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Association of gender-related factors and household food security in southwest Oromia, Ethiopia: evidence from a cross-sectional study

Honelgn Nahusenay Hiruy¹ , Janine Barden-O'Fallon^{2,3*} , Fikadu Mitiku⁴ and Elizabeth Millar²

Abstract

Background Food insecurity is a major concern across Ethiopia and a long-standing public health problem. Vulnerability to food insecurity varies by several individual and household factors; however, understanding the role of gender-related factors can serve as additional input for designing policy and interventions. A cross-sectional survey was conducted in the Yayu Coffee Forest Biosphere Reserve in southwest Oromia, Ethiopia as part of a baseline assessment for the My Forest, My Livelihood, My Family program. A total of 1,113 households were selected from six woredas (districts) using a two-stage sampling procedure. The outcome variable was measured using the Household Food Insecurity Access Scale, version 3. The association between gender-related factors and household food security was assessed by fitting a logistic regression.

Results The prevalence of food insecurity was 62.4%, with 28.1% of households assessed as severely food insecure. Households with both the wife and husband making decisions about major purchases were associated with an increased odds of household food security (adjusted odds ratio [AOR] 1.44, confidence interval [CI] 1.06, 1.96). The odds increased when the woman alone made these decisions (AOR 2.15, CI 1.20, 3.85). Women's formal education was also associated with increased odds of household food security.

Conclusions This study adds evidence that policy and programmatic interventions that improve the agency of women to participate in asset ownership and household economic decision making, expand female literacy and education, and diversify income sources to include off-farm wage employment in the Yayu Coffee Forest Biosphere Reserve are important steps for improving household food security.

Keywords Food insecurity, Food security, Gender, Oromia, Ethiopia

*Correspondence:

Janine Barden-O'Fallon

bardenof@email.unc.edu

Full list of author information is available at the end of the article



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Introduction

Food insecurity results when an insufficient quantity of safe and nutritious food is available to provide for normal growth and development. Food insecurity is a major concern across Ethiopia, with chronic and acute food insecurity being a significant public health problem in the country for decades [1]. The country's high dependence on traditional, small-scale agricultural production has led to food vulnerability through a combination of causes, mainly including natural disasters and climate change, such as drought, crop failure, and livestock disease; population growth; land fragmentation and degradation; lack of secured land tenure; lack of infrastructure; and governance, conflict, and security problems [1, 17]. Most recently, civil unrest in the northern region and the subsequent internal displacement of millions of people, and sustained drought in the southern region have contributed to the ongoing challenges related to agricultural production. In 2022, it was estimated by the World Food Programme that 20.4 million people in Ethiopia required food assistance [23]. As a result of the significance of this issue, much research has been conducted in Ethiopia to assess the prevalence and severity of food insecurity, estimated nationally and subnationally, the drivers and correlates of food insecurity; and the health consequences of undernutrition and reduced economic productivity.

Research published since 2005 showed that vulnerability to food insecurity varied by several individual and household factors. This body of research found that sociodemographic factors related to the head of the household—such as sex, age, education level, and type of employment—and household characteristics, such as the size of the household (number of household members), income, access to credit, ownership of animals, and size of farmland were often significantly related to household food insecurity [4, 5, 8, 13, 14, 19]. For example, a study from the West Abaya district in southern Ethiopia found an increased likelihood of food insecurity for households headed by females, single heads-of-households, older heads-of-households, households with four or more members, and ownership of 1.5 hectares or less of farmland [19]. In addition, the application of fertilizer, improved farm inputs, and access to extension services have also been included in models of food insecurity and were found to be associated with improved food security [2, 5, 8, 10].

As a demographic characteristic, the sex of the head of the household has consistently been included in models of household food insecurity. A recent meta-analysis found that female-headed households had a twofold increased likelihood of being food insecure compared with male-headed households in Ethiopia [15]. However, non-demographic gender-related measures have

not typically been included in models of household food insecurity, even though the gendered roles of women can create constraints to resources and food access. Our work expands on previous research by investigating the degree to which gender-related variables are associated with household food security in the Yayu Coffee Forest Biosphere Reserve.

Area of study

The Yayu Coffee Forest Biosphere Reserve is located in southwest Ethiopia, in Oromia Regional State. The Biosphere Reserve encompasses the Hurumu, Yayu, Bilo Nopa, Alge-Sachi, and Doreni woredas (districts) of Illu-Abba Bora zone and the Chora woreda of Buno Bedele zone. It is comprised of three parts: the core, which is a protected forest area; the buffer, in which certain economic activities, such as coffee and spice production, and forest uses, such as commercial forest plantations and eco-tourism, are allowed; and the transitional area, where a variety of traditional and modern agricultural practices take place [7]. A total population of 476,280 consisting of 52% male and 48% female lives in the biosphere reserve, and the region is described as “resource-rich but livelihood-poor,” in which households depend on a combination of small-scale agricultural and forest management systems, dominated by traditional agronomic practices with low inputs and low productivity [7]. About 90% of cash income for households is generated from forest products (e.g., coffee, honey, and spices, coffee alone accounts for 70% [7]. This lack of diversity increases vulnerability to risk factors, such as crop pests, disease, degradation, deforestation, loss of biodiversity, and their consequences, including food insecurity and subsequent poor health outcomes.

Women and girls living in the region face social and cultural barriers that limit their participation in development activities [7]. Barriers, such as limited mobility, especially for married adolescent girls, lack of education, limited financial access and literacy, and limited access to land resources, can preclude engagement in economic activities and contribute to food insecurity among women and girls themselves, and to that of their families.

