia has a long record history of disasters, both of natural and anthropogenic origins. The country is vulnerable to disasters caused by drought, flood, war and conflict, human and livestock diseases, pests, wildfire, landslides, and earthquakes amongst others. Recurrent droughts and floods, in particular, have the most severe impact on people's lives and livelihoods. The country's severe vulnerability to such hazards is due to a number of interlinked factors that include dependence on rain-fed agriculture, underdevelopment of water resources, land degradation, low economic development and weak institutions. Recent experience shows a marked increase in flood disaster in area coverage and frequency of such disasters (climate change and associated risks).⁹

The DRM policy recognised that women, children, the elderly, people with disabilities, and people living with HIV/AIDS are the most vulnerable to the impact of hazards and related disasters; DRM activities should be implemented by taking into consideration this objective reality.

The National Policy and Strategy on DRM aims to reduce disaster risks and the impacts of disasters through the establishment of a comprehensive and integrated DRM system. It recognises that focusing on proactive

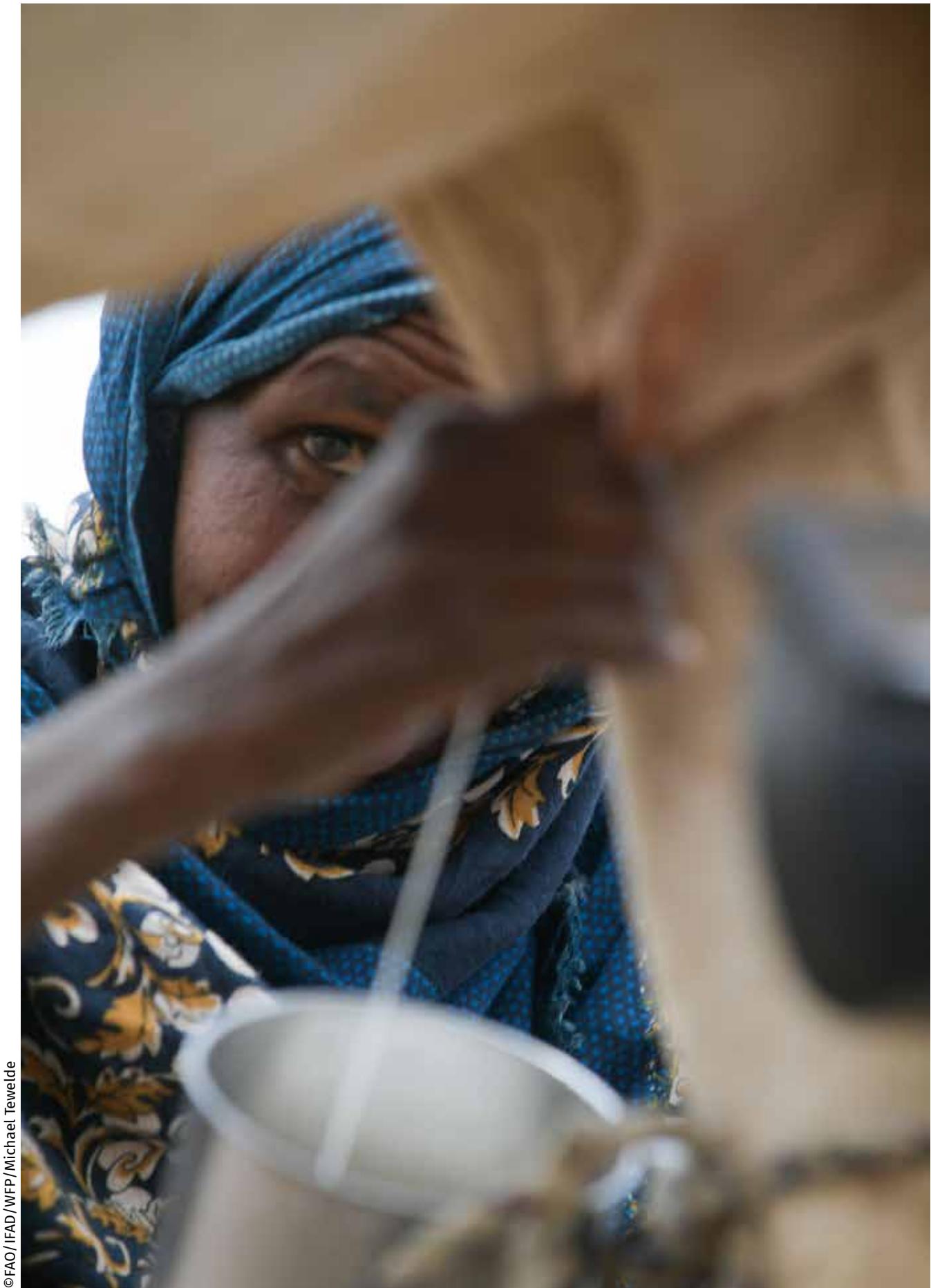
9. MoARD DRM Strategic Programme and Investment Framework

measures, establishing a culture of risk reduction in regular development programmes, and addressing the underlying causes of recurrent disasters, reduce disaster risks and vulnerability that hinder development.

The actions involve food and non-food emergency resource transfers. The food transfers ensure that affected people receive more predictable and timely relief in the event of shocks. Health, nutrition, water, environmental sanitation, agriculture and livestock services make up the non-food component of the DRM actions. DRM also supports early warning, contingency planning and financing, and strengthening institutional arrangements and capacity. There has been a recent shift in approaches to managing disaster, towards a multisectoral and multi-hazard focused disaster risk reduction strategy (MOLSA, 2012). Although disasters affect the vulnerable (implying women and children are likely to be most severely affected), gender-based constraints are not fully considered in emergency activities and life saving, and most stakeholders argue that it requires time and strategic thinking and planning.

3.5.19 Gender and rural infrastructure

Women's use of railroads and other transportation infrastructure and women's access to electricity are not well understood due to scarce sex-disaggregated data. Some studies of women's energy use show, however, that women, especially rural women, bear the overwhelming burden of domestic responsibilities, including the gathering of energy sources such as firewood. The lack of access to resources such as energy has implications for women's lives, including whether or not they have time to participate in productive activities. Rural women were at a distinct disadvantage as only 8 percent of rural HHs used electricity as compared to 90 percent of urban HHs (MOLSA, 2012).



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FAO supported animal fodder and restocking project Human and Animal Health Post.

