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Editorial Note

JADS is a re-instituted journal after some seven years of interruption. Congratulations to all the editorial board members and the University management for realizing this noble goal! Having been reinstituted in February 2019, the new JADS Editorial Board embarked on a series of institutional and framework setting and building for the journal. Having received a total of 28 manuscripts since last June and undergoing a double-blind peer-review process, three manuscripts have passed a rigorous review process and are now included in this sixth volume.

Article 1 by Berihu Asgele assesses determinant factors of sustainable urban land management in Tigray and Amhara regions of Ethiopia, using a mixed-methods approach with a concurrent nested strategy. The author argues that urban land management remains using outdated and traditional systems. People in the Amhara region were more cooperative in the urban land management system than those in Tigray. The main factors of urban land management are lack of commitment, lack of human resources, political influence, maladministration and instability of rules. These factors are hampering the effective management of urban land in both regions. Hence, people are not satisfied with the service of urban land management. The author recommends the regional governments need to reconsider the policy, employ an automated system, and work against the identified factors.

Kataro Galasso & Ramakrishna Gollagari's article evaluates the capacity of micro, small and medium enterprises to forge rural-urban relationships that will assist towards achieving the goals of Growth and Transformation Plan. Their study was based on a concurrent triangulation mixed-method approach using both quantitative and qualitative data with a questionnaire survey from 525 owners/managers of micro, small and medium enterprises as the main data collection tool. The study also collected qualitative data through informant interviews from 22 MSME owners/managers and 10 urban planners. They argue that the Ethiopian micro, small and medium enterprises do not seem to be on the right track in their relationship to the agricultural sector as required by the government policy, strategies and the GTP. The authors argue that in order to promote the linkage between the two sectors and areas, both the agricultural and MSME sectors productivity should be enhanced through improved agricultural productivity and enhancing the performance of the small business sector to provide agricultural inputs.

In Article 3 Sisay Demeke presents his study findings on factors affecting women's triple gender roles in Awura Woreda employing concurrent design with a mixed approach. The author found out that that harassment, low decision-making power, and Poverty were challenges facing women. Access to property, traditional healers, and food aid were opportunities. The author recommends that governmental and non-governmental organizations should work on service delivery, training on income-generating potential and awareness-raising.

Finally. I would like to extend my gratitude to the ECSU for financial support. and scholars, reviewers, and editors for their valuable contribution to make this issue of the highest quality.

Editor-in-chief

Determinant Factors of Sustainable Urban Land Management System in Tigrai and Amhara Regions, Ethiopia

Berihu Asgele*

Abstract:

The purpose of the study was to assess the determinant factors of sustainable urban land management in the Tigray and Amhara regions of Ethiopia. A mixed-methods approach with a concurrent nested strategy was employed. A total of 353 questionnaires were collected from implementers and users of the urban land management system; FGDs 8 with implementers and interviews with 24 experts, middle, and top managers were conducted. Quantitative data were analyzed and presented using independent sample t-test, logistic and multiple regressions; while qualitative data were analyzed using a thematic analysis approach. The result indicated that urban land management remains using outdated and traditional systems. People in the Amhara region were more cooperative in the urban land management system than those in Tigray. Nonetheless, the magnitude of the differences in the means (mean difference = -0.36, 95% CI: -0.63 to -0.09) was very small (eta squared = -.029). The main factors of urban land management are lack of commitment, lack of human resources, political influence, maladministration and instability of rules. These factors are hampering the effective management of urban land in both regions. Hence, people are not satisfied with the service of urban land management. Thus, the regional governments need to reconsider the policy, employ an automated system, and work against the identified factors.

Keywords: Urban land management, Determinant Factors, Comparing Tigray and Amhara

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Background and Introduction

The land, which is a limited supply, is critical to urban development (Garba & Al-Mubaiyedh, 1999; Madan, 2015). As nations grew in size and rural areas become urban centers, so these centers become giant metropolitan areas—thus, there is always increased competition as well as demand for land for different purposes (Aribigbola, 2008). The huge demands of urban land because of ongoing urbanization becomes more problematic if there is a problem of identifying who holds what land, which lands are private, which are government-owned, and the various land-use types (Alemie, Zevenbergen, & Bennett, 2015). Many urban problems are linked in one way or another with the operation of the mechanism for managing land (Garba & Al-Mubaiyedh, 1999). Therefore, the management of land can play an important role in providing conditions for maximizing the potential for a beneficial process of urbanization and minimizing the negative impacts on the poor and vulnerable (Locke and Henley, 2016).

Land management encompasses all activities related to the management of land and natural resources that are needed to realize viable development (Enemark, 2005). Urban land management is a system of interrelated actors and activities as a result of which the most efficient allocation and utilization of urban space, particularly of land, is ensured (Fekade, 2000). The urban land management in Africa is a complicated task since it employs traditional administration systems. Moreover, the urban land administration system is not indigenous. Current urban land management models and

practices applied in Sub-Saharan Africa have been, by and large, borrowed from western countries and often are inheritances of colonialism, except few like Ethiopia (Fekade, 2000). Hence, it is not convenient with the African urban standards and characteristics of the people. The notable deficiencies of urban land management systems in Sub-Saharan Africa are the emergency and proliferation of informal elements like land acquisition, land delivery process, land titling among others (Gondo, 2012a).

Like other African countries, the urban land management system is a challenge and center of wrangle in Ethiopia. Land, for most Ethiopians, is central to livelihood. Land constitutes one of the factors of production, and access to land facilitates access to a key resource in value-adding economic activities (Stebek, 2015). The land management system in Ethiopia is generally weak and surrounded by a growing number of weaknesses and threats (Alemie et al., 2015). Furthermore, the Ethiopian urban land management system is troubled with a high degree of informality (Lindner, 2014). Land management systems are institutional frameworks, which need to be carried out, with the aid of national cultural, political, and judicial settings, and via technology, considering that it is very hard (Enemark, 2005). However, urban land management in Ethiopia is accompanied with the absence of independent institution at the federal and region levels, lack of underlying urban land policy, lack of coordination of the existing institutions, lack of societal participation and transparency, and weak capacity for implementation and monitoring of laws and spatial plans (Alemie et al., 2015). Tigray and Amhara Regions have shared experiences in many of their administration issues. These regions not only share a similar administration system but also have similar cultures and traditions. Historically, they have many events and practices shared in common both in the urban and rural land management systems. Even though there are slight differences in their urban land management systems, most of their practices are common. Therefore, a study to identify the determinant factors of the sustainable urban land management systems and figuring out if there are differences between these regions is important.

Problem Statement

Urban land is encountered with complex management in Ethiopia because it is a major socio-economic asset and struggle over who controls the land which is the same with the question of controlling power has played a significant role in the history of Ethiopia and could continue to do so (Belachew & Aytenfisu, 2010). Therefore, managing urban land has become a serious challenge since it is the space overall urban activities are carried out (Dube, 2013). There is a complex institutional environment for land administration in Ethiopia (Fairlie, Burns & Kebede, 2017). Moreover, Lindner (2014) argued that the Ethiopian urban land administration system is troubled with a high degree of informality. She has seconded that there is a lack of clear policies in Ethiopia. However, the ruling party argues that the public policies are well and brilliantly formulated but ineffectively implemented. Therefore, assessing the determinant factors of sustainable urban land management system would help expose the reality.

Many empirical studies on urban land management have been conducted in Ethiopia (cf. Gondo & Zibabgwe, 2010, Gondo, 2011, 2012a, 2012b, Achamyeleh, 2014, Dube, 2013, Belachew & Aytenfisu, 2010, Lindner, 2014, Bennett & Alemie, 2016, Tessema, Girma Defere, & Admas, 2016, Alemie et al., 2015, Kebede, 2017, Sungena, Serbeh-Yiadom & Asfaw, 2014, Weldesilassie & Gebrehiwot, 2017, Belay, 2018, & Mengie, 2017). However, neither of these studies has focused on the determinant factors of urban land management systems. Of course, a handful study (e.g. Lindner and Fairlie et al.) came up with the determinant factors of urban land management systems but their focus was on the institutional factors. Moreover, some of these studies are very narrow in their scope, conducted in a single town/city (Example, Belay, 2018, Dube, 2013, Sungena, Serbeh-Yiadom & Asfaw, 2014, Tessema, Girma Defere, & Admas, 2016); while others are very vast, and conducted at a national level (Example, Mengie, 2017, Lindner, 2014, Weldesilassie & Gebrehiwot, 2017, Bennett & Alemie, 2016). In addition to the high dissatisfaction of beneficiaries on urban land management, therefore, this study is motivated to fill the geographic and content scope gap of previous studies. Furthermore, Amhara and Tigray regions were selected because of the experience and similarity they have on urban land management systems. According to the Ministry of Urban Development, Housing & Construction (2014) report indicated that the 2000-2003 City Proclamations were developed first in Amhara followed by Tigray. In the end, all regions followed, more or less, the result registered in Amhara and Tigray. These regions were centers for an experimental test of the city proclamations, including the urban land management systems. Thus, it is wise to conduct a study in these regions. Hence, the study addressed the following research questions.

How are modern urban land management systems are utilized in the Tigray and Amhara Regions of Ethiopia?

What are the determinant factors influencing urban land management in Tigray and Amhara Regions of Ethiopia?

Is there a significant difference in beneficiaries' cooperativeness with the urban land management offices in Tigray and Amhara Regions of Ethiopia?

Objectives of the study

The general objective of the study was to assess the determinant factors of sustainable urban land management in the Tigray and Amhara Regions of Ethiopia. The specific objectives are:

1. Assess the utilization of modern urban land management systems in Tigray and Amhara Regions of Ethiopia
2. Identify the determinant factors influencing urban land management systems in Tigray and Amhara Regions of Ethiopia
3. Compare the cooperativeness of beneficiaries with the urban land management offices in Tigray and Amhara Regions of Ethiopia

Literature Review

Urban Land Management

Virtually all human activities require land but, because of the diverse needs of different human activities, there is often intense competition for land (Nuhu, 2007). The land as a source of the economy has always been the subject of debate in the research literature between scholars who favor a neo-classical economic approach to its management and those who favor a political economy approach (Garba & Al-Mubaiyedh, 1999). As the processes of rapid urbanization led to increased competition over land ownership and higher land prices in urban and suburban settings, it is useful to design appropriate Land Use Planning in order to balance conflicting interests (Dadi et al., 2016). Land management is the process of putting the resources of land into good effect, which all activities associated with the management of land and natural resources that are required to achieve sustainable development (Enemark, 2005). The central to land disputes and conflicts is the issue of security of tenure; which demands an enabling land

administration (Nuhu, 2007). Therefore, the vital role of land for development makes it imperative to ensure that it is properly managed (Garba & Al-Mubaiyedh, 1999).

Land administration is concerned with the management of the land tenure system, including arrangements for monitoring and enforcing many of the laws and regulations affecting tenure. In any country, land administration is a product of the political and social development of the nation (Nichols, 1993). Urban land administration is a complex issue and more difficult in developing countries. Therefore, to address the contemporary urban land management related challenges, formulating and implementing policies and laws through the prime consideration of the principles of governance are important to create a harmony between urban people and urban land (Alemie et al., 2015). Effective urban land management is not only left to the government or another body. Successful sustainable land management efforts rely on stakeholder support and integration of stakeholder knowledge (Klaus, 2005). Considering the complexity of sustainable development, sustainable land management – is supposed to support a sustainable (land) development – has as well to be defined as process orientated as action-orientated (Lange, Siebert, & Barkmann, 2015). They have argued that in urban land management it is not only a matter of what kind of development can be achieved but also of how this is done (e.g. participatory, transparent). Hence, urban land management highly requires the involvement of different stakeholders with genuine participation, transparency, equity, etc.

Urban Land Management in Ethiopia

Urban land governance in Ethiopia is neither a new phenomenon nor adopted from other western countries, unlike other African states. The urban land management system has traced back to the Imperial regimes. It has been practicing based on the indigenous systems in a long time. The urban land management system in Ethiopia is reaching this period through many ups and downs. It has been accompanied by different informalities and challenges, as well as good practices in its path. Historically, the issue of land in Ethiopia has been a vital and sensitive topic throughout different times (Achamyeleh, 2014). Even though urban land management responsibility is given to the city administrations in Ethiopia, the system is different among the cities. Gondo (2012) argued that urban informality in the land management process is plural and characterized by multiple linkages in Ethiopia. According to him like many other developing countries, the land management process in Ethiopia has not been immune to the growing phenomenon of urban informality. Besides, one of the main problems in urban land administration is the absence of clear legislation as well as confusion about the applicability of legislation (Lindner, 2014). Of course, the legislation by itself has not any problem but implementers do not obey the rules and regulations rather, provide circular letters during implementation.