Materials and methods

Data

The data for the analysis came from a cross-sectional survey conducted for the baseline of a mixed methods outcome evaluation of the My Forest, My Livelihood, My Family (FUTURES) program [12]. The FUTURES program is an integrated, multi-sectoral project funded by the David and Lucile Packard Foundation that was developed to address many of the health, agriculture, livelihood, and conservation concerns in the Yayu

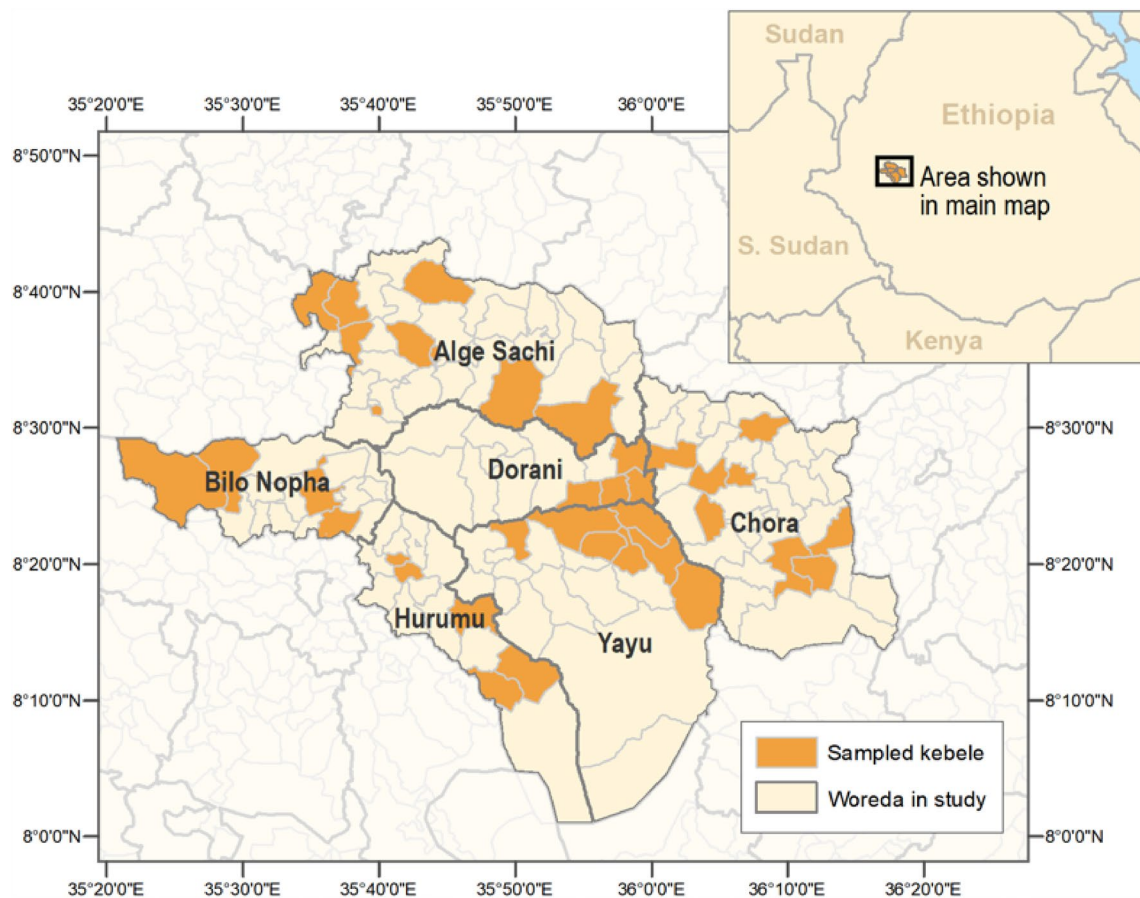


Fig. 1 Map of study area

Coffee Forest Biosphere Reserve region. The project is implemented by CARE Ethiopia and its three local partners—Oromia Development Association, Environment and Coffee Forest Forum, and Kulich Youth Reproductive Health and Development Organization. It works in 28 kebeles (wards or neighbourhoods) in the towns of Chora, Yayu, and Dorani. The baseline data were collected from 1,113 households sampled from 38 kebeles in 6 woredas in the study area (see Fig. 1 Map of study area). A quasi-experimental design was used to select three intervention and three non-intervention woredas. Nineteen kebeles were then randomly selected from intervention woredas and comparison woredas with the assumption that 30 households per kebele were sufficient to get a sample of 557 households from each arm. Following the selection of kebeles, the respondent households were selected based on probability proportional to size of households in each kebele. Eligible respondents included married and unmarried women ages 15–49 identifying as “head of the household” or “married to the head of the household.” A structured questionnaire was developed in English and translated

to Afan Oromo, the local language. Before data collection, the questionnaire was pretested in similar households that were not included in the final sample. The survey was implemented by a team of 20 enumerators, four field supervisors, and one coordinator affiliated with Jimma University, who were able to work in both English and Afan Oromo. The survey was implemented using Open Data Kit on tablets and mobile phones [9]. Simultaneous data quality checks were completed using a secure File Transfer Protocol, in keeping with approved data security requirements. Data collection was conducted from November 30 to December 12, 2021. Interviews lasted an average of 1 hour. Further details on the baseline survey are available in [12].

Before data collection, ethics approval was obtained from the Institutional Review Board of the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill (Study #21-2143, October 14, 2021), the Jimma University College of Agriculture and Veterinary Medicine Research Ethical Review Board (Ref. No. R/GS/S22/2021, October 22, 2021), and the Faculty of Public Health Ethical Review Board (Ref. No IHRPG 1/2021, November 26, 2021).