4. Stakeholders analysis

The UN agencies meet as the United Nations Country Team (UNCT) to discuss gender issues in the framework of the UNDAF and report to CEDAW. They work in close collaboration with sector ministries in their respective areas of interest and gender machineries at the national and local levels. The UNCT has overall responsibility for ensuring the accountability and harmonisation of the Joint Programme within its strategic policy and priority setting as reflected in the UNDAF. The Technical Working Group (TWG) is an emanation of the UNDAF Pillar 4 and it allows for a representation of the agencies directly engaged in programme implementation. Pillar 4 focuses on support to women, youth and children- more specifically, on access to markets, financial resources, training and education, and gender based violence.

Furthermore, there are also thematic working groups on early marriage, violence against women and children, and FGM. These are networks of all stakeholders working in thematic areas and comprise public organizations, CSOs, UN agencies, and other actors. These platforms are important as they provide for sharing lessons and meeting and defining areas of collaboration.

The Gender Joint Programme TWG, as well as other bilateral and multilateral organizations and NGOs are actual and potential partners for FAO in its gender equality and women empowerment endeavours.

The primary responsibilities of the TWG include the following:

- Provide a coherent and comprehensive ‘unity of purpose’ for the UN system in Ethiopia with respect to gender programming;
- Ensure greater focus and efficiency in support of Ethiopia’s national policies and strategies for gender: making the most of the UN’s comparative advantage, added value and mandate in support of evidence-based responses;
- Provide greater consistency and efficiency in assigned points of first response and clear division of labour; ‘speaking with one voice’ and reducing duplication and fragmentation with respect to gender programming;
- Ensure comprehensive gender programming within the UN system in Ethiopia with clear focus on ‘results’, planning, management and reporting;
- Advocate for, monitor and report on greater accountability within the UN and its partners for achieving the promises made by governments and partners – the SDGs, CEDAW, etc.;
- Design, facilitate and ensure operational co-ordination for the effective implementation of the joint programme on Gender Equality and Women’s Empowerment;
- Constitute an entry point for national stakeholders to access gender related technical assistance from the UN system.

Possible collaboration areas with the UNCT Gender Group members and other bilateral and multilateral organizations, and NGOs are presented in Table 9 below.

Table 9: Gender related works and areas of collaboration with relevant partners

Agency	Initiatives on gender	Areas for strengthened collaboration between FAO and relevant partners
A. UN agencies		
ILO	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Implements the UN JP GEWE (2012-2015): Ethiopia Joint Programme on Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment: Phase II,) with six other UN agencies (UNDP, UNESCO, UNICEF, UNWOMEN, UNFPA, and the UNCT; Carries out innovative awareness raising and alternative livelihoods strategies among communities at risk , with a view to preventing exploitation in the outset; Has prepared an Action Plan (2016-17) for Gender Equality with the aim of supporting effective and inclusive gender-responsive delivery of the Decent Work Agenda, and Provides capacity building training that equips stakeholders with the knowledge that will enable them to use international labour law sources at national level. 	FAO can collaborate with the ILO in promoting and supporting a decent work agenda for both rural men and women, and gender equality and rural women empowerment through creating access to productive resources, information and technologies of food and agricultural sectors, and alternative off-farm income generating activities for women.
UNDP	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Implementing the UN JP GEWE (2012-2015) Phase II,) with six other UN agencies (UNESCO, UNICEF, UNWOMEN, UNFPA, ILO and the UNCT) in order to support national policy and strategy on gender equality and women empowerment; Working focusing on strengthening institutional capacity of gender mainstreaming in the federal and regional gender machineries; and Capacity building activities include development of standard tools for gender mainstreaming, gender budgeting and gender auditing, establishment and strengthening of generation and use of sex-disaggregated data, support for the establishment of gender resource centres and capacity building trainings on gender mainstreaming, livelihoods strategies, marketing products, and expanding businesses. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> FAO and UNDP can collaborate on: Promoting and undertaking joint programmes that enhance gender equality and rural women's empowerment as both are doing this with other agencies (UNESCO, UNICEF, UNWOMEN, UNFPA, ILO and UNCT). Strengthening the gender machineries in the MoANR, MoLF, MoEFCC and other FAO line ministries and bureaus at the federal and regional level; and Promoting and supporting policy dialogue and reviews on FAO thematic areas.
UNFPA	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Play a lead role among the UNCT in implementing the UN JP GEWE (2012-2015);; Successful advocacy for women's and girls' rights; Building capacity of the MoWCA; strengthening local and sector capacity to mainstream gender into policies and plans; Supports studies on women empowerment and gender inequality, gender gap in socio-economic and demographic characteristics (For example, supported a study on Gender Inequality and Women Empowerment 2008; by Ethiopian Society of Population Studies). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> FAO can collaborate in building capacity of gender machineries and other partners for implementing gender plans; In line with proposed coordinating mechanism on International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD) Programme of Action (PoA) (1994) led by UNFPA), FAO can share experiences and information as well as mobilise resources on a common platform
UNICEF	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Undertaking UN JP-GEWE component intervention i.e. access to finance to low-income women HHs and potential entrepreneurs; Contributing to building the resilience of vulnerable communities affected by chronic food insecurity and supporting malnutrition, micronutrient supplementation; and Promoting and supporting implementation of CEDAW and Convention on the Rights of the Child and Child Protection, and GBV. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> FAO and UNICEF can strengthen their ongoing collaboration on nutrition interventions for vulnerable communities affected by chronic food insecurity, and pregnant and lactating women and children. They can strengthen their partnership in supporting interventions in improving situations in nutrition as they have done in the REACH Programme; and Can collaborate on rural women empowerment by creating access to finance, information and technology, particularly for low income WHHs.