A good land administration needs clarity on land issues and the decisions of the body responsible for administrating land at any level (Belay, 2018). The government has made efforts to address rural and urban land administrations by strengthening land administration systems and the development of Land Use Planning at national and regional levels (Dadi et al., 2016). Even though efforts have been carried out to develop the policy and legislative framework for urban land administration, these initiatives need to evolve into scaled up (Fairlie et al, 2017). The current Ethiopian land administration programmes are not harmoniously coordinated between national and regional levels (Belachew, 2010). Urban land management policies in Ethiopia are not backed by detailed guidelines and working procedures; coordination problems impinge upon the efficiency of infrastructure provision; there is lack of systematic land management information system that would serve as a basis for decision making; and there is lack of capacity to effectively implement, monitor, and update urban land management related policies (Yusuf, Tefera & Zerihun, 2009). Nevertheless, the Ethiopian government is confident enough about the quality and content of the policies, and it always advocates through media the policies are well formulated.

Materials and Methods

Study Design and Sampling Techniques

This study employed a mixed-method approach; more specifically, a concurrent nested design was applied. The study employed both primary and secondary data sources. The primary data were collected using key informant interviews, focus group discussions, and questionnaires. Secondary data sources were collected from the reports and plans of urban land management offices. The urban land management policy of Ethiopia was also reviewed.

This study was conducted both in Tigray and Amhara regional states of northern Ethiopia. The focus of the study was on the regional and zonal capital cities due to its center to business and investment. The regional capital cities i.e. Mekelle and Bahir-Dar were taken purposefully because the demand for urban land in these cities is very high. Besides, they have a large population size and a high flow of people. Next to the regional capital cities, the Zonal capital cities have a high demand for land and investment. Amhara and Tigray have ten and six Zonal capital cities respectively. Among these three randomly selected cities were targeted. Thus, the Adi-Grat, the Axum, and the Shire from Tigray and Debre-Berhan, Dessie and Gondar from Amhara were taken. Next, the urban land management office of each selected city was taken purposively because the mandate for urban land administration was given for them. At last, the individual respondents were recruited using two different ways. On the one hand, beneficiaries were recruited using a convenient sampling method. Volunteer beneficiaries who visited the urban land management offices during the data collection process were taken for this study. On the other hand, employees or implementers of urban land management were recruited using a systematic random sampling method. The list of all employees in each selected urban land management office was collected from the human resource. Finally, implementers were drawn based on a certain number of intervals. 48 from each selected city and a total of 384 participants were recruited in this study. Finally, 353 completed surveys were returned, representing a response rate of 91.9 percent.

The total population for this study was not known. Hence, it was calculated based on the following Kothari (2004) formula employed in the unknown population.

(Z^(2) p q)/e^2 ……1

((1.96)^(2) (.5)(1-0.5))/⟦(0.05)⟧^2 = 384

Where: Population is Unknown;

e = .05 (since the estimate should be within 5% of the true value);

z = 1.96 (as per the table of the area under the normal curve for the given confidence level of 95%).

As we want the most conservative sample size, we took the value of p = .5 and q = 1-p.

In the interview part, the managers of the urban land management offices and regional directors were recruited purposefully based on the reason that they have a thorough knowledge and information concerning urban land management systems. Thus, one interviewee from each city urban land administration office and both the regional urban land directors totally, ten key informants were recruited. Moreover, case team coordinators were recruited purposefully to participate in the focus group discussion due to their responsibility and detail knowledge on the issue. One in each regional capital city totally two focus group discussions were conducted in this study.

Data Collection Tools

A questionnaire, key informant interview, and focus

group discussions were employed in this study.

Questionnaire:

A semi-structured questionnaire was developed to collect data on the factors of urban land management. The questionnaire has consisted of five Likert scale questions. The questionnaire had open-ended and close-ended questions.

Key Informant Interview:

This instrument was administered to key informants who were selected purposefully. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with all the managers of the urban land management offices in the selected cities and two directors of the regional urban land management. Interviews were conducted to investigate thoroughly the determinant factors based on the experience of the top managers and triangulate it with the quantitative data.

Focus Group Discussion:

Focus Group Discussions were conducted in the regional capital cities with team coordinators in the implementing institutions. The participants in each FGD were ranged from 8 to 10 experts. It was employed to elicit a wide variety of different views about the factors of urban land management systems. It was employed to offers the opportunity of allowing people to probe each other's reasons for holding a certain view. Moreover, it enabled participants to argue on the determinant factors and the reason behind it, and finally reach censuses on it. Therefore, it substantiated the quantitative result through triangulations.

Document review:

Documents in the urban land management offices like annual reports and plans were reviewed to substantiate the first-hand information.

Model Specification and Data analysis

Multiple and logistic regression models were employed in this study. Multiple regression analysis was employed to distinguish existing relationships between effective urban land management systems and its determinant factors such as governance, motivation, skill, teamwork, leadership, politics, commitment, and human resources among others. Therefore, the eight explanatory variables were used to predict the dependent variable (effective urban land management system). The choice of explanatory variables has been obtained from existing literature in the area. The adopted model assumed the following statistical formula;

$$Yi = \beta0 + \beta1X1i + \beta2X2i + \beta3X3i + \beta4X4i + \beta5X5i + \beta6X6i + \beta7X7i + \beta8X8i + \varepsilon i \quad (i = 1,2,\ldots,N)$$

Where Y = Effective urban land management system

β0 to β7 = Are parameters to be estimated

X1= Governance

X2= Motivation

X3= Skill

X4= Teamwork

X5= Leadership

X6= Politics

X7= Commitment

X8= Human resource

The logistic regression model was applied to identify technology-related determinant factors on urban land management system's effectiveness. Moreover, it determined the difference of the explanatory variables as well as the effectiveness of urban land management systems between the two regions i.e. Tigrai and Amhara. The logistic regression model answers the question 'how do you see the status of urban land management systems' that the answer is effective, or ineffective. The numerical values of 0 and 1 were assigned to the two outcomes of a binary variable. Hence, the 0 represented a negative response i.e. ineffective and the 1 represented a positive response i.e. effective. The choice of explanatory variables was made on the basis of a review of literature on urban land management systems and the urban land policy of Ethiopia. The logistic regression model can be expressed mathematically as follows;

$$Y = \beta0 + \beta1X1 + \beta2X2 + \beta3X3 + \beta4X4 + \beta5X5 + \beta6X6 + \beta7X7 + ui$$

Model variables were therefore defined as follows;

Y = is the dependent variable (i.e. status of effective urban land management systems, 0=ineffective and 1=effective)

β0 = is the intercept (constant) term

β1 to β7 = coefficients of explanatory variables

X1= Regions (1=Amhara 2= Tigrai

X2= Standardized cadaster

X3= Digital service delivery

X4= Automation system

X5= Digital identity number

X6= Land grabbing

X7= Green area development

An independent sample t-test was also employed to see the significant difference between the two regions in citizens' cooperation on the urban land management process. The qualitative data were first transcribed and summarized according to the objectives of the study. Therefore, the qualitative data obtained through the interview, FGD and document review were described qualitatively in the description.

Model Evaluation

In the regression process, all the assumptions were conducted and checked in order to proceed into the main analysis part. Therefore, in the multiple regressions, the results which were presented in the table labeled Coefficients; the two values Tolerance and VIF (Variance inflation factor) calculated the collinearity diagnostics. According to Pallant (2016), Tolerance is an indicator of how much of the variability of the specified independent is not explained by the other independent variables in the model and is calculated using the formula 1–R squared for each variable. If this value is very small (less than .10) it indicates that the multiple correlations with other variables are high, suggesting the possibility of multicollinearity. The other value given is the VIF (Variance inflation factor), which is just the inverse of the Tolerance value (1 divided by Tolerance). VIF values above 10 would be a concern here, indicating multicollinearity. Therefore, all the values of Tolerance are above 0.10 and all the values of VIF are below 10. Hence, the study has not violated the multicollinearity assumption.

Moreover, the preliminary analyses were conducted to ensure no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity. One of the ways that these assumptions can be checked is by inspecting the Normal Probability Plot (P-P) of the Regression Standardized Residual and the Scatter-plot that were requested as part of the analysis. In the Normal P-P Plot, the points are lying in a reasonably straight diagonal line from bottom left to top right. This indicates that there is no major deviation from normality. In the Scatterplot of the standardized residuals, the residuals are roughly rectangularly distributed, with most of the scores concentrated in the center (along with the 0 points). Deviations from a centralized rectangle suggest some violations of the assumptions (Pallant, 2016).

In the model summary, R square explained how much of the variance in the dependent variable is explained by the model (which includes the independent variables). In this study, the value is .569. Expressed as a percentage (multiply by 100, by shifting the decimal point two places to the right), this means that the model (which includes governance, motivation, skill, teamwork, leadership, politics, commitment, and human resources) explains 56.9 percent of the variance in effective urban land management systems. This is quite a respectable and a big result. To assess the statistical significance of the result, it is necessary to look at the ANOVA result. This tests the null hypothesis that multiple R in the population equals 0. The model in this study reached statistical

significance (Sig. = .000; this really means p <.0005). In the logistic regression model, the goodness-of-fit test in this study was analyzed using:

The Omnibus of Model Coefficients gives us an overall indication of how well the model performs, over and above the results obtained, with none of the predictors entered into the model (Pallant, 2016). For this set of results, we want a highly significant value. In this study, the value is .005 (which really means p□.005). Thus, the chi-square value for this study is 20.23 with 7 degrees of freedom.

The Hosmer & Lemeshaw Test also supported the model as being worthwhile. For the Hosmer-Lemeshow Goodness of Fit Test poor fit is indicated by a significance value less than .05, so to support our model we actually want a value greater than .05 (Pallant, 2016). Therefore, in this study, the chi-square value for the Hosmer-Lemeshow Test is 3.228 with a significance level of .863. This value is larger than .05, therefore indicating support for the model. The Cox & Snell R Square and the Nagelkerke R Square values provide an indication of the amount of variation in the dependent variable explained by the model (Pallant, 2016). In this study, the two values are .103 and .159, suggesting that between 10.3 percent and 15.9 percent of the variability is explained by this set of variables.

Results and Discussions

This section presents the result of the study. The urban land management systems were evaluated based on the performance indicators included in the urban land management and development policy of Ethiopia formulated in 2011. The result indicated that the urban land management systems in both regions are not effective

As it is indicated in Table 1, binary logistic regression was performed to assess the urban land management systems on the likelihood of its effectiveness. The model contained seven independent variables (region, standardized cadaster, digital service, automation system, digital identity number, land grabbing, and green area development). The full model containing all predictors was statistically significant, $\chi 2$ (7, N = 186) = 20.23, p < .005, indicating that the model was able to distinguish the effectiveness and ineffectiveness of the urban land administration. The model as a whole explained between 10.3% (Cox and Snell R square) and 15.9% (Nagelkerke R squared) of the variance in urban land management effectiveness. Amhara region is 2.86 times more likely to exhibit effective urban land management than the Tigrai region. As shown in Table 1, only three of the independent variables made a statistically significant contribution to the model. The strongest predictor of effectiveness was green area development, recording an odds ratio of 1.80. This indicated that Amhara is over two times more likely effective in green area development than Tigrai, controlling for all other factors in the model. The odds ratio of .45 for the automation system was less than 1, indicating that Amhara is .45 times less likely to report having an automation system, controlling for other factors in the model.

The qualitative result (specific from which method, interview of FGD) indicates that the land banking system is introduced in both regions in the near past, but it is not auditable and has no effective system of implementation. Moreover, land banking is not started appropriately, especially in small towns. Thus, there is no modern handling and management mechanism of land banking. There is land inventory, but a land information system is not effective because of material shortage, lack of human resources, and lack of educated employees. Even though the counting of small free plots, giving identity number of plots and registration is started, the ownership right for the small free plots and other lands under ownership controversy are still not finished. So, without accomplishing all these issues, it is difficult to bring it into land banking.