Measurements

Women's demographic and gender-related factors for the analysis included age group (15–24, 25–29, 30–34, 35–39, and 40–49); marital status (married or in union vs. not currently married or in union); highest level of education (none, primary, or secondary and higher); employment during the past 12 months (yes/no); compensation for employment in the past 12 months (not employed, employed/not paid in cash, or employed/paid in cash); ownership of a bank account (yes/no); access to credit in the past 12 months (yes/no); participation in women's associations or women's self-help groups (yes/no); and her name on the title/deed among households owning land (yes/no). Gender-related variables of participation in decision making included the person who decides to make major household purchases, how the woman's/wife's cash earnings are used, and how the man's/husband's cash earnings are used, all coded as woman, woman and husband jointly, or husband/other.

Household characteristics included in the analysis were household size (1–2, 3–4, or 5+ members); major livelihood/income earning activities (crop production, livestock production, off-farm self-employment, off-farm wage employment, other); and number of household livelihood/income activities (one vs. more than one). The diversity of livelihood activities was categorized using the most common combinations: only one (crop production); only one (other than crop production); more than one (crop and livestock production); or more than one (any other combination). Additional household characteristics were ownership of farm animals (yes/no); ownership of land (yes/no); farmland size in hectares (no farmland, ≤ 1 hectare, or > 1 hectare); and number of household shocks experienced in the past 12 months (zero, one, or two or more). The list of potential household shocks included significant rise in food prices; loss of livestock or poultry due to disease or pests; lower crop yield due to drought, flood, crop disease, or pests; disruption of farming or livestock; serious illness or accident of household member(s); business failure; significant fall in sales price of crops or livestock or poultry; end of regular assistance, aid, or remittances; death of income earner(s); conflict/violence; theft/looting of cash or other property; break-up of household (divorce, separation, death, or migration); or damage/destruction of dwelling. Woreda was also included as a measure of household wealth.

A household wealth index was constructed to measure the relative economic status of households using a principal component analysis method [16]. The variables included were housing material (type of roof), access to utilities (water source, type of fuel, electric power); ownership of household assets (radio, television, telephone, personal computer, refrigerator, table, chair, bed, electric

stove, kerosene lamp, watch, mobile phone); number of farm animals (cattle, camel, goat, sheep, chicken, bee-hive); ownership of transportation means (animal cart, bicycle, motorcycle, cart bajaj [three-wheeled scooter or auto rickshaw], and car or truck); and size of agricultural land owned. Using these variables, households were divided into five wealth quintiles: lowest, second, middle, fourth, and highest.

The dependent variables for the analysis used the Household Food Insecurity Access Scale (HFIAS), version 3 [3]. During data collection, respondents were asked nine questions to measure the occurrence of food insecurity and nine questions on the frequency of food insecurity. Occurrence of food insecurity questions were recorded with yes or no response, whereas frequency questions were captured as rarely (once or twice), sometimes (three to ten times), or often (more than ten times) in the past 4 weeks. Using these responses, households were categorized into four levels of food insecurity: food secure, mildly food insecure, moderately food insecure, and severely food insecure. See Additional file 1 for details on HFIAS questions, scoring, and categorization.

In addition, data were collected on the prevalence of households experiencing one or more behaviours in each of the three domains reflected in the HFIAS: anxiety and uncertainty, insufficient quality of food intake, and insufficient food intake and its physical consequences. The household food insecurity access-related domains show the percentage of households that responded “yes” to any of the behaviours in a specific domain [3]. Last, household food insecurity access-related conditions present the percentage of households that responded affirmatively to each question on experiences and responses to food insecurity, regardless of the frequency of the experience. They measure the percentage of households experiencing the condition at any level of severity [3].

Analysis

All analyses were conducted in Stata version 15 [20]. Sample weights and adjustments for the multistage sampling design were used. Specifically, the “surveysset” command was used to account for the complex survey data. In doing so, strata were defined based on the project area (intervention vs. comparison), a finite population correction was applied for the selection of kebele and household, and weights were used to account for unequal probability of selection. Weight was calculated as the inverse of the probability of selection of a household, which was normalized by dividing it by the mean weight. Frequency, percentage, and 95% confidence interval (CI) were used to present demographic characteristics, household characteristics, and assessment of household food insecurity.

The association between gender-related factors and household food security was assessed by fitting a logistic regression. The analysis identified factors associated with “food security”; rather than “food insecurity”; because our hypothesis was that households with higher levels of gender equality were more likely to be food secure. The unit of analysis was the household. First, the dependent variable—household food security—was recategorized into a binary variable of food secure vs. food insecure (mildly, moderately, or severely food insecure). Next, unadjusted logistic regressions were run with gender-related factors and other individual and household variables. Correlation between significant factors was also checked using a correlation matrix. One of the variables was dropped from further analysis if any two variables showed a high level of correlation (correlation coefficient > 0.8). In addition, when one variable was derived from another, one of them was excluded from further analysis regardless of the correlation value. The excluded variables were marital status, employment pay type, crop production, livestock production, off-farm self-employment, number of livelihood activities, and ownership of farmland. The final model was built by including all uncorrelated gender-related, individual, and household factors that showed statistically significant associations during the binary logistic regressions using a 95% level of confidence.