Agency	Initiatives on gender	Areas for strengthened collaboration between FAO and relevant partners
UN WOMEN	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Focused on providing technical and financial support to the GoE, service providers, gender advocacy, and CSOs toward: women's participation in and equal benefit from economic growth; women's participation and leadership in agribusiness, private sector and politics; and women and girls living a life free from violence. It leads some programmes UN JP GEWE- phase II), "Leave No Woman Behind" and Rural Women's Economic Empowerment (JP RWEE) (2012-2016). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> FAO and UNWOMEN can strengthen the exiting collaboration in implementing JP RWEE to widen their outreach; FAO can work with UNWOMEN in building capacity of its own and key stakeholders staff to have gender responsive planning and budgeting processes as well as to implement national and international commitments on GEWE; and FAO can collaborate in promoting research and documentation by using evidence-based advocacy to promote and support policy and legal reform in favor of rural women's rights in key areas (including economic and productive resources).
WFP	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Providing technical, material and financial supports for those in need with the aim of improving food and nutrition security; and Jointly implementing Rural Women's Economic Empowerment (JP RWEE) project with FAO and other two partners (IFAD, UNWOMEN,) (2012-2016); and Implementing Home Grown School Feeding Programme (HGSF) (2012-2016) with FAO to provide nutritious meal to school children. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> FAO can strengthen the existing partnership with WFP to mobilise resources and scale up/out the lessons drawn so far; and Strengthen their partnership in supporting interventions in improving situations in nutrition as they have done in REACH Programme
WHO	<p>Issues study reports on country profile on nutrition, health and other gender related MDGs/SDGs indicators; for example, country statistics and global health estimates by WHO and UN partners 2015, and</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Has established Nutrition Landscape Information System for the countries (NLIS) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> FAO and WHO can collaborate in conducting studies and sharing study results on a comprehensive view of nutrition for health to rural women and development in Ethiopia as well as lessons in effective community based nutrition interventions; and Strengthen their partnership in supporting interventions in improving situations in nutrition as they have done in the REACH Programme
B. Other Bilateral and multilateral organizations/institutions, and NGOs		
ATA	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Supports senior policy makers and key institutions with strategic input on planning, coordinating, implementing, and tracking, evaluating, and refining prioritised interventions to address identified bottlenecks in the process of agricultural transformation. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> FAO can work in collaboration with ATA in assessing constraint for rural women empowerment, sharing data and evidence based advocacy and dialogue for policy review.
CARE	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Established Programme Impact Groups (PIG), composed of men and women, to assess and provide evidence- based support to advance lasting social change; It considers its project sites to be 'learning laboratories'. PIG focuses on three learning areas: i) Impact of their work on pastoralist girls, ii) Chronically food insecure women, and iii) Urban and peri-urban youth; and Enrolling men and lending credibility to women's empowerment strategies by using them as change agents. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> FAO can share best and effective experiences with CARE in designing and providing supports to partners and its own staff to achieve lasting social changes;
CIDA	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Lobbies to bring gender issues into the PSNP, Improving Productivity and Market Success (IPMS), and Rural Capacity Building Programmes that works to build the capacity of Agricultural TVET; and Provides technical assistance and capacity building training supports in the development of guidelines and tools that help to mainstream gender. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> FAO can work in collaboration with CIDA in building the capacity of Agricultural TVETs to address knowledge gap of the extension workers in addressing needs and interests of female farmers

Agency	Initiatives on gender	Areas for strengthened collaboration between FAO and relevant partners
IFAD	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Currently jointly implementing the JP RWEE project with FAO and other partners (UNWOMEN WFP). IFAD intending to shift its programming approach from implementer to resource mobiliser and donor. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> FAO and IFAD can work in collaboration in jointly implementing women empowerment projects such as JP RWEE and in mobilising resources.
ILRI	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Has contributed to gender equality and women empowerment goal in its research works and project intervention in the country. For instances, its innovative approaches towards gender equality in the IPMS project and building up on the same in the succeeding currently actives LIVES project. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> It is mutually beneficial for both ILRI and FAO to work in partnership to share experiences and lessons and coordinate their efforts to achieve common goals; and ILRI has practical tools like couples' approach for women empowerment to share with FAO.
USAID	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Focuses on increasing women's social, economic, and political status and gender equality and women's empowerment considerations across all programming; Working on Women's Lives and Challenges: Equality and Empowerment since 2000; Established the Women in Agribusiness Leadership Network in 2015 to enhance the leadership role of women and support women in chronically food insecure HHs by boosting access to improved farming inputs and creating income earning agricultural; and Addresses the root causes of domestic violence, child marriage and female genital mutilation as well as taking steps to enforce and support legislation to protect women and their children from gender-based violence; 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> FAO can collaborate with USAID in nutrition education, data and information sharing; and Promoting women in agribusiness, market networking and creating access for improved agricultural inputs. Promoting the inclusion of more women members in farmers' cooperatives; and Promoting women's land and other productive assets rights
World Bank	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Conduct different studies in rural-urban migration and its implication in agriculture and rural economy and women business and the law. Furthermore, it issues policy research working papers (such as policy research working paper 7417 Multidimensional Poverty in Ethiopia Changes in Overlapping Deprivation 2015) as well as evaluation reports on major programmes achievements including GTPI and PSNP. For instance it conducted the study entitled "The Ethiopian Urban Migration Study 2008: The Characteristics, Motives and Outcomes of Migrants to Addis Ababa". 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> FAO can work in collaboration with WB in areas of policy research; women business and law and gender based constraints in accessing productive assets; and Sharing information in rural-urban migration and its implication for agriculture and rural development as well as rural women economic empowerment.

The following are sector-based partners

Agriculture: The AGP is designed to put particular emphasis on women and youth and in this regard, it is planned to collect sex- and age-disaggregated data in the AGP M&E system. GTP II also puts women and youth economic and social empowerment as one of its pillars. The sector enjoyed technical and financial supports from several multilateral and bilateral organizations that include the European Union (EU), UK Department for International Development (DFID), United States Agency for International Development (USAID), Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA), Canada International Development Agency (CIDA) and Norwegian Cooperation and Development Agency (NORAD). These are potential partners in the agriculture sector for FAO to work with in collaboration.

Financial services: There is financial support for the agricultural players by the GoE via several channels. This includes credit guarantees to farmers, MFIs, and several RUSACCOs with its 3 372 370 (44 percent women) members to mitigate credit shortages, subsidise credits (for example, in the context of the HABP as well as direct payments to the chronically food insecure (including the PSNP programme). Out of five mainvMFIs in the country, four - namely Amhara Saving and Credit Association (ACSI) in the Amhara Region; Dedebeit Credit

and Saving Association (DESCI) in the Tigray Region; Oromia Credit and Saving Cooperation (OCSCO) in the Oromia Region; OMO Micro Finance Institution in SNNPR; and RUSACCOs are providing credit for agricultural inputs to enhance production and productivity and to diversify economic activities of small holder rural HHs. MFIs and RUSACCOs are putting a clear focus on the sector with roughly two-thirds of their overall loan portfolio; however, they have no specific products or conditions for women inclusion such as collateral free loans.