Despite starting the cadaster system, trained professionals and established an office, it is not decentralized into all the Woreda towns. On one hand, the cadaster system is only found at the regional level and on the other hand, even at that level, it is not implemented effectively. Hence, it is

Table 1: Binary Logistic Regression Predicting Likelihood of Reporting Effectiveness in Urban Land Management

		B	S.E.	Wald	df	p	Odds Ratio	95% C.I.for Odds Ratio		
								Lower	Upper	
Step 1[a]	Region (1)	1.052	.404	6.776	1	.009	2.86	1.297	6.325	
	Standardized cadaster	.130	.218	.359	1	.549	1.14	.744	1.745	
	Digital service delivery	.115	.325	.126	1	.722	1.12	.594	2.120	
	Automation system	-.800	.387	4.267	1	.039	.45	.210	.960	
	Digital identity number	.363	.332	1.192	1	.275	1.44	.749	2.758	
	Land grabbing	.262	.264	.991	1	.320	1.30	.776	2.179	
	Green area development	.589	.288	4.196	1	.041	1.80	1.026	3.167	
	Constant	-3.822	.854	20.039	1	.000	.02			

a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: region, standardized cadaster, digital service, automation system, digital identity number, land grabbing, and green area development.

Table 2: Multiple Linear Regressions on the factors of Urban Land Management

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.396	.186	2.132	.034
	Governance	.175	.078	.167	2.258	.025
	Motivation	-.072	.046	-.106	-1.563	.120
	Skill and ability	-.156	.089	-.156	-1.757	.081
	Teamwork	.177	.077	.195	2.302	.022
	Leadership	.367	.084	.365	4.353	.000
	Politics	.311	.068	.338	4.554	.000
	Commitment	.121	.048	.160	2.537	.012
	Human resources		-.123	.055	-.151	-2.235	.027

a. Dependent Variable: Effective urban land management

not functional till now because of material shortage.

Even though automation and digital service are mentioned in the policy, they are not functional. In the Tigrai region, the plot numbers are entered into soft copy, but still, there is a problem of possessing appropriate software. Except for AutoCAD, there is no modern system utilized in urban land management. For example, in the Tigrai region, land parcel identification number was started, but it was stopped because of an unclear standard. Of course, the files and the land are now in the process of harmonization, but the modern systems are not fully functional. Even though there is interruption in the implementation process, relatively urban land information management is good. But still, there is poor utilization of technology in the urban land management system on the available resources. Furthermore, the illegal urban land grabbing, illegal constructions, and illegal practices on the land are common. A little bit of the urban land grabbing is decreased, but it is not stopped.

As it is indicated in Table 2, a multiple regression was run to predict the effectiveness of urban land management based on the factors (governance, motivation, skill, teamwork, leadership, politics, commitment and human resources). These variables statistically significantly predicted the effectiveness of urban land management, F (9, 175) = 25.637, p < .0005, R2 = .569. Among the eight, six variables added statistically significantly to the prediction, p < .05. Therefore, the major factors for the effective urban land management are governance, teamwork, leadership, politics, commitment and human resources.

The qualitative result indicated that implementers do not know the contents of the urban land policy appropriately. So, they are implementing the policy without understanding its objectives and intended outcomes. Besides, commitment is a major problem in the implementation process. Urban land

administration is the riskiest and sensitive area. A slight risk does not have any excuse. The minor error does not consider a mistake, instead, it is considered as a misuse of power or corruption. Therefore, implementers are hesitant to implement urban land management appropriately; instead, they are escaping from giving a decision because a minor error in the land issues lets them cost a lot.

Table 3: Citizens' cooperativeness comparison on the urban land management between the two regions

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	
Cooperativeness of citizens			Tigrai	2.46	.95	.175	.676	-2.71	189	.007
	Amhara	2.82	.91			-2.71	186.290	.007		

The focus group discussants addressed that the proclamations on urban land such as proclamation no. 818 Urban Landholding Registration, Urban Lands Lease Holding Proclamation no. 721/2011, Urban Planning Proclamation No. 574/2008, Expropriation of Landholdings for Public Purposes and Payment of Compensation proclamation no. 455/2005, and Re-Enactment of Urban Lands Lease Holding Proclamation 272/2002 have gaps. For instance, Urban Lands Lease Holding Proclamation 721/2011 states "If essee, with the exception of inheritance, wishes to transfer his leasehold right prior to commencement or half-completion of construction, he shall be required to follow transparent procedures of sale to be supervised by the appropriate body." What does half-completion mean? It is not clearly stated in the proclamation. Thus, the ambiguity in the proclamations is hindering the urban land management systems. Furthermore, the annual report of the urban land management offices in both regions indicated that the available numbers of human resources are not carrying out the workload of the office because of the number of employees and customers are not matching. The urban land management offices did not fulfill the required demand for human resources.

The annual plan of Mekelle and Bahir Dar cities' urban land management office indicated that they would fulfill all the necessary materials for the budget year. However, the annual report for both cities indicated that they had material shortage like a laptop, computer, stationery materials, tables, and other office equipment and logistics supplies (vehicles for fieldwork). There is no network to check Google Earth. Besides, a lot of factors in urban land management, inter alia, complexity of illegal work on urban land, integrity problem, delay in service delivery, lack of responsibility, frequent change of regulations, shortage of budget, lack of controlling illegal construction, inappropriate compensation, contradiction of proclamations and addressing it through circular letter are included in the annual reports. The cabinet of the town gives decisions out of regulation and the implementation is carried out accordingly. Thus, the professionals and political appointees do not agree on the urban land issue. As a result, ineffective communication between these two bodies affects urban land management.

There is a difference between the two regions in the structure and implementation process of urban land management. For example, the Tigrai region gave 70 square meter residence land for unions while this program is not applicable in the Amhara region. They have also valuation difference of urban land.

Another major problem is that the structure plan of cities and the actual at the ground is different. The residential areas, business areas, investment areas, and green areas provided in the structural plan are not exactly found at the ground. For instance, the satellite image of Mekelle city is not designed based on the facts at the ground. In this city the residential area in the structural plan found to be a forest, the business area became the residence and contrariwise at the ground. Thus, it hinders to implement urban land management effectively.

As it is indicated in Table 3, an independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the cooperation of beneficiaries in the urban land management process between the regions of Tigrai and Amhara. There was significant difference in scores for Tigrai (M = 2.46, SD = 0.95) and Amhara (M = 2.82, SD = .91; t (189) = -2.71, p = .007, two-tailed). The magnitude of the differences in the means (mean difference = -0.36, 95% CI: -0.63 to -0.09) was very small (eta squared = -.029). Even though the effect size was small, there is a significant difference between Tigrai and Amhara on the cooperation of beneficiaries in the urban land management process.

Both the interview and focus group discussion result indicated that people were not satisfied with the urban land issue and its management. The beneficiaries react in a negative way when they dissatisfied or disappointed by the service renders. They quarreled and insult with the implementers. Moreover, citizens reflected complaints through illegal control of urban land, illegal buildings, conflict with the implementers and hiding information. Therefore, citizens' cooperativeness with the implementers is low.

Conclusion and Recommendations

The purpose of this study was to assess the determinant factors of sustainable urban land management in the Tigrai and Amhara regions of Ethiopia. The urban land management and development policy of Ethiopia has clearly stated standardized cadaster, digital service, automation system, digital identity numbers for plots, etc. as performance indicators of urban land administration. However, these performance indicators are not effectively implemented in both regions. Of course, cadaster and digital identity numbers for plots are commenced but it is not yet efficiently implemented. This implies that the existence of a well-designed policy is good but not sufficient condition for sustainable urban land management. Comparatively, Amhara showed effective urban land management in green area development than Tigrai while it was less likely to report having an automation system. To address these problems, on one hand, both regions should have to share experience based on their effectiveness. For example, Tigrai should take the experience of green area development from Amhara and vice versa in the automation system. On the other hand, the regional governments shall do with all stakeholders that render effective service delivery to make the urban land service online. Finally, strong land information administration and management systems are required because having all these in places helps for efficient and transparent land management in the regions.

Sustainable urban land management has not yet achieved despite the endeavor of the two regional governments to address the problem. The major factors of urban land management systems in the two regions are the absence of good governance, ineffective teamwork, leadership failure, political interventions in the decision process and appointment of leaders, lack of commitment and shortage of human resources. Moreover, shortage of budget, shortage of material, illegal land invasion, unfair compensation for farmers, contradicting laws, circular letters, and inappropriate structural plans are factors of urban land management systems.

It is, therefore, recommended that appropriate intervention through effective training for the implementers and education for the general public. Moreover, proper monitoring and evaluation strategies in place to manage the emerging and evolving factors of urban land management systems. Strengthen the institutional capacity of land administration is also required to address the factors and stay independent. It is also stressed that urban good governance which is explained by elements including equity, efficiency, transparency, responsiveness, accountability, sustainability, subsidiary, participation, and security must be well ensured in the regions. Finally, advanced planning and re-considering urban land policy are important.

Beneficiaries are not working in cooperation with the implementers because of the major factors aforementioned. Besides, there is a significant difference between the two regions. Citizens are more cooperative with implementers in Amhara than Tigrai though the effect size was small. Therefore, the regional governments should work collaborating with the beneficiaries by creating a consultation and participatory podium.

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The Contributions of Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises in Strengthening Rural-Urban Linkages in Wolaita Zone, South Ethiopia

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Abstract

Development policies and strategies of Ethiopia envisage micro small and medium enterprises as a strategic tool for strengthening rural-urban linkages and for bringing overall economic development and poverty eradication. This is due to the role of the enterprises in bridging urban and rural areas together and showing the interdependence of the rural and urban economies in developing countries. However, the Ethiopian micro, small and medium enterprises do not seem to be on the right track in their relationship to the agricultural sector as required by the government policy, strategies and the Growth and Transformation Plan (GTP). The objective of this paper is to evaluate the capacity of micro, small and medium enterprises to forge rural-urban relationships that will assist towards achieving the goals of Growth and Transformation Plan. The study is based on a concurrent triangulation mixed-method approach using both quantitative and qualitative data with a questionnaire survey from 525 owners/managers of micro, small and medium enterprises as the main data collection tool. The study also collected qualitative data through informant interviews from 22 MSME owners/managers and 10 urban planners. The paper finds from the study that as high as 53.1 percent of micro, small and medium enterprises in the three administrative towns of Wolaita in south Ethiopia are wholly or partially dependent on industrial products for their inputs and that only 1.5 percent appear involved in the production and supply of agricultural inputs. Moreover, as much as 57.6 percent of the study's respondents chose the main reason hindering linkages as the unavailability of preferred and quality raw materials in the local market. In order to promote the linkage between the two sectors and areas, both the agricultural and MSME sectors' productivity should be enhanced through improved agricultural productivity and enhancing the performance of the small business sector to provide agricultural inputs.

Key Words: rural-urban linkages; micro, small and medium enterprises; Wolaita Zone, South Ethiopia

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Background and Introduction

Developing countries including Africa need to enhance agricultural productivity to strengthen rural-urban linkages by providing raw materials for the industrial sector especially for small and medium manufacturing enterprises as well as to create new markets for manufactured consumer goods. Small and medium enterprises can equally play a greater role in the linkage through agricultural input provision and agricultural product

utilization. According to the United Nations Industrial Development Organization (2011) report, African countries can exploit the potential complementarities between agriculture and industry through careful use of policies to promote a mutually beneficial relationship between them.

However, traditionally, urban and rural areas have been viewed as exclusive and competing spheres placed in separate areas for planning, development and investment purposes (Tacoli, 2004). As stated by von Braun (2007), a simplified concept of rural and urban areas, with the words rural referring to more “remote farming areas” and urban to “crowded cities”, has adopted by development policy and related research. This view has facilitated the isolated treatment of issues affecting each space, and it has, as a result, failed to recognize the important socio-economic development interlinkages that exist between the two spaces and the many variants of the spaces.

Such approaches are the causes of failures of development planning due to lack of coordination between rural and urban development (regional) planning in developing countries including Ethiopia. Most of the development policies in developing countries are not considering the strong linkage between urban and rural areas. As indicated by von Braun (2007), “in reality, farming areas (the very rural) and the megacity (the very urban) coexist along a continuum with multiple types of flows and interactions happening between those two spaces”. In Ethiopia, during the regimes of Haile Selassie, I and the Derge regime, development strategy was based on Import Substitution Industrialization (ISI) (Dorosh et al., 2011). This strategy gave emphasis to large industries neglecting the agricultural sector, small enterprises and the linked development between the agricultural sector and small enterprise.