Results

Women’s demographic and gender-related characteristics are given in Table 1. About half the sample were ages 15–29, and almost all women were married or in union (94.63%). One-third of the survey respondents (33.3%) did not have any formal education. Most women were employed during the past 12 months (85.6%), although more than half of these women were not paid in cash (56.1%). Although 31.8% of women had a bank account, only 16.2% had access to credit in the past 12 months. Participation in a women’s association or group was reported by 33.8% of the women. Of the 798 households owning land, 77.3% of the women reported that their names were on the title/deed. When it came to decision making, 25.7% of women reported that their husbands or someone else made decisions about major household purchases. A somewhat smaller percentage of women reported that their husbands or someone else made decisions about how their earnings were used (20.4%) or how their husband’s/partner’s earnings were used (22.8%).

Table 2 presents the household characteristics. Almost all households had three or more members, with nearly 50% having five or more members. The major livelihood/income earning activities for the households were crop production (73.4%) and livestock production (31.5%), whereas a small percentage

Table 1 Women’s demographic and gender-related characteristics, FUTURES baseline survey, 2021; *N* = 1.113

Characteristic	Unweighted number	Percentage	(95% CI)
Age group			
15–24	261	22.8	(21.0, 24.8)
25–29	304	26.1	(24.4, 27.8)
30–34	170	15.1	(13.7, 16.6)
35–39	221	21.3	(19.5, 23.3)
40–49	157	14.8	(13.2, 16.4)
Marital status			
Married/in union	1.049	94.6	(93.6, 95.5)
Not currently married/in union	64	5.4	(4.5, 6.4)
Highest level of school attended			
No formal education	378	33.3	(28.8, 38.2)
Primary	439	37.4	(34.4, 40.5)
Secondary or above	296	29.3	(24.1, 35.0)
Employed in the past 12 months			
No	157	14.4	(12.4, 16.7)
Yes	956	85.6	(50.5, 61.6)
Employment compensation			
Not employed	157	14.4	(12.4, 16.7)
Employed, not paid in cash	656	56.1	(50.5, 61.6)
Employed, paid in cash	300	29.5	(25.5, 33.9)
Has bank account			
No	766	68.2	(62.3, 73.5)
Yes	347	31.8	(26.5, 37.8)
Had access to credit in the past 12 months			
No	938	83.8	(81.1, 86.2)
Yes	175	16.2	(13.8, 18.9)
Participation in women’s associations or women’s self-help groups			
No	742	66.2	(63.6, 68.8)
Yes	371	33.8	(31.3, 36.5)
Name is on title/deed (among households owning land, <i>n</i> = 798)			
No	186	22.7	(20.9, 24.7)
Yes	612	77.3	(75.3, 79.1)
Person who decides on major household purchases			
Woman	119	10.4	(9.1, 11.8)
Woman and husband jointly	705	64.0	(61.2, 66.6)
Husband or other	289	25.7	(23.2, 28.3)
Person who decides on how the woman’s/wife’s cash earnings are used (among women who had any earnings, <i>n</i> = 1.080)			
Woman	122	11.5	(9.9, 13.4)
Woman and husband jointly	730	68.1	(65.1, 70.9)
Husband or other	228	20.4	(17.9, 23.1)
Person who decides on how the man’s/husband’s cash earnings are used (among women whose husbands have earnings, <i>n</i> = 1.049)			
Woman	46	3.9	(2.8, 5.3)
Woman and husband jointly	742	73.3	(70.8, 75.8)
Husband or other	241	22.8	(20.5, 25.3)

Table 2 Household characteristics, FUTURES baseline survey, 2021; *N* = 1.113

Characteristic	Unweighted number	Percentage	(95% CI)
Household size			
1–2	72	6.6	(5.5, 7.8)
3–4	481	43.5	(41.2, 45.8)
5 +	560	50.0	(47.6, 52.3)
Major livelihood/income earning activities			
Crop production			
No	260	26.6	(19.6, 35.0)
Yes	853	73.4	(65.0, 80.5)
Livestock production			
No	760	68.5	(63.4, 73.1)
Yes	353	31.5	(26.9, 36.6)
Off-farm self-employment			
No	1040	92.8	(90.1, 94.7)
Yes	73	7.3	(5.3, 9.9)
Off-farm wage employment			
No	930	83.5	(81.4, 85.5)
Yes	183	16.5	(14.5, 18.6)
Other			
No	939	82.1	(76.6, 86.6)
Yes	174	17.9	(13.4, 23.4)
Number livelihood/income activities per household			
Only one	639	57.3	(51.6, 62.9)
More than one	474	42.7	(37.1, 48.4)
Diversity of livelihood activities			
Only one: crop production	393	31.9	(28.5, 35.6)
Only one: other than crop production	246	25.4	(18.6, 33.7)
More than one: crop and livestock production	343	30.3	(25.6, 35.6)
More than one: any other combination	131	12.3	(10.6, 14.3)
Ownership of farm animals			
No	266	25.3	(20.2, 31.1)
Yes	847	74.7	(68.9, 79.8)
Ownership of farmland			
No	315	28.3	(23.4, 33.8)
Yes	798	71.7	(66.2, 76.6)
Farmland size in hectares			
No farmland	315	28.3	(23.4, 33.8)
= < 1 hectare	463	42.9	(38.9, 46.9)
> 1 hectare	335	28.9	(26.1, 31.8)
No. of experiences of significant shocks in the past 12 months			
0	437	39.3	(36.0, 42.7)
1	363	33.5	(30.6, 36.5)
2 +	313	27.3	(24.6, 30.1)
Woreda			
Alge Sachi	322	44.4	(33.3, 56.1)
Bilo Nopa	78	10.1	(5.7, 17.1)
Chora	193	8.3	(4.5, 14.8)
Doreni	86	3.7	(1.5, 9.0)
Hurumu	158	21.4	(12.4, 34.6)
Yayu	276	12.1	(6.7, 20.8)