Fisheries: The EU, Intergovernmental Authority on Development (IGAD) and Indian Ocean Commission are some of the existing partners of FAO in working in the fishery sector in the Horn of Africa Countries including Ethiopia. For instance, EU funds the Smart Fish Program that is managed by the Indian Ocean Commission and co-implemented by FAO. Smart Fish is operating in 22 countries in the Indian Ocean region, southern and eastern Africa, focusing on fisheries' governance, management, monitoring, control, and surveillance trade and food security. National Fisheries and Other Aquatic Life Research Center (NFALRC) under the Ethiopian Agriculture Research Organization (EARO) is nationally mandated to support and coordinate research on fisheries and other living aquatic resources in the country. However, NFALRC does not currently have research activities on women's fishery activities.

Land and water: Partners working in the area of land and water in relation to gender equality and women empowerment include UNICEF, UNDP, WFP, USAID and EU. UNICEF and USAID focus more on creating access to safe water, sanitation and hygiene and related gender issues. FAO focuses on organizing the database on land use and management.

Nutrition: UNICEF, WFP, DFID and USAID are actively working in the area of nutrition. Most of the interventions in nutrition target adolescents in schools, pregnant and lactating mothers and children less than one year of age. FAO and UNICEF in collaboration are implementing the project entitled "Scaling-up Community-Based Nutrition (CBN)". UNICEF and DFID are funding the Scaling up Nutrition (SUN) initiative in Ethiopia. Other potential partners, including the Friedman School of Nutrition Science and Policy at Tufts University, Valid International, Jimma University, Hawassa University and the Ethiopian Public Health Institute (EPHI) are working in collaboration with USAID's flagship nutrition project "Empowering New Generations to Improve Nutrition and Economic Opportunities (ENGINE)" since 2011.

Resilience: There is an existing partnership among WFP, UNICEF and FAO that triggered a joint programming initiative on resilience-building around food and nutrition security to address chronic food insecurity and malnutrition (emergency assistance for vulnerable smallholder HHs affected by El Niño-induced drought in Amhara, SNNP and Tigray Regions). USAID, the World Bank, and other donors are supporting the PSNP with the aim of building resilience to shocks by addressing chronic food shortages. East Africa's IGAD, EU and Global Alliance for Action for Drought Resilience and Growth are also potential partners for FAO in building community resilience to shocks by providing support to productive activities, chronic food shortages and nutrition. Most of these resilience projects involve emergency and life saving activities, and by nature focus on the immediate felt needs of the affected/vulnerable community, such as nutrition for pregnant and lactating women and children; therefore, they do not necessarily focus on strategic gender issues.

Value chain and market access: USAID and SNV are promoting and supporting value chain analysis and development and creating access to market for agricultural products through several project interventions. USAID Feed the Future *Linking the Vulnerable to Markets* component is comprised of two livelihood projects, namely Graduation with Resilience to Achieve Sustainable Development (GRAD) and Pastoralist Resiliency Improvement and Market Expansion (PRIME). The Feed the Future *Agricultural Growth Enabled Food Security* component is comprised of the Value Chain Expansion (AGP-AMDe) and Livestock Market Development (LMD) projects. Some of these projects have gender components but they are not adequate in terms of effective implementation. Oxfam GB, Plan International, and SOS Sahel are also working in this regard. The strategies applied by the partners include linking businesses to markets; linking businesses to producers; strengthening cooperatives; access to capital; business-to-business support; private sector actor strengthening; providing and facilitating investment funds for innovations and up-scaling.



Leader of Tsega and Nraya Cactus Products Partnership shows how they pour marmalade into the jars for cooling and packaging.

5. Main findings and recommendations

5.1 Main findings

The CGA concludes that Ethiopia has made significant progress in reviewing policies, strategies and legal frameworks to make them more responsive to its commitments to gender equality and women's empowerment in the agriculture and rural sectors. Gender equality has been considered in the Federal Constitution, National Policy on Ethiopian women, revised Criminal Code and Family Law, Land Use and Administration Law, PASDEP, GTP, and other sectoral policies and programmes like FSP and NNP. Ethiopia also adopted most of the international and regional standards and conventions on women's rights and gender equality and made them part of the law of the land. The gender-mainstreaming strategies that have been designed in the policy frameworks are meant to address women's issues on the national, regional and local levels. However, governmental and non-governmental stakeholders are not always able to efficiently integrate gender concerns in their plans and programmes to ensure that women participate, contribute and benefit equally from their effort, get recognised and supported.

The gender equality commitments made at policy and programme levels have not been adequately realized. Women continue to face daunting challenges of: unequal access and control of productive resources; heavy unpaid labour due to unequal distribution of workload related to reproductive, productive and community responsibilities; and limited participation in rural institutions and markets. Particularly, women in WMHHs have almost been neglected from the planning, capacity building interventions, and production enhancing input delivery services except in limited cases. The agricultural extension system has failed to adequately address the practical needs and interests of women particularly those of WMHHs, boys and girls.

Furthermore, attitudinal and cultural resistance with regards to gender equality in the implementation of policies, plans and programmes as well as the absence of up-to-date and reliable sex-disaggregated data to inform sound policies and actions need to be addressed by the GoE and its partners. It is also critical to adequately institutionalise accountability for gender equality among public officers as it is currently seen as the work of the ministries and departments of women's affairs.

Hence, Ethiopian female farmers are producing on average 23 percent less than their male counterparts. FHHs have also significantly less value of production (mean = 9 898 Birr/ha) than male headed HHs (mean = 11 273 Birr/ha).

This can be attributed to a few primary reasons. Limited access to productive resources has a negative impact on women's engagement in agricultural production and productivity. There is a large gender gap in owning decisive productive assets. The gap in agricultural land holding indicates that a lower proportion of FHHs (19.5 percent) have land, as compared to 80.5 percent MHHs. Only about 42 percent females owned one or more ox(en) as compared to 74 percent of their male counter parts. The proportion of female holders who applied chemical fertilisers was about 50 percent as compared to 58 percent of their male counterparts. At the national level, 15 percent of female landholders and 21 percent of male landholders reported taking out loans. About 11.3 percent and 9.4 percent of FHHs participated in vegetable and fruits irrigation production, respectively as compared to 88.7 percent and 90.6 percent of MHHs who participated in the same.