During that time, paradoxically, primacy was given to the industrial sector in a context where the economy still depended on agriculture for its capital accumulation, food supply, raw materials, foreign exchange generation, and market demand. That situation made the ISI strategy to be unsuccessful to promote the socio-economic development of the nation due to its limited focus on the agricultural sector and the underdeveloped industrial sector. Moreover, under ISI, most of the expertise, know-how, equipment, and inputs were imported from abroad. Likewise, most of the profits also left the country in different forms and left hardly a sustainable effect on indigenous micro, small and medium enterprises (Tegegn and Mulat, 2005) and the agricultural sector.

On the contrary, the current government of Ethiopia in its Economic Development Policy gave priority to the prior development of the agricultural sector by adopting a total shift from the industry to

agriculture first strategy known as Agricultural Development Led Industrialization (ADLI) in 1993 (Dorosh et al., 2011). However, the great focus on agriculture resulted in a strategy that did not give enough attention to the nonagricultural sector and urban areas signifying that an urban development policy was not issued until 2005 (Dorosh et al., 2011). Belay (2012) notes the challenge of focusing on rural areas and agriculture as a catalyst for industrialization. The authors indicated the inability of agriculture to feed and sustain the rapidly growing rural population, let alone to function as a catalyst for industrialization.

The output of many researchers and academics indicated that micro, small the and medium enterprises (MSMEs) development in urban centers can immensely contribute to break regional imbalance and promote regional development of both urban and rural areas (Admire, 2014; Sibanda, 2012). The enterprises established in urban centers are the ones, which enable them, perform their functions and shape the basis for their growth and development (Tegegn and Mulat, 2005). Das (2017) notes the contribution of the MSME sector, as an engine for the socio-economic transformation of the country, is extremely essential in addressing the national objectives of bridging the rural-urban divide, reducing poverty and generating employment to the teeming millions of youth population. Due to their contributions, urban planners and academics in Sub-Saharan Africa have now acknowledged that the future of the region's competitiveness and socio-economic development depend on the MSMEs performance in urban centers of the region (Raftopolous, 2006 cited in Admire, 2014). Hence, it is necessary to verify the important contribution of MSMEs in bridging the rural-urban divide. This study argues that the development of MSMEs in Ethiopia is critical for the development of both rural and urban areas through strong rural-urban linkages.

Statement of the Problem

Agriculture is the backbone of the Ethiopian economy as the sector employs a large populace, supplies raw materials for the urban expanding industries, and ensures the supply of food demand for an increasingly urban and rural population and export items, thus, creating strong rural-urban linkages (Legesse, 2014). It is in this light that the incumbent government of Ethiopia has designed an ADLI strategy between rural and urban areas to attain rural-urban interlinked development. Cognizant of this fact, the Growth and Transformation Plan of Ethiopia (GTP) has been adopted to attain rapid industrialization and structural transformation as its core objectives with emphasis given to the expansion of MSMEs in all

regions. Nevertheless, the existing sector has failed to fulfill the envisaged roles of transforming the economy and strengthening the rural-urban linkages. There is little evidence that Ethiopian micro, small and medium enterprises are aware of the huge opportunities that exist and can be realized under a truly structured and performing rural-urban economic integration. The core problem addressed in this paper is the failure of the Ethiopian micro, small and medium enterprises to create forward and backward production linkages between agriculture and small enterprises and large enterprises; and the inability of research and development institutions in larger urban centers to strengthen the rural-urban interdependent economy. It is generally expected that strong rural-urban and urban-urban linkages via MSMEs enhance the performance of the sector and can manifestly expand economic development and drastically cut poverty through job creation and capital formation.

Therefore, the objective of this paper is to examine the contributions of micro, small and medium enterprises in strengthening rural-urban production linkages in the context of dependence on locally produced agricultural raw material and, conversely, the role of these enterprises in providing agricultural inputs and domestically produced manufactured goods to the local farmers. The specific objectives are

1.To examine the linkages of micro, small and medium enterprises with the agricultural sectors.
2. To examine the linkages of micro, small and medium enterprises with the larger firms and Research and Development Institutions.
3. To derive suggestions for strengthening micro, small and medium enterprises linkages with agriculture and larger firms and Research and Development Institutions.

Literature Review

The Concept of Rural-Urban Linkage

Among the major concerns of developing countries are extreme poverty, unemployment, and economic growth. A number of studies have been conducted with the objective of identifying appropriate development strategies in these countries to bring sustainable development. The objective of this section is to review some of these studies and provide the conceptual framework for the study. Four strands of ideas focus on the development strategies that developing countries follow to solve their extreme poverty and unemployment problems. The issue of whether the same or different development strategies needed for developing countries and developed countries is still debated among development organizations, experts and policymakers.

Modernization Theory

One of the theories that argue about the development strategies of developing countries is the modernization theory. Modernization theory was developed in the mid-20th Century. Modernization is the term used for, the drastic transformation from the traditional society of the past to modern society as found in the west (Tettey, 2005). According to this author, modernization theory introduces modern methods of production like the use of advanced technology for the industry. The underdeveloped countries might experience this modern technology to strengthen their economies and this will lead them to development. The theory assumes that the industrial structure in the developing countries will show a parallel development to what has happened in Europe and the USA (Tegegn and Mulat, 2005). The authors also indicated the statement of modernization theory that production is concentrated in larger urban centers to exploit the agglomeration economies, thus, small enterprises are believed to disappear as the economy grows. Corbridge and Jones (2004) pointed out the suggestion and argument of W. Arthur Lewis's two-sector model of a developing economy by equating agriculture with countryside and industry with towns and cities. This was based on the assumption that there was considerable unemployment or disguised employment in the countryside that could be transformed into the modern (urban-industrial) sector of the economy at no cost. This situation contributes positively to the overall socio-economic development by improving the living standards of the migrants and their immediate families.

The Dependency Theory

The modernization theory is criticized by its inability to account for global south underdevelopment by a group of scholars collectively known as the dependency school, which originated in Latin America (Tettey, 2005). These opponents of the modernization theorists arrived at the formulation of the dependency theory as an alternative. The core idea of the dependency view is that Western capitalism cannot be entrusted with the advancement and industrialization of the poor countries. The relationship between the West and the global south is not at all beneficial to the latter. Evidence of this obvious asymmetry is the global south's persisting underdevelopment and reliance on the capitalist giants for capital, technology, and export product market. In dependency theory, micro, small and medium enterprises "survive either indirect dependency on the large enterprises or in other forms such as “sub-contractors, petty producers and traders operate in extremely competitive markets with no possibility to earn profit sufficient to invest and grow" (Pederson, 1989 cited in Tegegn and Mulat, 2005).

Similarly, Akkoyunlu (2015) citing Singer (1964) indicated that in the 1950s and 1960s, ‘modernization’ was characterized as a shift of labor towards higher productivity sectors i.e., from agriculture to manufacturing and services. However, sluggish job creation in the non-agricultural sector and a failure to absorb the fast-growing urban populations has led to a shift in emphasis back towards the agricultural sector through structural adjustment programmes designed to encourage crop production for export in the 1970s (Akkoyunulu, 2015). This failure of non-agricultural sectors and the assumption of scholars that government policy biased towards urban sectors led to urban bias theory.

Urban bias Theory

Urban bias theory, on the other hand, led by Lipton (1977), argues that policies favor the urban areas to the disadvantage of the rural areas, hence the concentration of facilities and the creation of favorable conditions in the urban areas. One of the central ideas was that goods and services originating in rural areas were underpriced relative to a market 'norm'; goods and services flowing from urban areas were overpriced (Tettey, 2005). State policies allegedly overtax rural citizens with similar incomes. The production of the rural areas, notably agricultural products, is overtaxed due to price twists. Overtaxing works in the following way. State-controlled marketing boards buy agricultural products from the local farmers at an artificially low price and then resell these products to the consumers at the prevailing higher market price; the difference is often used to provide facilities in the urban areas.

In addition, governments in developing countries tend to invest domestic capital on the provision of development facilities. These facilities are largely located in the urban areas while a larger proportion of the population is found in rural areas. The facilities include hospitals, schools, libraries and other government/semi-government facilities. Investable resources in favor of the rural dwellers, who are farmers, in the form of roads, small-scale irrigation facilities, agricultural machinery, and storage facilities are often downplayed by the policymakers. Higher standards of living are created in the urban areas resulting in the creation of disparity between the urban and the rural areas. As a result, rural dwellers tend to migrate to urban areas to take advantage of favorable policies.

Uribe-Echevarria (1991) showed that in the mid-seventies, the policy changed from the conceptual link between industrialization (urbanization) and inter-regional inequalities to inter-sectoral imbalances in regional development. According to the author, inter-regional disparities were considered the effect of the neglect of the agricultural sector, and their reduction was

anticipated to come from new sectoral investment priorities. In this regional development policy, the industry in general, large or small, no longer figured at the core of regional development. The priority of the policy was changed from employment and poverty to food production and rural development (Uribe-Echevarria, 1991). The gaps in income and employment opportunities between rural and urban areas were assumed to be narrowed by redressing resource allocation bias favoring urban development leading to reduce regional disparities (Lipton, 1977; Uribe-Echevarria, 1991). The limitation of this view was ignoring or had a negative view of the industrial sector and urbanization that is important for rural-urban economic linkages and not successfully addressed the problems of regional disparity. Based on these limitations and due to the complementary and supporting role of urban development towards agriculture initiated another alternative strategy that brings mutual or integrated development of the two spaces.

Urban Continuum View

Kihonge (2014) ascertains that both the pro-urbanization view (modernization theory) and the pro-rural view (urban bias theory) are self-limiting and not benefiting the two areas, thus, the rural-urban continuum view brings in synergy or mutual benefit for the two spaces in rural-urban interaction. The flows and interconnections between rural and urban areas are justification for the rural-urban continuum views. Tacoli (2004) shows exchanges of goods and services between urban and rural areas as an essential element of rural-urban interactions. The interactions take many different forms "the flow of people (migration, commuting), capital (public and private) and goods (food, raw materials, and farm inputs), idea and innovation (farm and harvest techniques), information, environmental impact (uncontrolled urbanization) between the two areas"(Legesse, 2014). This situation blurred the space between the two areas, thus, development planning such as urban planning needs to consider the interaction of the two spaces together.

he analysis of the study was descriptive that combined both quantitative and qualitative data. The quantitative data were analyzed using descriptive statistics by using statistical packages for social science (SPSS) to generate percentages and tables. Results obtained both from quantitative and qualitative data were triangulated.

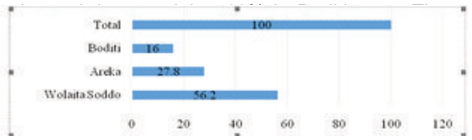


Figure 2: Distribution of the Sampled Firms in the Urban Administrations in Percent
Source: Survey Result, 2018

As presented in Figure 2, the distribution of the enterprise was not uniform in the urban centers. It was more predominant in Wolaita Soddo town as a zonal center, which accounted for more than half of the enterprises in the three biggest urban centers. This result is in line with the survey results of MSE of MoUDC (2013), which indicated the majority of the firms, are from Addis Ababa and regional urban centers than other urban centers in the country.

Distribution of Firms in Sector

The study adopted the sectoral breakdown based on the classifications used by researchers such as Liedholm and Mead (2002). These authors have found variations in enterprise and owner characteristics across sectors and used sector dummies in their analysis to take account of sectoral variations that would have an effect on the firm's performance. The World Bank report (2007), also analyzed the distribution of gender, education and other characteristics across sector composition based on data from CSA of Ethiopia, and posits that there are observable variations in these characteristics across the sector. Table 2 shows the distribution of firms in terms of the sector in the sampled towns

Table 1: Sample size for Quantitative data

No	*Study Urban Center*	*MSMEs Sector*	*No of Firms*	*Sample Size Taken*
		Manufacturing	334	89
1	Wolaita	Service	228	58
	Soddo	Trade	427	113
		Construction	132	35
		Sub-Total	**1121**	**295**
		Manufacturing	71	23
2	Boditi	Service	122	29
		Trade	58	16
		Construction	62	16
		Sub-Total	**313**	**84**
		Manufacturing	170	46
3	Areka	Service	103	31
		Trade	183	48
		Construction	88	21
		Sub-Total	**544**	**146**
Total			**1978**	**525**

Source: Data from Wolaita Zone Urban Development and Housing Department, processed by the researcher, 2018

The analysis of the study was descriptive that combined both quantitative and qualitative data. The quantitative data were analyzed using descriptive statistics by using statistical packages for social science (SPSS) to generate percentages and tables. Results obtained both from quantitative and qualitative data were triangulated.