Table 2 (continued)

Characteristic	Unweighted number	Percentage	(95% CI)
Wealth quintiles			
Lowest (Poorest)	224	20.0	(17.9, 22.6)
Second	222	20.0	(17.7, 22.4)
Middle	222	20.0	(17.7, 22.4)
Fourth	223	20.0	(17.8, 22.5)
Highest	222	20.0	(17.7, 22.4)

Table 3 Measures of household food insecurity access, FUTURES baseline survey, 2021; *N*= 1.113

Characteristic	Unweighted number	Percentage	(95% CI)
Prevalence			
Food secure	456	37.6	(35.0, 40.3)
Mildly food insecure	119	10.8	(9.4, 12.4)
Moderately food insecure	251	23.4	(21.2, 25.8)
Severely food insecure	287	28.1	(25.6, 30.8)
Domains			
Household with anxiety and uncertainty about food supply	488	46.6	(43.6, 49.5)
Households with insufficient food quality	626	60.1	(57.4, 62.7)
Household with insufficient food intake	485	46.8	(44.2, 49.4)
Conditions			
Worry about food	488	46.6	(43.6, 49.5)
Unable to eat preferred foods	536	51.8	(48.8, 54.8)
Eat a limited variety of foods	505	49.8	(47.3, 52.3)
Eat foods that you really did not want to eat	456	44.6	(41.9, 47.2)
Eat a smaller meal	453	44.3	(41.8, 46.8)
Eat fewer meals in a day	397	39.2	(36.6, 41.8)
No food to eat of any kind in the household	245	24.0	(21.6, 26.5)
Go to sleep at night hungry	161	15.3	(13.6, 17.2)
Go a whole day and night without eating anything	104	9.1	(7.8, 10.5)

were involved in off-farm self-employment (7.3%), wage employment (16.5%), or other activities (17.9%). Fifty-seven percent of households were engaged in only one type of livelihood activity. Most common were households with only crop production for their livelihood (31.9%) and households with both crop and livestock production (30.3%). Most of the households owned farm animals (74.7%) and farmland (71.7%). Forty-three percent of the households owned less than one hectare of farmland. During the past 12 months, some households did not experience any shocks (39.3%), whereas 33.5% experienced one shock, and 27.3% experienced two or more shocks, with the most commonly experienced shocks being a significant rise in food prices ($n=547$), loss of livestock or poultry to disease or pests ($n=216$), and lower crop yield due to drought, flood, crop disease, or pests ($n=134$) (data not shown). Households in the sample were spread across six

woredas of the Yayu Coffee Forest Biosphere Reserve, with households in Alge Sachi and Yayu contributing the highest numbers.

The results of household food insecurity measures are presented in Table 3. According to the HFIAS, the prevalence of food insecurity was 62.4%, with 10.8% being mildly food insecure, 23.4% moderately food insecure, and 28.1% severely food insecure. Although slightly fewer than half of the households had anxiety or uncertainty about their food supply (46.6%) or insufficient food intake (46.8%), 60.1% reported insufficient food quality. The most common food insecurity conditions were the inability to eat preferred food (51.8%), eating a limited variety of foods (49.8%), and worry about food (46.6%). Fifteen percent reported going to sleep hungry, and nine percent reported going a whole day and night without eating anything.

The association of gender-related, demographic, and household characteristics with household food security is shown in Table 4. As key gender-related variables, participation in decision making is presented first. After adjusting for other factors, households with both the wife and husband making decisions about major purchases were associated with an increased odds of household food security. Compared with households in which the husband or someone else made these decisions, joint decision making was associated with odds of food security that were 44% higher (adjusted odds ratio [AOR] 1.44, CI 1.06, 1.96). Women making these decisions were associated with odds of food security that were 2.15 times higher (AOR=2.15, CI 1.20, 3.85). Women's formal education was also associated with increased odds of household food security. Odds of food security were increased by 42% for women with any primary education (AOR=1.42, CI 1.07, 1.87) and by 65% for women with any secondary or higher education (AOR=1.65, CI 1.25, 2.20) compared with women having no formal education. Other household factors significantly associated with increased odds of food security in the adjusted model included livelihood activities other than only crop production (with more than one income stream showing the highest odds); ownership of farm animals; having experienced less than two shocks during the past 12 months; and not being in the lowest wealth category. Households located in Chora and Yayu had 2 times the odds of being food secure compared with households located in Alge Sachi (AOR=2.12, CI 1.26, 3.55 and AOR=2.02, CI 1.34, 3.06, respectively). As seen in the unadjusted model, households in which women had been employed in the past 12 months had reduced odds of reporting food security (AOR=0.45, CI 0.34, 0.61). Women who made decisions alone about how to use their cash earnings also showed reduced odds of food security compared with decisions made by a husband or someone else (AOR=0.34, CI 0.18, 0.64).