The percentage share of female holders who received extension advisory services was about 51 percent, as compared to 62 percent for male holders who received the same services. The same pattern of lower rates in

extension package utilisation was observed with 19 percent of female holders as compared to the 28 percent of males who used the package.

The proportion of female holders participating in some form of livestock production is about 4-5 percentage points lower than the share of male holders participating in these activities. The number of total livestock (measured in TLU) owned by female holders, was found to be about 25 percentage points less than the number owned by male holders.

Females constituted 27.4 percent of the agricultural cooperatives, and men are five times more likely than women to hold a leadership position within the cooperative; that is, 3 percent of women who are in cooperatives hold such positions, while 15 percent of male cooperative members have some leadership role within the cooperatives.

Moreover, the structural power relations that may work against equality of outcomes are an essential limitation. This is partly caused by inadequate conceptual clarity regarding gender in general leading to a focus on mere participation of women, which slows down the progress of gender policy implementation. There is a widely held perception that equal participation or opportunities of women and men will automatically ensure that they obtain equal outcomes and benefits.

The gender issue is not properly used as a criteria and indicator for monitoring and evaluating the implementation of different rural development plans and projects. There are poor linkages between planning, implementation and outcomes, and the lack of gender sensitive monitoring indicators and sex disaggregated data. There is also limited familiarity and lack of awareness on existing gender equality policies, legal frameworks and guidelines among implementers and community; and little accountability for gender equality among policy and programme implementers due to a weak gender-sensitive M&E system as it has not been made as one of the performance indicators. Therefore, mainstreaming of gender in most development programmes is inadequately focused on establishing a system whereby each sector programme would use gender as a measuring indicator to qualify their projects and programme achievements.

5.2 Recommendations

The following recommendations have emerged from the assessment to guide policies and actions:

Policy level

- Review policies and/or laws that hamper equal participation and benefit of men and women, as well as boys and girls in the agriculture and rural sectors, including crops, forestry, fisheries, livestock and natural resource management. The cooperative policy must also be made gender-sensitive. The current legislation and practices that promote membership of one person (a head, usually male) in cooperatives need to be addressed to give equal opportunities for both men and women, including WMHHs.
- Disseminate policies, guidelines and tools on gender equality and women's empowerment and make them familiar to all relevant government line offices including MoANR, MoLF, MoEFCC, FCA and related regional and local bureaus.
- Work in collaboration with partners (MoANR, MoLF, ATA and related regional and local bureaus, as well as UN agencies and other DPs – FAO, IFAD, UNWOMEN, UNDP, UNICEF, WFP, UNFPA, USAID, ILRI) in agriculture and rural development in designing and implementing more gender-transformative strategies that address cultural, socio-economic and traditional practices that have negative implications on realizing women and men's full potentials and their significant contributions to address food insecurity, malnutrition and poverty. This involves for instance to address issues such as men's and women's access to and control over different types of resources (natural, productive and services) and gender divisions of labour and roles in the community and HHs.
- Initiate efforts with partners (MoANR, MoLF, ATA, related regional and local bureaus and community) to work towards changing the mindset that label only males as farmers, and female as the family care taker; and the resulting gender disparities in access to and control over the productive resources, agricultural inputs, credit, and technologies, as well as the share of unequal household work load. This could be done

by planned long-term community conversations that involve both men and women, as well as boys and girls; and applying a household approach in every project interventions that involves both the husband and wife in all project activities -planning, implementation, M&E and capacity building trainings, and experience sharing occasions.

- Ensure that gender equality and women's empowerment is an integral part in developing local and national agricultural investment plans, sectoral policies, and national budgetary mechanisms.
- Promote and support policy dialogue with the active participation of men and women at the grass root level, gender machineries and gender equality advocacy organizations/groups , an effective M&E system, as well as an enabling environment for gender equality and women's empowerment in the agriculture and rural sectors.
- Use information and sex disaggregated data in this report to develop action plans and strategies that ensure appropriate interventions which will lead to the realization and roll out of the international and national commitments such as the SDGs that the GoE has adopted/signed.

Programme level

- Work with government line offices at the federal and regional levels through advocacy, joint planning, M&E of project interventions to facilitate women's (both FHHs and WMHHs) access to extension services, credit and inputs, especially for crop and livestock enterprises that are mainly in the women's domain.
- Make sure all DPs take the issue of gender mainstreaming in programming as essential for the achievement of their developmental objectives. This involves establishing stronger accountability and making the gender issue one of the indicators of achievement for the implementation of relevant programme and project activities.
- In collaboration with partners, especially MoANR, MoLF and EIAR, identify, adopt and disseminate agricultural, labour and time saving technologies that ease women's workloads and improve their wellbeing, giving them more opportunity to participate in productive activities and to assume community responsibilities. This includes technologies for milk processing and fuel energy saving.



- Sensitise and ensure all of capacity building interventions involve couples (husband and wife) from design to implementation and M&E.
- Empower women in agribusiness through promoting their financial inclusion, access to productive resources and skills, and linkage to business development opportunities along agricultural value chains.

Institutional level

- Provide technical and material support to national gender machineries including MoWCA and Women Directorates in MoANR, MoLF, MoEFCC to enhance their capacity so that they can effectively plan, implement, monitor and evaluate gender mainstreaming within their respective ministries and departments, as well as across others.
- Provide technical support for MoANR, MoLF and FCA to enhance the capacity of their staff at all levels to ensure outreach to women through the following: incorporate gender issues into the training curriculum for DAs; increase female extension staff to participate in trainings; develop the capacity of the extension system and DAs to mainstream gender in their activities, and their ability to analyse different needs and interests of men and women (both FHHs WMHHs), boys and girls; use communication channels that are accessible by women, and ensure trainings are women-friendly in terms of time, venue and resources used.
- Provide technical assistance for the government line offices at the federal and regional levels and other implementing partners to conduct a quick gender assessment before planning any interventions, programmes/projects; develop gender sensitive indicators; design result-based M&E system, and tools for collecting and analysing sex disaggregated data.
- In capacity development efforts pay attention to: (i) creating conceptual clarity regarding gender in general, avoiding the focus on mere participation of women which leads to assuming that equal participation or opportunities of women and men will automatically ensure that they obtain equal outcomes and benefits; (ii) and analysing the structural power relations that may work against equality of outcomes.