Results and Discussion

Spatial Distribution of Enterprises

As stated in Figure 2 below, 56.2 % of the firms are in Wolaita Soddo town, 27.8% in Areka and the remaining 16% in Boditi town. The implication is that Wolaita Soddo town as a zonal center housed more than half of the firms.

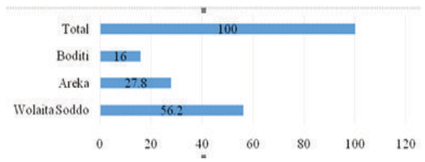


Figure 2: Distribution of the Sampled Firms in the Urban Administrations in Percent
Source: Survey Result, 2018

As presented in Figure 2, the distribution of the enterprise was not uniform in the urban centers. It was more predominant in Wolaita Soddo town as a zonal center, which accounted for more than half of the enterprises in the three biggest urban centers. This result is in line with the survey results of MSE of MoUDC (2013), which indicated the majority of the firms, are from Addis Ababa and regional urban centers than other urban centers in the

country.

Distribution of Firms in Sector

The study adopted the sectoral breakdown based on the classifications used by researchers such as Liedholm and Mead (2002). These authors have found variations in enterprise and owner characteristics across sectors and used sector dummies in their analysis to take account of sectoral variations that would have an effect on the firm's performance. The World Bank report (2007), also analyzed the distribution of gender, education and other characteristics across sector composition based on data from CSA of Ethiopia, and posits that there are observable variations in these characteristics across the sector. Table 2 shows the distribution of firms in terms of the sector in the sampled towns

Table 2: Distribution of Firms in terms of Sector in Towns

Sector/Town	Soddo %	Areka %	Boditi %
Manufacturing	30.2	31.5	27.4
Trade	38.3	32.9	19.0
Service	19.7	21.2	34.5
Construction	11.9	14.4	19.0

Source: Survey Result, 2018

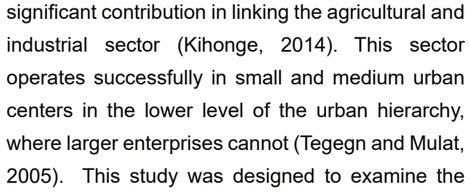
According to the data, most of the firms engaged in the trade sector, followed by the manufacturing and service sectors. This division of enterprises by sector is believed to be helpful to study each sector's critical factor that affects their performance.

Distribution of Firms in Size

The sample of respondents as a whole comprised of firms that were fairly micro in terms of size, measured by the number of employees with mean value 5.51 and a standard deviation of 4.28. Using the firm classification in Ethiopia (Less than 6, Micro; 6-30, Small and 31-100 Medium by the number of employees), the majority of the sample firms were micro-enterprises, as illustrated in Figure 3. Likewise, the microenterprise in the trade sector comprised a greater proportion of the sample enterprise compared to the other sectors.

Figure 3: Distribution of Firms in Terms of Size and Sector

Source: Survey Result, 2018



Moreover, there were only three medium enterprises at the sample in terms of employees indicating the enterprises were only micro and small from which some of the enterprises are grown to medium size in terms of capital. This pattern of sample distribution in terms of size and sector was understandable as the lists of registered firms from the administrative towns in the Zone showed that micro-enterprises comprised the majority of the total firms in the sampled urban administrations. The sample also showed that manufacturing sector comprised 30.1 percent of the sampled enterprises

The contribution of Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises in Rural-Urban Linkages

One of the logical steps needed to transform the nation's economy from agrarian to a modern industrial one is by creating a strong bond between agriculture and industry. It is generally believed that micro, small and medium enterprises as one of the important parts of the industrial sector has significant contribution in linking the agricultural and industrial sector (Kihonge, 2014). This sector operates successfully in small and medium urban centers in the lower level of the urban hierarchy, where larger enterprises cannot (Tegegn and Mulat, 2005). This study was designed to examine the level of contribution of micro, small and medium enterprises in urban administrations of Wolaita Zone from the perspective of rural-urban linkages proxied by the dependency of MSMEs on local raw materials for their input, provision of agricultural input, linkages with larger enterprises and research and development institutions.

Table 3: Type of inputs used by Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises by Sector

Types of Inputs	Manufacturing		Trade		Service		Construction		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Local farm produce	17	10.8	13	7.3	11	9.3			41	7.8
Non-local farm produce	3	1.9	5	2.8	2	1.7			10	1.9
Local and non-local farm produce	14	8.9	10	5.6	21	17.8	1	1.4	46	8.8
Industrial products	70	44.3	125	70.6	70	59.3	14	19.4	279	53.1
Locally available raw materials	5	3.2	14	7.9	6	5.1	18	25.0	43	8.2
Others (Specify)	44	27.8	3	1.7	3	2.5			50	9.5
Industrial products and Locally available raw materials	1	.6	7	4.0	5	4.2	39	54.2	52	9.9
Local farm produce and Locally available raw materials	4	2.5							4	0.8
Total	158	100	177	100	118	100	72	100	525	100

Types of Inputs used by MSMEs

One of the dimensions of rural-urban linkages of micro, small and medium enterprises with the agricultural sector is the use of agricultural produce as input for enterprises as a raw material. Tables 3 and 4 below; reveal the type of inputs used by MSMEs by sectors and by the administrative towns.

As indicated by the tables above, most of the enterprises depend on industrial products as input for their firms. This result indicates that backward linkages of enterprises with the local agricultural sector are insignificant. The key informants' interview results from MSME owners/managers and urban planners also show the same result that the dependence of the firms on local raw materials for their input is insignificant. Therefore, the results from both the survey and key informant interviews show that local agricultural products have a limited market by the firms in the zone. This result is consistent with Tegegn and Mulat (2005) who indicated that a large number of firms depend on industrial products for their input in small towns of the Amara region.

Sources of Firms Inputs

The local and external linkages of micro, small and medium enterprises could be examined in terms of the sources of raw materials and market places for their output goods and services. Table 5 shows that most of the firms use non-local raw materials as their firms' raw materials.

Table 3: Type of inputs used by Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises by Sector

Types of Inputs	Manufacturing		Trade		Service		Construction		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Local farm produce	17	10.8	13	7.3	11	9.3			41	7.8
Non-local farm produce	3	1.9	5	2.8	2	1.7			10	1.9
Local and non-local farm produce	14	8.9	10	5.6	21	17.8	1	1.4	46	8.8
Industrial products	70	44.3	125	70.6	70	59.3	14	19.4	279	53.1
Locally available raw materials	5	3.2	14	7.9	6	5.1	18	25.0	43	8.2
Others (Specify)	44	27.8	3	1.7	3	2.5			50	9.5
Industrial products and Locally available raw materials	1	.6	7	4.0	5	4.2	39	54.2	52	9.9
Local farm produce and Locally available raw materials	4	2.5							4	0.8
Total	158	100	177	100	118	100	72	100	525	100

Source: Survey Result, 2018

Table 4: Type of inputs used by Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises by administrative Towns

Firms Input	Wolaita Soddo		Areka		Boditi		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Local farm produce	14	2.7	23	4.4	4	0.8	41	7.8
Non-local farm produce	7	1.3	3	0.6			10	1.9
Local and non-local farm produce	27	5.1	11	2.1	8	1.5	46	8.8
Industrial products	143	27.2	80	15.2	56	10.7	279	53.1
Locally available raw materials	29	5.5	13	2.5	1	0.2	43	8.2
Others (Specify)	4	0.8	1	0.2	1	0.2	6	1.1
Industrial products and Locally available raw materials	70	13.3	15	2.9	14	2.7	99	18.9
Local farm produce and Locally available raw materials	1	0.2					1	0.2
Total	295	56.2	146	27.8	84	16	525	100

Source: Survey Result, 2018

Table 5: Sources of Firms Inputs/Raw Materials

Source of Inputs	Frequency	Percent
Local	82	15.6
Zonal	34	6.5
Outside the Zone but National	122	23.2
Imported	27	5.1
Local and Zonal	70	13.3
Zonal and outside the zone but National	43	8.2
Outside the zone but national and Imported	89	17.0
Local and outside the zone but national	20	3.8
Local, zonal and outside the zone but national	23	4.4
Local, zonal, outside the zone and imported	15	2.9
Total	525	100.0

Source: Field Survey Result, 2018

The qualitative data result from key informant interview also shows that from the total 22 MSME owners/managers interviewed from the three administrative towns of Wolaita Zone, 10 reported national, 7 reported local and imported, 3 reported local and balance 2 reported local and national for the source of their firm inputs. As it is acknowledged both in quantitative and qualitative data, it is clear that the main sources of raw materials are outside the zone and the region (national) which is imported and final finished industrial product showing the low dependence of firms in local raw materials. This result is consistent with Tegegn and Mulat (2005) in the Amara region that most of the firms use non-local sources for their inputs. The implication here is that the majority of small businesses were not aligned to the objectives of Urban Development policy, Industrial Development Strategy and Growth and Transformation Plan of the country, which emphasizes the use of the local agricultural product as firms' inputs.

The results indicated in Table 6 clearly reveal that the use of non-local sources for most firms is increasing or highly increasing. From this result, it is concluded that the dependence of firms on non-local sources

Table 6: Trends of Dependency on Non-Local Raw Materials

Trend	Frequency	Percent
Highly Declining	15	4.4
Declining	29	8.5
Neutral	91	26.7
Increasing	124	36.4
Highly Increasing	82	24
Total	341	100.0

Source: Field Survey Result, 2018

Table 7: Factors that Lead to Dependency on Non-Local Raw Materials

Factors	Frequency	Percent
Due to the unavailability of the raw materials in the local market	109	28.8
To search for better Quality	109	28.8
Due to the insufficient quantity of the raw material in the local market	111	29.3
Others	5	1.3
Due to unavailability of raw materials and to search for better quality	20	5.3
To search for better quality and Due to the insufficient quantity of the raw material in the local market	15	3.9
Due to unavailability of raw materials and Due to insufficient quantity of the raw material in the local market	10	2.6
Total	379	100.0

Source: Field Survey Result, 2018

The study also found as shown in table 7 below unavailability of raw materials and in searching high-quality raw materials as factors that lead to dependency on non-local raw materials. The result shows a big gap in enterprise linkages to the agricultural sector and other sources of local raw materials for the zone's economy to take advantage of it. This result is similar to the study of Legesse (2014), found a huge gap in industrial linkages of medium and large scale manufacturing industries in industrial zones of Ethiopia to the agricultural sector and other sources of raw materials for the country's economy.

Customers for Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises

Concerning customers of the enterprise's Table, 8 presented the customers for the product and service of the enterprises. As stated in Table 8 below, the agricultural

sector is also an important source of market for micro, small and medium enterprises since 68.8 percent of the owners/managers rely on both farmers and town dwellers as their customers.

Table 8: Customers for Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises

Customers	Frequency	Percent
Farmers	6	1.1
Town Dwellers	157	29.9
Both farmers and town dwellers	361	68.8
Others	1	.2
Total	525	100.0

Source: Field Survey Result, 2018

The qualitative data result from key informants interview also shows that from the total 22 MSME owners/managers interviewed from the three administrative towns of Wolaita Zone, 9 reported urban dwellers, 10 reported farmers and urban dwellers and the balance 3 reported farmers, urban dwellers, and visitors as the customers of their firm products/services. As

indicated both in quantitative and qualitative data results, it is clear that the main sources of the market for firms' products/services in the zone w

Table 9: Destination of Outputs of Micro Small and Medium Enterprises

Destination of Outputs	Frequency	Percent
Local	208	39.6
Zonal	41	7.8
Regional	4	0.8
National	2	0.4
International	1	0.2
Local and Zonal	214	40.8
Regional and National	4	0.8
Local, Zonal and Regional	36	6.9
Local, Zonal, Regional and National	6	1.1
Zonal and Regional	9	1.7
Total	525	100.0

Source: Field Survey Result, 2018

The qualitative data result from key informant interviews also shows that from the total 22 MSME owners/managers interviewed from the three administrative towns of Wolaita Zone, 19 reported zonal and the remaining 3 reported local, zonal and regional as the destination of their products/services. As it is illustrated both in quantitative and qualitative data, it is clear from the results that the main destination of the products of the firms' was the zone. Because of this situation demand for output and services of the enterprises is very limited as the majority of the region's population is farmers and dependent on traditional subsistence agriculture that suffers from very low levels of productivity and a high degree of uncertainty. Export to other regions and the national market is very limited. As a result, too many operators pursuit a limited market, creating no incentive for business expansion. Any improvement in the agriculture sector would thus enhance local demand for goods and services.