Discussion

Food insecurity is a major public health challenge in Ethiopia. In our study of households living in the Yayu Coffee Forest Biosphere Reserve, food insecurity was identified in almost two-thirds of households, with nearly 30% assessed as severely food insecure. This study adds to the body of literature on factors associated with household food security by introducing gender-related variables. The results from regression analysis showed that egalitarian decision making on major purchases and how cash earnings were used were related to increased odds of being food secure, even after adjusting for other sociodemographic and household factors commonly associated

with food security. Households in which the respondent women had any formal education also showed increased odds of food security. These findings support the hypothesis that households that are more gender equitable are more likely to be food secure, and that women's empowerment within a household leads to increased opportunities to contribute to the production and use of agricultural products and income. These findings are similar to those of case studies in other African countries, for instance, Kehinde et al. [11] in Nigeria and Galiè et al. [6] in Tanzania. Results indicated that a reliance on small-scale crop production and a lack of livelihood diversity contributed to the high level of food insecurity in this region, which is a similar finding to previous research in the country (Beyene & Muche [2]; Eneyew & Bekele [5]; Shone et al. [19]). Moreover, household wealth, woreda of residence, and not having experienced recent major shocks, such as rising food prices, loss of livestock or poultry, or low crop yield, were also found to be significantly related to household food security.

Although women's economic empowerment is key to lasting food security [22], the measure of women's employment was not found to be positively related to household food security in this analysis. This finding suggests that the employment variable was not capturing economic agency related to the ability to act, but rather, the economic need of the household to have supplemental income in addition to that of the male head of the household. This thesis is supported by results from an analysis of women's empowerment and household food security in KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa, which found that the income of women's husbands was the most significant determinant of food security among married women's households [18].

A main strength of this analysis is that it considered gender-related variables not included in previous research on food security in Ethiopia, such as women's name on the title or deed of households owning land, participation in decision making about major household purchases and how cash earnings were used, and participation in women's associations or women's self-help groups, which may be used to provide opportunities to learn new livelihood skills, access to credit and banking, and communication or self-advocacy skills. The study provided unique insight on a region that is "resource rich but livelihood poor," and used information collected from women who were positioned to know the situation of the household food security status very well. We also collected and analysed information on the household's experience of significant shocks in the past 12 months.

One limitation of this work is that self-reported measures of the experience or perception of food insecurity,

Table 4 Association of gender-related, demographic, and household characteristics with household food security, FUTURES baseline survey, 2021; $N=1.113$

Characteristic	Food insecure ($n=657$)		Food secure ($n=456$)		Crude odds ratio (COR)			Adjusted odds ratio (AOR)		
	Freq	(%)	Freq	(%)	COR	(95% CI)	<i>P</i> value	AOR	(95% CI)	<i>P</i> value
Person who decides on major household purchases										
Woman	89	77.7	30	22.3	0.71	(0.50, 1.00)	0.05^a	2.15	(1.20, 3.85)	0.01
Woman and husband jointly	376	56.3	329	43.6	1.91	(1.51, 2.42)	< 0.01	1.44	(1.06, 1.96)	0.02
Husband or other	192	71.2	97	28.8	Ref			Ref		
Person who decides on how the woman's/wife's cash earnings are used (among women who have earnings, $n=1.080$)										
Woman	99	83.1	23	16.9	0.51	(0.36, 0.72)	< 0.01	0.34	(0.18, 0.64)	< 0.01
Woman and husband jointly	383	55.7	347	44.3	2.00	(1.60, 2.49)	< 0.01	1.44	(0.93, 2.24)	0.10
Husband or other	152	71.5	76	28.5	Ref			Ref		
Person who decides on how the man's/husband's cash earnings are used (among women whose husbands have earnings, $n=1.029$)										
Woman	34	74.9	12	25.1	0.82	(0.48, 1.41)	0.46	1.30	(0.58, 2.92)	0.52
Woman and husband jointly	397	57.3	345	42.7	1.83	(1.48, 2.25)	< 0.01	1.09	(0.69, 1.75)	0.70
Husband or other	161	71.0	80	29.0	Ref			Ref		
Age groups										
15–24	148	62.3	113	37.7	Ref					
25–29	180	61.9	124	38.1	1.02	(0.83, 1.25)	0.87			
30–34	93	59.3	77	40.7	1.13	(0.87, 1.49)	0.35			
35–39	140	63.4	81	36.6	0.96	(0.75, 1.22)	0.72			
40–49	96	64.8	61	35.2	0.90	(0.70, 1.15)	0.39			
Marital status										
Married/in union	602	60.8	447	39.2	5.26	(2.89, 9.59)	< 0.01			
Not currently married/in union	55	89.1	9	10.9	Ref					
Highest level of school attended										
No formal education	245	67.0	133	32.9	Ref			Ref		
Primary	257	61.5	182	38.5	1.27	(1.03, 1.58)	0.03	1.42	(1.07, 1.87)	0.02
Secondary and above	155	58.2	141	41.8	1.46	(1.18, 1.80)	< 0.01	1.65	(1.25, 2.20)	< 0.01
Employed in the past 12 months										
No	84	52.9	73	47.1	Ref			Ref		
Yes	573	63.9	383	36.1	0.63	(0.49, 0.82)	< 0.01	0.45	(0.34, 0.61)	< 0.01
Employment pay type										
Not employed	84	52.9	73	47.1	3.12	(2.31, 4.23)	< 0.01			
Employed but not paid in cash	353	56.7	303	43.3	2.69	(2.10, 3.44)	< 0.01			
Employed and paid in cash	220	77.8	80	22.2	Ref					
Has bank account										
No	468	63.9	298	36.1	Ref					
Yes	189	59.1	158	40.9	1.23	(0.99, 1.53)	0.07			
Had access to credit in the past 12 months										
No	552	62.5	386	37.5	Ref					
Yes	105	61.7	70	38.3	1.03	(0.87, 1.23)	0.72			
Participation in women's associations or women's self-help groups										
No	445	62.9	297	37.1	Ref					
Yes	212	61.4	159	38.6	1.06	(0.85, 1.33)	0.57			
Woman's name is on title/deed (among households owning land, $n=798$)										
No	106	58.4	80	41.6	Ref					
Yes	354	61.4	258	38.6	0.88	(0.70, 1.11)	0.27			
Household size										
1–2	40	62.7	32	37.3	1.00	(0.64, 1.54)	0.98			