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7. Annexes

Annex 1. List of people consulted

Name	Name of organization
Mr. ErmiasMengstu	MOANR
Mr. MeseretTsegaye	MOANR
Mr. WubshetAsnake	MOLF
Mr. ZelalemMazengia	MOLF
Ms.Hamelmal Kibre	FCA
Mr. Mohamed Selah	FAO
Mr. Hassan Ali	FAO
Mr. Workicho Jateno	FAO
Mr. GetachewAdugna	FAO
Ms. SenaitZewudie	FAO
Ms. Mihret Alemu	FAO
Ms. HiwoteGebeyehu	UNICEF
Mr. MesfineZewude	MoWCA
Mr. Nejmeia Sultan	MoWCA
Mr. Getu Belay	MoWCA
Mr. Gemechu Bekele	MoWCA
Ms. AyineHabtamu	ATA
Ms. Elzabet Tariku	WFP
Ms. Simagn Kuma	UNWOMEN
Ms. Ellen Alem	UNICEF
Ms. HiwotGebeyehu	UNICEF
Dr. EphremTesema	ILRI
Mr. AfeworkFekadu	UNDP
Mr. DerejeAlemu	ILO
Ms. HamelmalBiber	FCA
Ms.TayechOurgicho	MOEFCC
Mr. Abiy H/Gebreale	MOEFCC
Mr. GetnetAmare	MOEFCC
Mr. KefiyalewSimegn	MOEFCC
Mr. AbebayehuAbebe	SCF
Dr. RehimaMusema	EARI
Ms. Eden W/Abzgi	TMMFC
Ms. RuttaFerdisa	SNV
Ms. Zeritu Nida	CARE
Mr. Bacha Gebru	OACF

Annex 2. Country Programming Framework (2016-2020)-Ethiopia Priorities

Outcome 1: Crop production, productivity and commercialisation improved	
Output 1.1	Crop intensification, diversification and protection enhanced
Output 1.2	Nutrition-sensitive agriculture promoted
Output 1.3	Value chain and agribusiness development promoted and post-harvest losses reduced
Output 1.4	Climate-smart agriculture promoted
Outcome 2: Livestock and fisheries production, productivity and commercialisation improved	
Output 2.1	Animal disease management and service deliveries strengthened
Output 2.2	Production, management and utilisation of livestock feed resources improved
Output 2.3	Livestock and fisheries value chain support improved household nutrition and livelihood diversification was promoted
Outcome 3: Sustainable natural resource management enhanced	
Output 3.1	Capacity for natural resources management enhanced
Output 3.2	Natural resource management information system developed/strengthened
Output 3.3	National and regional levels capacity for the development and implementation of climate change adaptation and mitigation strategies increased
Cross-cutting issues	
	Resilience building Climate change Policy analysis Coordination Knowledge management

Annex 3. On-going projects - FAO Ethiopia (with charge code) updated in May 2016

Project symbol	Charge code	Project title	Inception date	End date
Socioeconomic team				
UNJP/ETH/087/ CEF	TF FRETH TF3N350015239	Scaling-up Community-Based Nutrition (CBN) and hygiene interventions in Amhara and SNNP Regions through strengthened inter-sectoral collaboration for optimal nutrition outcomes	1/1/2014	30-06-17
UNJP/ETH/090/ CEF	TF FRETH TF3N350015219	Integrated nutrition services: multisectoral interventions to improve nutrition security and strengthen resilience	1/11/2014	10/31/2017
UNJP/ETH/091/ UNJ	TF FRETH TF5C350015442	Rural Women Economic Empowerment (RWEE)	1/1/2015	10/31/2017
GCP/INT/240/ITA	TF ESPDD TFIT11AA15467	Youth mobility, food security and rural poverty reduction, fostering rural diversification through enhanced youth employment and better labour mobility	26-01-15	31-12-16
GCP/ETH/089/EC	TF FRETH TFEU110015040	Strengthening institutionalized subnational coordination structures and harmonization mechanisms	1 Oct. 14	30-09-17
TCP/ETH/3503	OT FRETH OTCP14ET15056	Capacity Development for the Veterinary Drug and Animal Feed Administration and Control Authority (VDAFACA) and Feed Value Chain Actors in Ethiopia	3-Feb-15	31-08-16
UTF /ETH/081/ ETH	TF FRETH TFET250012658	Technical Support for Agricultural Growth Programme	3-Sep-12	2-Sep-16
GCP/ETH/073/ITA	TF FRETH TFIT110007280	Strengthening of Fruit and Cactus Pear Production in Tigray and North Wollo	1-May-07	31-12-16

Project symbol	Charge code	Project title	Inception date	End date
UTF/ETH/086/ETH	TF FRETH TFET250014335	Implementation of a national forest monitoring and MRV system for reduction emission from deforestation and forest degradation (REDD+readiness) in Ethiopia RI1/RI2	14-09-14	31-12-16
GCP /INT/157/EC	TF FOM TFEU11AA14361	Action Against Desertification: in support of the implementation of the Great Green Wall for the Sahara and the Sahel Initiative (GGWSSI) and south-south cooperation in ACP countries.	28 Jul 14	27-Feb-19
GCP/ETH/084/SWI	TF FRETH TFCH110013510	Reducing Food Losses through Improved Postharvest Management in Ethiopia Phase I	01-Dec.-13	30-11-17
GCP/RAF/496/NOR	GF RAFTD TFEU110014416	Support Transition Towards Climate Smart Agriculture Food Systems	1/1/2016	31-12-17
GCP/SFE/002/SWI	TF SFE TFCH116S16065	Institutionalization of field schools in Eastern Africa	1/12/2015	30-11-17
GCP /GLO/626/EC (baby project)	TF TCSDD TFEU11AA15306	Capacity Development for Agricultural C32 Innovation Systems (CDAIS)	01 Jan 15	31-Dec-18
FMM/GLO/101/MUL	TF FRETH TFAA40AA14276	FMM support to SO1 - 00 101	8-Jan-14	30-06-16
OSRO/GLO/505/USA		MERS-CoV applied research activities in the Middle East and Northeast Africa	26 Oct 15	30-Sep-16
OSRO/GLO/507/USA	TF FRETH TFUS190015510	Surveillance for Ebola Virus in Livestock in Africa	01 Oct 15	30-Sep-18
GCP/RAF/502/ITA	TF FRETH TFUS19AA15525	Improving food security in Sub-Saharan Africa by supporting the progressive reduction of tsetse-tran	1 Oct.15	1 Oct. 16
GCP /ETH/083/EC	TF FRETH TFEU110014416	Pursuing Pastoral Resilience (PPR) through improved animal health service delivery in pastoral areas of Eth.	15-09-14	13-10-17
GCP/ETH/088/GER	TF FRETH TFDE11ET16354	Project Title: Food Loss Reduction through Improved Post-harvest Handling and Value-addition of Key Fruits and Vegetables	1 June, 16	31-May-19
OSRO/ETH/502/CHA	TF FRETH TF4W190015558	Nutrition sensitive livelihood support to drought affected pastoral and agro-pastoral communities	16 Sep 15	30-Jun-16
OSRO/ETH/503/BEL	TF FRETH TFBE19ET15583	Emergency Protection of Livestock based Livelihood Assets of Pastoralists and Agro pastoralists	1 Dec. 15	30 Aug. 16
OSRO/ETH/504/ITA	TF FRETH TFIT190016018	Emergency Livelihood support to drought affected pastoral and ago pastoral communities in Dewe wore	8 Oct.15	7 oct. 16