Therefore, the regional, national and international market is very insignificant for the sampled enterprises operating in the administrative towns of the zone. The result shows that the regional and national linkage for the products and services of MSMEs is not strong. This result is in line with Tegegn and Mulat (2005) that businesses operating in small towns of the Amhara region have a very insignificant national market.

Provision of Agricultural Inputs

Regarding the provision of inputs for the agricultural sector, only a very small number of enterprises are engaged in providing inputs for the sector. Table 10 presented the provision of agricultural inputs for local farmers by sampled enterprises in administrative towns of Wolaita Zone.

Table 10: Provision of Agricultural Inputs by Enterprises

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	8	1.5
No	517	98.5
Total	525	100.0

Source: Field S survey Result, 2018

Therefore, from this result, the linkage of enterprises with the agricultural sector in terms of the provision of agricultural input is not well developed.

The qualitative data result from key informants' interviews of 22 selected MSME owners/managers from the three administrative towns indicates that they are not providing agricultural inputs for local farmers. In addition to the primary data, the secondary data from CSA (2012) also indicated that 45.7 % of medium and large scales manufacturing industries of Ethiopia are agro-based with potential for promoting production linkages with the agricultural sector. Nonetheless, another CSA (2013) report pointed out that a majority of the agro-based firms are highly dependent on imported raw materials.

The secondary data from the structure plan document of the three administrative towns also indicated that the level of rural-urban linkage in the study area is found to be not strong. The documents pointed out the reason for weak rural-urban linkages of the sub-region as subsistence orientation of the rural economy, weak infrastructure development and the low development of manufacturing industries are among the major factors attributed to the feeble rural-urban linkage. The interpretation from both findings is that MSMEs were not the source of farm input or new technology in the region. Hence, any effort to improve the local economy cannot become successful unless capacity is created in small businesses to provide services for transforming agriculture and rural areas and improving the productivity of local farmers.

Linkage with Large Enterprises and Development and Research Institutions

Regarding linkages created with large firms, and research and development institutions, Table 11 shows that 90.5 percent and 93.5 percent of the respondents indicated no linkages with large firms and Research and Development Institutions respectively. The result indicates that enterprises in the Zone did not use the potential of larger firms and Research and Development Institutions to enhance skills and innovation in their productivity

Table 11: Linkages of Enterprises with Large Firms and Research and Development Institutions

Response	Linkage with Large Firms		Linkage with Research and Development Institutions	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Yes	50	9.5	34	6.5
No	475	90.5	491	93.5
Total	525	100.0	525	100.0

Source: Field Survey Result, 2018

From the qualitative data result of the total 22 respondents interviewed, 18 reported that there is no linkage and balance 4 indicated a weak linkage between MSMEs, and large firms and Research and Development Institutions. In this regard, as indicated by the key informants the linkages between MSMEs and large firms and Research and Development Institutions were insignificant.

Thus, both quantitative and qualitative results point out that the enterprises in the Zone did not use the potential of larger firms and research and development institutions to enhance skills and innovation in their productivity, which are useful for their performance. This result is in sharp contrast to small firms in other emerging regions such as in Asia whose linkages between small and larger firms are so strong that it added to the performance of the firms and general competitiveness of the economy (Liedholm and Mead, 2002). In these countries, larger enterprises create a big demand for smaller firms. In contrast to Liedholm and Mead's

argument, MSMEs in the sampled administrative towns sell their products to final consumers than to firms, which reduced their growth. Liedholm and Mead also contend that lack of competitiveness among larger firms in Africa has hampered linkages of MSMEs and larger firms. They found that the nature of clustering in Africa is that independent firms in the same industry are selling similar goods to the final consumer.

These authors further argue that MSEs in these areas that sell to traders and manufacturing firms are more likely to grow than those that sell directly to final consumers and hence the growth of these enterprises is reduced. Therefore, a lack of competitiveness among larger firms in Africa has hampered linkages and subcontracting arrangements with smaller firms. The nature of MSMEs clustering in Africa is that independent firms in the same industry are selling similar goods to the final consumer than traders and larger manufacturing. Hence, clusters in Africa are competing over the same demand than complementing each other in supplying inputs and other required resources and selling their products for traders and larger firms. Concerning linkage with Research and Development Institutions, for example, an investment in research and development may enable a firm to engage in new methods of *production, which would enhance its* future revenue (Belay, 2012). However, MSMEs in administrative towns of Wolaita Zone have little investment in research and development, which hamper their engagement in a new method of production.

Conclusion and Recommendations

The paper sought to assess the contribution of micro, small and medium enterprises to forge beneficial linkages between the rural agricultural sector and urban business sectors to bring about integrated development. Lack of effective linkage with the agricultural sector is one of the major features of the enterprises in the administrative towns of Wolaita. At present, the micro, small and medium enterprises in the urban centers are not a source of farm input or new technology for local farmers in the region. Hence, any attempt to develop the local economy cannot be successful unless capacity is created in the enterprises to provide services for transforming agriculture and rural areas and improving the productivity of small farmers. The main customers of micro, small and medium enterprises in the administrative towns are local farmers and local town dwellers. Because of this situation demand for output and services of the enterprises is very limited as the majority of the region's population is farmers and dependent on traditional subsistence agriculture that suffers from very low levels of productivity and a high degree of uncertainty. Export to other regions and the national market is very limited. As a result, too many operators pursuit a limited market, creating no incentive for business expansion. Any improvement in the agriculture sector would thus enhance local demand for goods and services. There must also be serious thought to raise the income of the town dwellers by creating employment opportunities to increase the demand for MSMEs' products and services. Inter-firm relations and other linkages with research and development institutions are not the features of MSMEs in the study sampled Administrative Towns of Wolaita, which hindered their innovation and in turn performance.

The paper sees a concerted re-awakening of policy-makers, farmers, enterprises, urban and rural managers and planners, and the investment community to the invaluable potentials of a sustainable harmony between small enterprises and the agricultural sector under a strengthened rural-urban economic linkage as the quickest solution to poverty eradication. The following are hereby suggested as recommendations:

- Enhance agricultural productivity and quality of raw material for firms' input since the owners/managers of the firms indicated unavailability and low quality of local raw materials as a reason for their dependence on the non-local raw material.

- Enhance local demand through improved agricultural productivity in the region and increase the incomes of the town dwellers since they are customers of the firms' product.

- Create market linkages for the enterprises to tap the regional and national export markets in their surrounding or larger urban centers including Addis Ababa.

- Create a strong linkage with larger firms and Research and Development Institutions to use their potential to enhance skills and innovation in the productivity of MSMEs.

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Declaration of Authors' Contributions

Kataro Galasso wrote the manuscript with support, guidance and supervision by sharing the ideas from Ramakrishna Gollagari. Both authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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Factors affecting women's triple gender roles: The case of Awura Woreda, Afar Region, Ethiopia

Sisay Demeke Molla*

Abstract

Pastoralist women have enormous roles but not recognized yet. Thus, this issue becomes field of inquiry because pastoral women provide economic values for non-pastoralists. Hence, this study intends to assess factors affecting women's tripled gender roles in Awura Woreda. The study employed concurrent design with a mixed approach. The quantitative data were collected from 196 systematically selected women whereas the qualitative information gathered from purposively selected participants. Descriptive and advanced statistical tools were employed to analyze the quantitative while thematic analysis for qualitative data. The study found that (29-39 women's age group, married, family size 3-5, 6-8) were positive factors; climate variability, drought, inter-conflict, violence, gender relation, and social-service inaccessibility were negative factors. Harassment, low decision-making power, and poverty were challenges. Access to property, traditional healers, and food aid were opportunities. The study recommends that governmental and non-governmental organizations should work on service delivery, training on income-generating potential and awareness-rising.

Keywords: Pastoralist, Tripled Gender Roles, Women

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Introduction

Pastoralism is a land-use system, an economic mode of production, and way of life; and the finely-honed symbiotic relationship between local ecology, domesticated livestock and people in resource-scarce, climatically marginal and highly variable conditions (Getachew et al., 2003; Oxfam, 2011; Okratli & Swift, 2014). Today, nearly 200 million nomadic and transhumance pastoralists throughout the world generate income and create livelihoods in remote and harsh environments where conventional farming is limited or not possible. Pastoralism makes a significant contribution to the gross domestic products in many East African countries through providing livestock production and rangeland management including biodiversity conservation, and wildlife tourism (Hatfield and Davies, 2006). Men and women's pastoralists play pivotal roles through income-generating and natural resource management systems (Ellis, 2000).

Flintan (2011) emphasized that especially pastoralist women are engaged in triple gender roles; i.e. productive, reproductive, and community managing roles. But, their participation in decision-making processes is limited or totally absent.

Decisions regarding herd mobility, planning, conflict resolution, and relations with neighboring groups are usually made by older men. Despite pastoralist women's role is at least equal to that of men, their contribution remained undervalued and widely ignored. Besides, pastoral women faced a number of challenges that hinder their way of life and stifle their ability to adopt changes in their external environment. For instance, worsening poverty, food insecurity, climate variability, gender-based harmful traditions and lack of asset ownership are the major ones (Flintan, 2011). However, issues of pastoral women can be a matter of debate worldwide; otherwise, one can simply extrapolate their dangerous

future lives. Accordingly, it is worthwhile to study women's triple gender roles in empirical settings. Hence, this study intends to assess factors affecting women's triple gender roles in Awura *Woreda*, Afar Regional State of Ethiopia. The study further documents challenges and opportunities regarding women's roles.

Statement of the problem

Pastoralists comprise a major group living in dryland areas and sustain their lives in areas where rainfall is unpredictable from season to season. They live in marginal environments with little or no access to infrastructure and little or no income alternatives apart from livestock production. Also, the climatic conditions of aridity and rainfall variability together with a weak socio-economic and political environment made them vulnerable to poverty. Women especially suffer more because their livelihood invariably depends on the environment than males. Besides, they face lots of challenges such as disproportionate exposure to drought, hunger, epidemic diseases and lack of asset ownership rights. In turn, these situations deter their triple gender roles (Aklilu et al., 2002; Veslemoy, 2006; Oxfam, 2011).

Nevertheless, limited researches have been conducted worldwide. For instance, Iffat (2004) studied women's role in the use and management of rangeland resources in the semi-arid mountains of the pastoralist community, a case study from Karak District, North Pakistan. Kipuri & Ridgewell (2008) studied the exclusion of pastoralist women in the East and Horn of Africa. Ongoro & O'Gara (2008) carried out a study on the impacts of climate change and gender roles in community adaptation, in Samburu East District, Kenya. Furthermore, Elliot et al. (2006) investigated on effects of pastoral sedentarization on children's nutrition, growth, and health among Rendille and Ariaal of Marsabit, Kenya. Mbogori (2008) carried out a study on factors influencing women empowerment among pastoral communities: a case of Gabra Community of Marsabit, Kenya. Adugna & Sileshi (2013) studied double marginalized livelihoods and invisible gender inequality in pastoral societies. Honey et al. (2008) studied pastoral women's property rights in the Afar and Oromia regions, Ethiopia. Aklilu et al. (2013) conducted research on climate change impacts on pastoral women in the Southern lowlands of Ethiopia. Besides, Tewodros (2011) studied gender dimensions of pastoralists' adaptation to the consequences of climate change in Amibara woreda, Afar Region. Samuel (2013) studied the role of Hamer women in the transition. Elizabeth (2008) carried out her research on gender role and pastoralist women's involvement in income-generating activities of women firewood sellers in Shinile district, Somali region, Ethiopia. Also, Tigist et al. (2014) undertook a study on women's workload and role in livestock production in pastoral and agro-pastoral communities of Ethiopia: the case of Afar. Notwithstanding all these empirical studies concerning women's role in the pastoral community so far, it was possible to find out certain gaps. These gaps could be categorized into two major themes which are methodological and conceptual ones.