Table 4 (continued)

Characteristic	Food insecure (n=657)		Food secure (n=456)		Crude odds ratio (COR)			Adjusted odds ratio (AOR)		
	Freq	(%)	Freq	(%)	COR	(95% CI)	P value	AOR	(95% CI)	P value
3–4	283	62.1	198	37.9	1.02	(0.85, 1.23)	0.83			
5+	334	62.6	226	37.4	Ref					
Crop production										
No	173	68.4	87	31.6	Ref					
Yes	484	60.2	369	39.8	1.44	(1.10, 1.87)	0.01			
Livestock production										
No	472	65.7	288	34.3	Ref					
Yes	185	55.2	168	44.8	1.55	(1.20, 2.00)	< 0.01			
Off-farm self-employment										
No	609	62.0	431	38.0	Ref					
Yes	48	67.2	25	32.8	0.80	(0.53, 1.19)	0.26			
Off-farm wage employment										
No	558	64.2	372	35.8	Ref					
Yes	99	53.1	84	46.9	1.58	(1.15, 2.19)	0.01			
Other										
No	561	62.7	378	37.3	Ref					
Yes	96	60.8	78	39.2	1.09	(0.85, 1.39)	0.50			
Number livelihood activities										
Only one	420	70.5	219	29.5	Ref					
More than one	237	51.5	237	48.5	2.25	(1.80, 2.81)	< 0.01			
Diversity of livelihood activities										
Only one: crop production	253	71.0	140	29.0	Ref			Ref		
Only one: other than crop production	167	69.8	79	30.1	1.06	(0.77, 1.44)	0.73	1.12	(0.72, 1.72)	0.61
More than one: crop and livestock production	178	54.5	165	45.5	2.04	(1.53, 2.72)	< 0.01	1.92	(1.38, 2.67)	< 0.01
More than one: any other combination	59	44.0	72	56.0	3.11	(2.18, 4.44)	< 0.01	2.92	(2.13, 4.01)	< 0.01
Ownership of farm animals										
No	189	73.6	77	26.4	Ref			Ref		
Yes	468	58.5	379	41.5	1.98	(1.60, 2.45)	< 0.01	1.87	(1.41, 2.50)	< 0.01
Ownership of farmland										
No	197	66.4	118	33.6	Ref					
Yes	460	60.7	338	39.3	1.28	(1.04, 1.57)	0.02			
Farmland size in hectares										
No farmland	197	66.4	118	33.6	Ref			Ref		
= < 1 hectare	287	64.9	176	35.1	1.07	(0.87, 1.31)	0.50	1.03	(0.76, 1.38)	0.86
> 1 hectare	173	54.6	162	45.4	1.65	(1.29, 2.11)	< 0.01	1.35	(0.96, 1.90)	0.08
No. of experiences of significant shocks in the past 12 months										
0	171	41.2	266	58.8	5.77	(4.37, 7.61)	< 0.01	5.93	(4.16, 8.44)	< 0.01
1	243	72.3	120	27.3	1.52	(1.13, 2.04)	0.01	1.88	(1.37, 2.59)	< 0.01
2+	243	80.1	70	19.9	Ref			Ref		
Woreda										
Alge Sachi	207	64.1	115	35.9	Ref			Ref		
Bilo Nopa	47	61.0	31	39.0	1.14	(0.82, 1.58)	0.42	1.15	(0.78, 1.70)	0.46
Chora	105	54.4	88	45.6	1.50	(0.91, 2.46)	0.11	2.12	(1.26, 3.55)	0.01
Doreni	49	56.5	37	43.5	1.38	(0.75, 2.52)	0.29	1.70	(0.85, 3.40)	0.13
Hurumu	111	70.3	47	29.7	0.76	(0.59, 0.96)	0.03	0.87	(0.62, 1.23)	0.43
Yayu	138	50.1	138	49.9	1.79	(1.19, 2.69)	0.01	2.02	(1.34, 3.06)	< 0.01

Table 4 (continued)

Characteristic	Food insecure (n = 657)		Food secure (n = 456)		Crude odds ratio (COR)			Adjusted odds ratio (AOR)		
	Freq	(%)	Freq	(%)	COR	(95% CI)	P value	AOR	(95% CI)	P value
Wealth quintiles										
Lowest (Poorest)	162	71.0	62	29.0	Ref			Ref		
Second	130	62.8	92	37.2	1.45	(1.05, 2.00)	0.03	1.52	(1.10, 2.09)	0.01
Middle	139	65.6	83	34.4	1.28	(0.87, 1.89)	0.20	1.55	(1.05, 2.30)	0.03
Fourth	115	55.8	108	44.2	1.94	(1.47, 2.55)	<0.01	1.74	(1.26, 2.40)	<0.01
Highest	111	56.8	111	43.2	1.86	(1.37, 2.54)	<0.01	2.22	(1.57, 3.13)	<0.01

[a] Statistically significant associations are shown in bold

such as those included in the HFIAS, are subjective and, therefore, susceptible to reporting bias (Tadesse et al. [21]). Recent research from the Amhara region of Ethiopia found that respondents tended to both overstate food availability and understate access (i.e., intensity), providing evidence that biases are non-linear and reflect competing priorities of social and economic desirability, especially in relation to participation in intervention programs (Tadesse et al. [21]). The data for this analysis represent households in program intervention and non-intervention areas, although selection for participation in the survey was not based on current or anticipated program participation. A separate analysis of the food insecurity measures by whether households were in the FUTURES program intervention or non-intervention areas found that households in the intervention areas were significantly more likely to report being food secure (47.5% vs. 34.5%) and were less likely to report anxiety and uncertainty, insufficient quality of food intake, insufficient food intake, or conditions related to food insecurity [12]. Because the intervention and non-intervention areas were located in different woredas, these findings are likely reflected by the significance of woreda in the adjusted model.