Project symbol	Charge code	Project title	Inception date	End date
OSRO/ETH/404/ SWE	TF FRETH TFSE190015081	Managing the rain-improving the management of rainwater resources	9-Jan-14	31-12-16
TCP/ETH/3504	OT FRETH OTCP14ET16261	Emergency assistance for vulnerable smallholder households affected by El Niño-induced drought in eastern Amhara and southern Tigray Regions	19 Feb 16	31-Jan-17
OSRO/ETH/601/ USA	TF FRETH TFUS19ET16251	Emergency livelihood support to drought-affected pastoral, agro pastoral and smallholder farming community	01 Jan 2016	31-Dec-16
OSRO/ETH/602/ ITA	TF FRETH TFIT19ET16298	Emergency livelihood support to El Niño-affected agro pastoral communities of Afar Region	29 Jan 2016	28 Jan 2017
OSRO/ETH/603/ JCA	TF FRETH TFA419ET16268	Emergency seed support to smallholder farmers affected by the El Niño-induced drought in Amhara	18-Mar-16	31 Dec 2016
OSRO/ETH/604/ CHA	TF FRETH TFA4190016308	Emergency seed support to enhance food security and nutrition of drought-affected households in Amhara	25-Apr-16	24-Feb-17
TCP/ETH/3601	TF FRETH OTCP16ET16047	Emergency assistance for vulnerable smallholder households affected by El Niño-induced drought in Amhara, Southern Nation Nationalities and Peoples (SNNP) & Tigray Regions	06 May 2016	31-Mar-17
TCP/ETH/3602	TF FRETH OTCP16ET16067	Supporting the energy needs of refugees and host communities through the establishment of sustainable wood fuel management strategies and plans in Ethiopia	25 May 2016	30-Apr-18
GCP/INT/261/SWI		IGAD - FAO partnership programme on drought resilience regional initiative in support of (agro) pastoralists communities' resilience in the horn of Africa	Feb-16	1-Jan-17
OSRO/ETH/605/ SPA	TF FRETH	Emergence assistance to Drought Affected Food Insecure Vulnerable communities	31-05-16	31-12-16
OSRO/ETH/606/ NET	TF FRETH TFNL19ET16342	Emergency livelihood support to El Nino affected smallholder farmers in Amhara, Oromia, SNNP and Tigray	25 May 2016	24-May-17
OSRO/ETH/607/ IRE	TF FRETH TFIE19ET16345	Emergency time critical seed support for the <i>meher</i> season to drought affected farming communities	31 May 2016	31-Dec-16
OSRO/ETH/608/ CHA	TF FRETH TF4W19ET16352	Emergency time critical Seed support for the <i>meher</i> season to drought affected farmers of Ethiopia	02 Jun 2016	2-Feb-17

Annex 4. Data collection tools/guidelines

a. Interview guide to government representatives

I. Background information:

Name of the organization: _____

Name of the respondent: _____ Sex: _____

Responsibility: _____

Address: _____

telephone (office): _____ Mobile: _____

b. Gender equality and women empowerment

Objectives	Questions
1. Gaps, constraints, needs and priorities	
Objective 1: To identify needs and constraints of both women and men in selected FAO areas of competence as well as priorities and gaps	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Types of value chains your organization/department works with. 2) What value chains and markets do women and men participate in? In which phase/node are they mainly present?* 3) What constraints do women and men face in agricultural related activities? ** 4) How are gender inequalities affecting household food security, poverty reduction, agricultural production and rural employment? ** 5) Why are these problems (gender inequalities) occurring and persisting? What needs to be done so that these household roles and responsibilities are shared equally across all household members? ** 6) What are some of the practical barriers that hinder women's ability to engage in and fully benefit from agricultural activities and rural development? Can you suggest ways of eliminating such barriers? ** 7) How has the emergency situation of the country impacted rural women and men? Is there any difference in the way they cope with the emergency? 8) Are women directly involved in the way the productive land, forestry, livestock and aquaculture is put to use? 9) What do we need to change in the accustomed roles of men and women for increased agricultural productivity? ** 10) What do women and men require increasing crop and animal production? ** 11) What do you suggest as appropriate and sustainable ways of addressing men and women's needs in agriculture? **
2. Progress towards women's empowerment	
Objective 2: To assess the progress towards women's empowerment and gender equality in the agriculture sector	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) What key achievements have been registered at the household and community level in the country with regards to women's empowerment and gender equality in the agriculture sector?** 2) Do you have ongoing programmes aimed at improving agricultural livelihoods? If so, how have these programmes improved the livelihood of women at the household and community levels? ** 3) Can you provide examples/good practices/successful approaches that have worked in Ethiopia as regards improvement of the livelihoods of women? How? Why? 4) What do you suggest to be done differently to empower women in the country? ** 5) In which economic activity supported by the FAO do rural women participate in and why? **