Methodologically, except for Elizabeth's (2008) study, the rest studies were conducted qualitatively. Hence, they couldn't generalize issues under investigation because they failed to capture statistical data. But the present current study sought to address both quantitative and qualitative data via applied mixed approach with concurrent design. The researcher tries to provide a better understanding of research problems. Thus, this study might help generalize issues on the topic under study as it could capture statistical data through both computed descriptive and inferential statistical analysis techniques. The other methodological gap pertained to participant selection limitations. The aforementioned researchers did their works without considering the gender perspective of participants. Thus, the majority of their target groups were predominantly men pastoralists. Accordingly, these male participants neither expected to clearly point out the challenges women faced nor represented the total population of the study sites. But the current study fills this gap by taking concerned and representative sample women from both male and female-headed households. Conceptually, except Tigist et al.'s (2014) study, the remaining researches weren't holistic in nature; rather they merely oriented on specific issues. Half of them focused on pastoral women's single role i.e. management and involvement in livestock production while the rest launched on impacts of food assistance, sedentarization, conflict and climate change on women. These studies neither emphasized the overall triple gender roles nor considered factors, opportunities, and challenges of women regarding their roles. But the present study is holistic as it holds all the aforementioned issues under its content. In a nutshell, these empirical studies so far had methodological and conceptual gaps. They didn't address the overall triple gender roles, determinants, challenges and opportunities of pastoralist women regarding their roles. The present study aims to fill both methodological and conceptual gaps via addressing the research objectives and questions below by adopting a mixed approach with concurrent design.

The objective of the study

General objective

The general objective of this study is to assess factors affecting women's tripled gender roles in the case of Awura Woreda, Afar Region, Ethiopia.

Specific objectives

To identify the types of roles women play in the pastoral community of Awura Woreda;

To explore challenges and opportunities of pastoral women in the study area; and

To examine factors that determine pastoral women's roles in the study area.

Research Questions

1. What are the types of roles pastoral women play in the study Woreda?
2. What are the challenges and opportunities of pastoral women in the study area?
3. What are the factors that determine pastoral women's roles in the study area?

Review of Related Literature

Concepts of Pastoralism

Pastoralism is any predominantly livestock-based production system that is mainly extensive in nature and uses some form of the mobility of livestock. It is an economic and social system well adapted to dryland conditions and characterized by a complex set of practices and knowledge that has permitted the maintenance of a sustainable equilibrium among pastures, livestock, and people (Hatfield & Davies, 2006; UN, 2007). This source also highlighted that pastoralism is an adaptation to marginal environments, characterized by climatic uncertainty and low-grade resources. It has considerable economic value and latent potential in the drylands and is central to the livelihoods and wellbeing of millions of the world's poor, but the state of knowledge regarding this sector of the economy is weak. Pastoralism is not something to be tolerated until a modern alternative can be found to replace it. It is a sophisticated system of production and land management that has itself been modernized in many countries and is irreplaceable in extensive environments. Accordingly, the term *pastoralist* can be used to indicate both cultural identity and livelihood system. Pastoralists are people who derive more than 50% of the gross incomes of households from pastoralism or more than 15% of households' food energy consumption involves dairy products (Okratli & Swift, 2014).

Economic Values of Pastoralism

Pastoral communities rely on livestock production to sustain the household economy. They get milk and meat for domestic consumption. The income earned from the sale of pastoral products (meat, milk, skins, and hides) enables pastoralists to afford other basic needs. Pastoral animals are also used for transport and ploughing while the droppings are

used as fuel and manure. Predominantly, the livestock provides insurance against shocks and used for ceremonial purposes, especially gifts and dowry. Pastoralism also employs varieties of actors involved in direct production and the value chain of pastoral products. Also, pastoralists make significant contributions to the national economy; general achievement of development goals; and maintenance of the ecosystem in the rangelands. The economic values of pastoralism consist of both direct and indirect values (Hatfield & Davies, 2006). According to these authors, direct values include direct measurable values (livestock sales, meat, milk, skin, and hides) and direct unmeasured values (employment, production, and environmental management skills). Indirect values include indirect measurable values (honey, medicinal plants, tourism services, agriculture input, and market linkages) and indirect unmeasured values i.e. ecological services like aesthetic landscape, animal maintenance of grasslands, water cycling, habitat protection, biodiversity, nutrient cycling, and energy flow.

Gender roles in the pastoral community

According to ILO, (2008) the concept of gender roles denotes that activities ascribed to women and men on the basis of their perceived differences. Gender roles refer to the rights, responsibilities, expectations, and relationships associated with men and women. Such roles are socially determined, change over time and space and are influenced by sociocultural and environmental factors characterizing a certain society, community or historical period. Gender roles aim at setting boundaries between what is perceived as appropriate for women and for men in the society with regards to public and private domains. These roles are accepted as natural and internalized by girls and boys from a very early age by the gender models they learn through their social environment. In most societies, men's roles in the productive domain are prominent whereas their reproductive role is just a subsidiary. Men's productive work usually takes place outside the home allowing them to perform their roles sequentially rather than simultaneously. In most countries, men are more involved in decision-making processes within political activities. They are holding greater political power and being able to exert a stronger influence on their communities. They usually hold greater economic power compared to women. Men's contribution to domestic activities is often limited, but women usually have managed various tasks simultaneously i.e. reproductive, productive and community managing tasks (ILO, 2008).

Likewise, despite the role of women in pastoralist societies is usually quite distinct from that of men, they play significant roles in livelihood development. Within pastoralist societies, the use of labor is highly gender-specific. The division of pastoral labor responsibilities is organized by sex and age. Hence, women engaged in socioeconomic and cultural activities, and in the conservation and sustainable management of natural resources. The great majority of pastoral societies continue to be dominated by men, and women's participation in decision-making processes is limited or totally absent. Decisions regarding herd mobility, planning, conflict resolution, and relations with neighboring groups are usually made by older men. With some exceptions, men own animals and have sole rights to dispose of them through sale and slaughter (Care International, 2014). Pastoral women play a vital role in livestock production, particularly as concerns the responsibility of women for the household food supply. Though this role is overlooked by development planners and government officials, women have been called the hidden hands of pastoral production. In the pastoral community, women are highly concentrated at the lower levels of livestock value chains where they undertake to care for smaller, young and sick stock around homesteads; responsible for milking and minimal milk processing (production of ghee and yogurt), and also responsible for milk marketing at the household level. Women often manage sheep and goats as they tend to be kept closer to the homestead (ILO, 2008).

Furthermore, women tend to be left responsible for the home herd of cattle and camels when men take others on migration. Men link households with the market to obtain input supply and sell the live animals in addition to their substantial engagement in production activities of herding and watering of large livestock like cattle and camels. Most of the men's activities also involve long periods away from the homesteads in satellite camps in search of pasture or markets(ILO, 2008).

Challenges and Opportunities of Women In Pastoral Community

Ethiopian pastoralists are traditionally downgraded. They are deterred by resource degradation, food insecurity, climate variability, and social service inaccessibility. Despite all pastoralists suffered, but women's pastoralists suffered by double marginalization because being both pastoralists and women. They have only limited access to, and control over key productive resources. They also have limited access to reproductive healthcare services, education, and family planning advice. Women played in milk handling and processing, but it is little or no training on quality control, sanitation and value addition. Their work usually goes uncompensated, systematically ignored and undervalued. Also, early marriage, female genital mutilation, and beating are widespread in pastoral areas. Women themselves are often reluctant to report such violence since doing so is considered a sign of weakness (Getachew et al., 2003; Oxfam, 2008; Adugna & Sileshi, 2013; Care International, 2014).

Determinants of Women's Roles in Pastoralist Community

Mongi (2005) & Macha (2011) noted that customs and traditions determined women's roles which might be influenced by the custom and taboos of the pastoralists that give priority to men than women. In decision-making, women have no right to decide on anything even to own family properties. Similarly, Stephen et al. (2014) disclosed that women are important contributors to pastoral livelihoods but have limited access to and control over resources. As Kandusi and Waiganjo (2015), socio-cultural discrimination has put women in a disadvantaged position due to the asymmetrical power relationship between men and women over control of these resources. Moreover, patriarchal attitudes placed pastoralist women in marginalized positions. They bear disproportionate tasks compared with men. As Watson (2010), culturally accepted violence against women (Female Genital Mutilation, marriage-by-abduction, early-marriage, enforced cross-cousin marriage and widow-inheritance) would affect pastoral women. Besides, domestic violence (physical, sexual and psychological) is common and had impacts on women's roles in pastoral areas. This survey also showed that gender relations determined women's role in pastoral areas. Men and women experience different power relations within members of the village community. Flintan (2011) also stipulated that social capital (norms, social relations and organizations) enable people in a society to coordinate action to achieve their objectives. But women generally have limited access to social capital. It is subject to a number of variables (age, husband social standing; the number of children; and ability to speak and exhibit wisdom). Also, poor deliveries of social services (healthcare and access to education) could determine pastoralists, particularly women.

Additionally, following climate variability (occasional erratic rainfall, flooding, and windstorms); malaria and other infectious diseases increased in pastoral areas, especially among children and pregnant women. This also determined women's roles in pastoralist areas (Oxfam, 2011). Besides, UN (2007) highlighted the growing environmental factor of the pastoral systems in Ethiopia i.e. recurrent drought had devastating effects on rangelands, livestock and the general livelihood of pastoralists. Drought and desertification threaten the livelihoods of more than one billion people in 110 countries in the world generally and pastoral areas particularly. However, men and women didn't share the burden

equally. As desertification takes hold in dryland areas, women's already limited access to productive assets (land, water, and livestock productions). Furthermore, Kipuri & Ridgewell (2008), & Oxfam (2011) underlined that conflicts largely stem from resource competition where the traditional tolerance, sharing and conflict resolution mechanisms fail to mediate the competition. However, not only does conflict lead to disasters (loss of life and asset), it also contributes to inefficient range lands resource use. Hence, women are not only victims but also catalysts of violence. However, they always suffer greater hardships during the conflict. It also increases domestic burdens on women when men go to war. Fratkin et al. (2004) & Ali (2014) brought another environmental factor that determines pastoral women's roles; i.e. the negative health consequences of pastoral migration include poorer nutrition, inadequate housing, lack of clean water, and higher infectious disease. It is an increasing phenomenon affecting all sectors of pastoral society. It increases domestic and income-generating burdens of women and girls.

Moreover, Behnke (2006) described that the role of women in pastoralist societies is usually quite distinct from that of men, and women often have limited decision-making power than men since pastoral customary institutions highly influence women's decision-making participation, access to power and control over resources, and environmental management processes. Similarly, Oxfam (2011) indicated that in customary law and culture, the focus is on social cohesion and the preservation of the family rather than on the safety and wellbeing of the individual. In most pastoral culture, there is a perception that is shameful to raise marital problems in public. Family cohesion is emphasized, reconciliation favored, and separation is discouraged. Several aspects of customary laws are incompatible with women's rights. Consequently, unjust gender relations perpetuate. Further, Behnke (2006) emphasized the influence of religion, political institutions and women association on pastoral women's role. Moreover, education for pastoralists is dire, particularly for women and girls. Few attempts have been made to adapt educational services to pastoralist and in some remote areas, schools are still virtually unknown (Kipuri & Ridgewell, 2008; Ali, 2014).

Materials and Methods

Research Methodology

Using an applied research approach is a key step to achieve the study objectives. Hence, this study employed a mixed research approach since the objectives of the research would demand to generate both quantitative and qualitative data. Likewise, Greene et al. (1989) and Creswell (2012) noted that the rationale to employ mixed approach is that it helps to use multiple data collection methods, provides a better view of reality, remove weaknesses and address research problem accurately.

Research Design

The study employed concurrent research design for the reason that it permitted the researcher to gather the information that uses the best features of both quantitative and qualitative data collection methods. In analogy, Creswell (2012) delineated that concurrent research design help to give equal priority to both quantitative and qualitative data; and it enables the researcher to compare the results of quantitative and qualitative analyses to determine if the two databases yield similar or dissimilar results.

Sampling Techniques

Women from both male-headed and female-headed households were used as the primary unit of analysis. Hence, the study employed multi-stage sampling techniques. In the first stage, purposive sampling techniques were employed to select the study Woreda. In the second stage, a random sampling technique was applied to select the study kebeles. Then, a stratified random sampling technique was used to select male and female-headed households from each kebele considered there was a woman in male-headed households.