Last, the HFIAS measures the status of a household 4 weeks before data collection. The data for this study were collected from November 30 to December 12, 2021, which was the main harvesting season in study area and, therefore, the reported magnitude of food insecurity might be different from assessments conducted during other seasons. Moreover, unmeasured temporal factors, such as weather, may have affected harvesting and food production, and in turn, contributed to household food insecurity.

Conclusions

This study presents findings from a cross-sectional survey conducted in the Yayu Coffee Forest Biosphere Reserve of Oromia, Ethiopia. The study met its objective to expand on previous research by assessing non-demographic gender-related measures and their association with household food security in this region. The findings indicated a high prevalence of food insecurity in the study area. Households in which the female respondent was engaged in decisions around major household purchases and/or how their earnings were to be spent were more likely to be food secure. Formal education of the lead female, household participation in more than one livelihood activity, asset ownership, and less exposure to recent shocks also had positive associations with household food security.

The findings suggest that enhancing the agency of women to participate in asset ownership and household economic decision making, expanding female literacy and education, and diversifying income sources to include off-farm wage employment in the Yayu Coffee Forest Biosphere Reserve are important steps for improving household food security. Further research on the role of women’s economic empowerment, employment, and wage earning in relation to food security in this region may help inform development programs focused on livelihood generation and diversification.

Supplementary Information

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Additional file 1: Household Food Insecurity Access Scale Score and Categorization

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Author contributions

All authors contributed to the study conception and design. All authors participated in material preparation. FM led the data collection. Data analysis was performed by HH. The first draft of the manuscript was written by JB-OF, and all authors commented on previous versions of the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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Availability of data and materials

The data sets generated and analysed during the current study will be publicly available in the Dataverse repository (<https://dataverse.org/>) once all analysis and publication from the data are completed. In the meantime, data sets are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate

The questionnaire and methodology for this study were approved by the Institutional Review Board of the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill (IRB# 21-2143), the Jimma University College of Agriculture and Veterinary Medicine Research Ethical Review Board (Ref. No. R/GS/S22/2021), and the Faculty of Public Health Ethical Review Board (Ref. No. IHRPG 1/2021). Informed consent was obtained from all individual participants included in the study.

Consent for publication

Not applicable.

Competing interests

The authors declare they have no competing interests.

Author details

¹Independent consultant, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. ²Carolina Population Center, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, Chapel Hill, NC, USA. ³Department of Maternal and Child Health, Gillings School of Global Public Health, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, Chapel Hill, NC, USA. ⁴Department of Agricultural Economics and Agribusiness Management, Jimma University College of Agriculture and Veterinary Medicine, Jimma, Ethiopia.

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Honelgn Nahuseay Hiruy Honelgn Hiruy holds a PhD in Tropical Medicine from the Tulane University School of Public Health and Tropical Medicine, USA, 2021. He completed a M.Sc in Epidemiology (2010) and B.Sc in Public Health (2006) from Haramay University School of Public Health, Ethiopia. His research focuses on infectious disease programs. For his doctoral work, he assessed the durability of long-lasting insecticidal nets in Ethiopia. He has experience in monitoring and

evaluation of public health interventions, surveillance, and longitudinal data analysis. He also teaches biostatistics at Addis Continental Institute of Public Health.



Janine Barden-O'Fallon Dr. Janine Barden-O'Fallon has worked in the field of monitoring, evaluation and research in international health and development for more than twenty years. She specializes in family planning and reproductive health, collecting primary quantitative and qualitative data, developing M&E tools and methodologies and providing technical assistance to global initiatives, government agencies, and organizations on the collection, analysis and use of

information for program planning and decision-making. She is a Senior Research Associate at the Carolina Population Center and faculty member in the Maternal & Child Health Department, Gillings School of Global Public Health, at the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill.



Fikadu Mitiku Fikadu Mitiku is an Associate Professor of Agricultural and Development Economics at Jimma University. He has PhD in Bioscience Engineering from KU Leuven in 2017, MSc in International Development Studies (Economics of Rural Development) from Wageningen University in 2011 and BSc in Natural Resource Economics and Management from Mekelle University in 2006. His research areas focus on integrated program impact evaluation, the role of private sustain-

ability standards on sustainable development, food security, nutrition, poverty, gender, climate smart agriculture, agribusiness and value

chains and the role of institutions. He has several publications in peer reviewed journals in the area of his research interest. His overall goal is to understand the complex development challenges of developing countries and to contribute to resilient food system that would help ensure food security and alleviate poverty.



Elizabeth Millar Elizabeth Millar, MPH, is a Research Associate with the Data for Impact and PMI Measure Malaria projects at the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill. Ms. Millar is an experienced researcher and project manager with a demonstrated history of working to strengthen health systems globally. Ms. Millar is skilled in qualitative research, including complexity aware methods and user sensory research perceptions, multi-sectoral collaboration, and health education.

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