3. Gender equality, women empowerment, food security and agricultural growth linkages	
Objective 3: To examine the links between gender equality and women's empowerment, food security and agricultural growth	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Are women engaged in agriculture for commercial or subsistence production? 2) To what extent can women make decisions in agricultural production and marketing? What decisions do women make? 3) Are there cases of malnutrition? If yes, what are the root causes and what interventions are in place? 4) Do women have opportunities to organize themselves into agricultural groups; for example, agricultural production, marketing, and can they be in key leadership positions in these groups? ** 5) Do women farmers have access to agricultural extension workers, trainers, advisers, and successful private farmers for information sharing and learning? If not, why not? ** 6) Do both women and men have access to financial services to boost their agricultural production? If not, why not? If yes, which financial services are mainly accessed by women and men rural farmers in the country? **
4. Institutional capacity	
Objective 4: To assess the institutional capacity for gender equality and women's empowerment	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Do you have a GFP/gender advisor in your institution? If yes, do you liaise with him/her? How? If not, who advises you on how to integrate gender into your work? 2) Do you have a policy/guiding framework/strategy on gender in agriculture to guide the integration of this issue in your work? 3) Do you have tools that enable you to integrate gender in your work? 4) Have you ever received training or attended awareness raising sessions of gender issues in the agriculture sector? ** 5) How do you evaluate the extent of gender integration in the projects/programmes/plans in your organization?* 6) What would be needed to allow you to better integrate gender in your work? **
5. Recommendations and stakeholders	
Objective 5: To provide recommendations and guidance to promote gender sensitivity of future programming and projects, as well as identifying possible partners for gender-related activities.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) What are your future recommendations to improve the quality of the programme for the improvement of men and women in the agricultural sector? ** 2) Are there any other organizations, (CSOs, networks, private companies, individuals) involved in gender and agricultural activities in your area? What is their mandate? What is your working relationship with them, if any? ** 3) What should FAO do to contribute to more gender equality in agriculture in the country? **

Thank you!

a. Questionnaire for UN agencies and other stakeholders

Name of the organization: _____

Name of the respondent: _____

Positions: _____ Sex: _____ Male _____ Female _____

Senior management, mid-level personnel, junior-level personnel

Address: Telephone (office): _____ Mobile: _____

Objectives: to identify and analyse the factors that hinder efforts to integrate gender into organization programmes/projects and to identify approaches to strengthen staff capacity to integrate gender in planning, implementation and evaluation of programmes/projects.

b. Questionnaire for UN agencies and other stakeholders

1. What type of agricultural value chains does your organization/department work with?
2. Have there been any gender analyses in your organization to determine gendered constraints and opportunities along the agricultural value chains you work in and to incorporate these in planning, implementation and M&E?
3. Do you have ongoing programmes aimed at improving agricultural livelihoods? If so, how have these programmes improved the livelihood of men and women at the household and community levels?
4. Are gender equality goals and objectives included in project or programme activity designs?
5. Has your organization budgeted adequate financial resources to support its gender integration work?
6. Is sex disaggregated data collected and used systematically in planning and reporting?
7. Does your organization have any projects or programmes that focus exclusively on gender equality?**
8. Does the implementation plan for your project or programme include activities that strengthen skills and provide women/girls, men/boys with equal access to services and trainings?
9. Can you provide examples/good practices/successful approaches that have worked in the Ethiopia as regards improvement of the livelihoods of women? How? Why? **
10. Do you monitor and evaluate gender impacts of projects and programmes?
11. What key achievements have been registered at the household and community level in the country with regards to women's empowerment and gender equality in the agriculture sector?**
12. In which economic activity supported by FAO do rural women participate in and why?*
13. Do men and women farmers have equal access to agricultural extension services, inputs, advices, trainings, and financial services? If not why?*
14. What are some of the obstacles to integrating gender in project planning, implementation, M&E in your organization? **
15. How are gender inequalities affecting household food security, poverty reduction, agricultural production and rural employment? **
16. Why are these problems (gender inequalities) occurring and persisting? What needs to be done so that the household roles and responsibilities are shared equally across all household members? **
17. Do you think that the national gender machineries like MOCWA, WADs in MOANRD and MOLF are working at best expected of them? If yes how? If not why?*
18. How do you evaluate coordination of stakeholders in gender equality and women empowerment?
19. What else is needed to increase gender integration in organizational project or programme works? **
20. What do we need to change the accustomed roles of men and women for increased agricultural productivity? **
21. What do women and men require to increase crop and animal production?*

22. What do you suggest as appropriate and sustainable ways of addressing men and women's needs in agriculture? **
23. What do you suggest to be done differently to empower women in the country? **
24. Are there any other organizations, (CSOs, networks, private companies, individuals) involved in gender and agricultural activities in your area? What is their mandate? What is your working relationship with them, if any? **

Thank you!

c. Interview guide to UN/FAO and other development partners' higher officials

I. Background information:

Name of the organization: _____

Name of the respondent: _____ Sex: _____

Responsibility: _____

Address Telephone (office): _____ Mobile: _____

II. Gender equality and women empowerment

1. How do you evaluate the process of policy dialogue and programme development in agricultural and rural development sectors in Ethiopia?
2. Do you think that all stakeholders, particularly national gender machineries and gender equality and women empowerment advocacy organizations have been adequately represented in such processes?
3. What has been the role of your organization/FAO in the process of developing ADLI, RDSP, PIF, PASDEP, ADP, GTPI & II, etc?
4. Do you think that the national policies, programmes in agricultural and rural development sectors and FAO-E, CPF, PIFs and CAADP adequately addressed gender issues?
5. Do you think that adequate resources (budget) have been allocated to the gender equality and women empowerment activities in the country?
6. What are the constraints in integrating gender in national policies and programmes?
7. What are constraints in implementing gender equality and women empowerment components of the policies and programmes?
8. What are your future recommendations to improve the quality of the programme for the improvement of men and women in the agricultural and rural development sectors?
9. What should FAO do to contribute to more gender equality in agriculture and rural development sectors in the country?

Thank you!



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A small-scale irrigation project providing access to water and water-efficient farming practices which enable small-holder farmers to keep farming in the dry season and adapt to changing weather patterns.



©FAO / Tamiru Legesse

Members of 'Selam Vegetable Growers Group' working on a vegetable garden owned and managed by the youth group.

National gender profile of agriculture and rural livelihoods

Gaps between policy and implementation, and limited availability of sex disaggregated data and gender-sensitive indicators to inform sound policies and budgets have kept women marginalized in many sectors. No baselines mean no measurement of progress in effectively implementing the array of commitments towards gender equality and women's empowerment in agriculture, food security and nutrition, rural development and management of natural resources. This report reveals gender disparities in access to critical agriculture and rural resources, knowledge, opportunities, services and markets. It explores the existing gender relations and gaps in the various sub sectors of agriculture, and their possible causes and impact on food and nutrition security, and makes policy recommendations to address them.

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