Framework of The Study

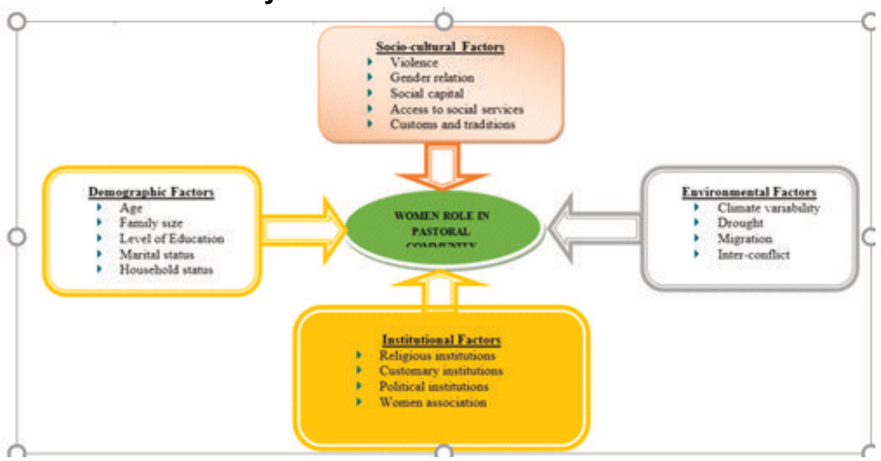

Figure 1 Aschematic diagram showing the relationship between dependent and independent variables

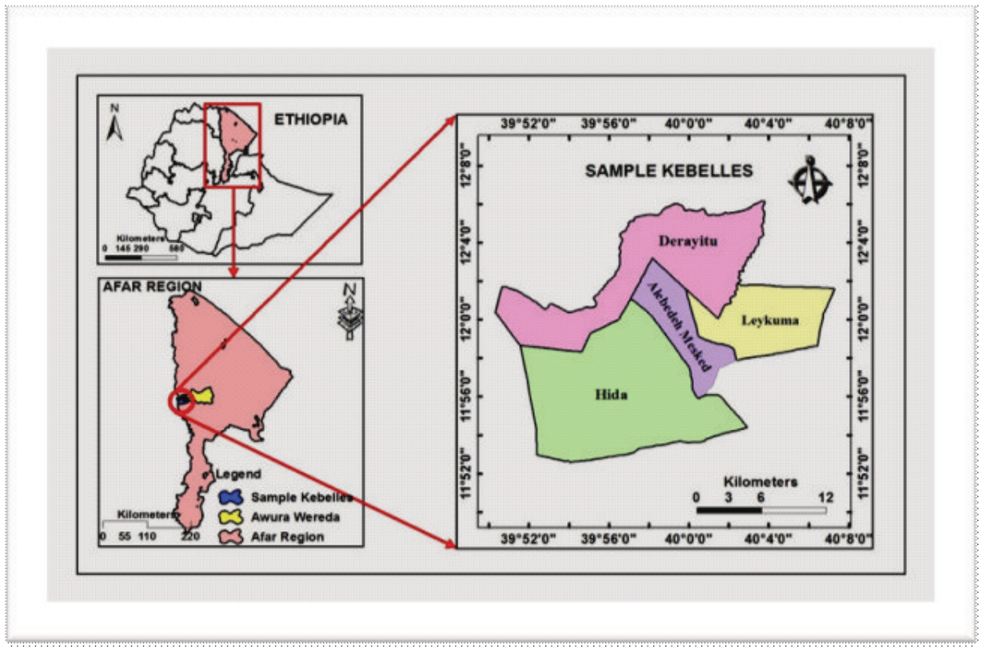

Figure2: Map of the study woreda; source: WGS-1984UTM-Zone 37N

Table 1: Summary of sampled women by kebeles

Sample kebeles	Number of households in each kebele			Number of sample women taken from each kebele		
	MHH	FHH	Total	MHH	FHH	Total
Derayitu	692	8	700	53	1	54
Leykuma	837	9	846	63	1	64
Hida	494	6	500	37	1	38
Alebedeh Mesked	517	7	524	39	1	40
Total	**2540**	**30**	**2570**	**192**	**4**	**196**

Source: field survey, 2019.

Source: field survey, 2019.

After this, a proportional stratified random sampling technique was used in accordance with the size of the kebele. Here, each *kebele's* list of male and female-headed households was used as a sampling frame. Further, a systematic random sampling technique was applied to select sampled women from the four kebeles. Finally, a purposive sampling technique was employed to select the participants to obtain qualitative data.

Sample Size Determination

Cochran (1963) cited in Israel (1992) outlined that formula is needed for a questionnaire survey study sample size determination when the population is large, and the needed sample is to analyze proportion. By the same fashion, to determine the representative sample size, the study employed sample size determination formula given by Cochran (1963) cited in Israel (1992). The formula is: n0 = (z^2 pq)/e^2 , where, n0 = required numbers of sample size, z = selected critical value of desired confidence level, e= margin of error, p= estimated proportion of attribute that present in the population, and q= 1-p. Thus, n0= ((1.96)^2 0.5(1-0.5))/⟦(0.07)⟧^2 = 196. So, the required sample sizes of this study were 196 women.

Data Sources and Data Collection Instruments

The study employed both primary and secondary data sources. Primary sources were survey respondents, key informants, and FGDs whereas secondary sources were relevant books, documents, journal articles, and related researches. Hence, survey questionnaires, key informant interviews, and FGDs were data collection instruments.

Data Analysis Techniques

The study employed quantitative and qualitative data analysis techniques. Finally, the combination of data analysis methods was carried. Particularly, descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyze the quantitative data. Upon the data collection task completed, the data were encoded edited and entered into the SPSS software version 20 and analyzed using both descriptive and inferential statistics. Hence, tables, frequencies, and percentages were used to run descriptive statistics whereas Pearson Chi-square test and multinomial logistic regression were used for inferential statistics. Besides, qualitative analyses were performed by identifying major and sub-themes in each context. Then, triangulation took place between quantitative and qualitative data.

Model Goodness-of-Fit

To examine the adequacy of the model, Deviance and Pearson were employed. As the regression analysis publicized, the model fitting information had a Chi-square value of 109.929 with 22 degrees of freedom and significant at p<0.05 (Table2). It denotes that the selected predictor variables have a combined effect in predicting the outcome variable.

Issues of Validity and Reliability

To assure the reliability of the study, a reliability test was carried out. Pre-testing and piloting were used. Cronbach alpha was employed to measure the internal consistency of the instrument. Also, the findings were triangulated with the literature review and previous studies for the purpose of analytical generalization.

Ethical Consideration

This study was conducted with adherence to research ethics including the statement of confidentiality, refraining from deceptive practices, reciprocity, and maintenance of anonymity of participants.

Results and Discussion

This section presents the findings of the study. The findings are summarized and grouped into three major themes i.e. women's triple gender roles in the pastoral community; challenges and opportunities of pastoral women regarding their roles; and factors that determine pastoral women's roles in the study settings.

Table 2

Options	Responses N	Responses Percent	Percent of Cases
Productive roles	155	33.4	79.1
Reproductive roles	196	42.2	100
Community managing roles	113	24.4	57.7
Total	**464**	**100**	**236.7**

Source: survey data, 2019. NB: the total is not 100% because of multiple responses.

Women's Triple Gender Roles in Pastoral Community

A single table was created based on respondents' responses to women's tripled gender roles. Accordingly, 100% of responses are located on reproductive roles, 79.1% on productive roles, and 57.7% on community managing roles. This indicates that pastoralist women vigorously engage in tripled gender roles to retain the household economy.

Similarly, the participants stipulated the qualitative facts as pastoral women are highly engaged in productive, reproductive and community managing roles. This finding was passionately correlated with a survey output found by Elizabeth & ILO (2008). Accordingly, activities have a feminine face that is they are regarded as women's activities as it might be due to the strongest linkage with the sex role of women for child-bearing and these are the main duties of girls and women in pastoral communities. Pastoral women usually have various reproductive tasks simultaneously with productive and community managing roles.

Another single table was produced based on respondents' responses to productive roles. Thus, 92.9% of responses are located on livestock production, 77.9% on weaving, 76% on trading and 40.3% on other activities. It denotes that pastoralist women play key roles in trading, weaving and livestock production, and other activities like income-generating tasks (basket making, firewood and charcoal selling).

Table 3

Table 3:

Options	Responses N	Percent	Percent of Cases
Trading	117	26.5	76
Waving	120	27.1	77.9
Livestock-production	143	32.4	92.9
Others	62	14	40.3
Total	**442**	**100**	**287**

Source: survey data, 2019. NB: the total is not 100% because of multiple responses.

Likewise, one discussant clearly reflected the qualitative information as:

I am a pastoralist woman. I am living here. Believe or not, I am working on numerous productive tasks alongside reproductive and community duties. I am striving to produce goods and services for household consumptions. I am the only one who is responsible for the household food supply. Mostly, I am tending to engage in livestock production roles in this hostile environment. I am highly engaging at higher and lower levels of livestock value chains. I am looking after smaller, young and sick-stocks around my home. I am also responsible for the home herd of cattle and camels when my husband takes others to search pasture and water. You see my roles in livestock management are basic. Besides, I have important roles in trading (lower livestock sale, meat, milk, skin, and hides). Not only these but also others such as weaving and income-generating activities like basket-making, firewood, and charcoal-selling. For your surprising, despite having such roles, my husband gives less value and less recognition for me. And then, I haven't properties right and decision-making ability in the home.

Key informants also shared the information as in the pastoral community, except decisions on herd mobility and planning; almost all indoor and outdoor productive activities are done by women. Hence, the study identified that pastoralist women have greater responsibilities in productive activities (livestock production, waving and trading) and others like basket making, firewood, and charcoal selling. This finding was consistent with the study results found by Care International & Tigist et al. (2014). Hence, women's workload in livestock production is usual in pastoral and agro-pastoral communities of Afar. Women also have greater involvement in income-generating activities in firewood selling. But, Elizabeth's (2008) research revealed that most productive roles are the main activities of men rather than women. This was highly incompatible with the finding of the current study because this study asserted that most productive roles are the main activities of pastoral women than men.

A single table also made based on respondents' responses to livestock productive activities (housing, feeding, watering, healthcare, and keeping). The majority (100%) of responses are located on housing whereas 99.3% of responses are located on feeding, watering, healthcare and livestock keeping. It shows that pastoralist women have a significant contribution to sustainable livestock development.

Table 4

Options	Responses N	Percent	Percent of Cases
Housing	143	20.1	100
Feeding	142	20	99.3
Watering	142	20	99.3
Healthcare	142	20	99.3
Keeping	142	20	99.3
Total	**711**	**100**	**497.2**

***Source**: field survey, 2019. NB: the total is not 100% because of multiple responses*

Similarly, participants of a women's FGD yielded interesting findings. A participant said.

Indeed, women living in the pastoral community have multiple tasks in livestock production. For example, we are preparing houses for sheep, goats, donkeys, camels, and cows. We are also moving and keeping animals in grazing areas. Just looking-after and feeding animals; and splitting herds are our daily tasks. We are also moving animals towards rivers. Moreover, rainwater harvesting for livestock; protecting herds' hygiene via cleaning of droppings, and finding traditional medicines are usual tasks that are given for us. To tell the truth, our husbands are not helping us despite we are tiring so.

Besides, Key informants suggested that pastoral women are the hidden hands of pastoral communities. They play vigorous roles in livestock production and management processes. Consistently, Tigist et al. (2014) agreed that women are the most active laborers in the pastoral community by engaging in livestock production activities like cattle keeping, feeding, and watering.

Moreover, a single table was formed based on respondents' responses to reproductive roles. Hence, 100% of responses are located on cooking, washing, cleaning, and housekeeping,95.4% on fetching-water and fuel-wood gathering, 89.3% on childrearing and childbearing, 88.8% on house maintenance whereas 69.9% on grain grinding. This shows that pastoralist women play pivotal roles in reproductive tasks inside and outside of the home to ensure the household wellbeing.

Table 5

Options	Responses N	Percent	Percent of Cases
Child-rearing and child-bearing	175	16.4	89.3
Cooking and Washing	196	18.4	100
Cleaning and house-keeping	196	18.4	100
Fetching water and fuel wood gathering	187	17.6	95.4
House maintenance	174	16.3	88.8
Grain grinding	137	12.9	69.9
Total	**1065**	**100**	**543.4**

Source: survey data, 2019. NB: the total is not 100% because of multiple responses.

The participants also raised similar concepts in line with statistical facts. Hence, the finding revealed that all activities necessary for the maintenance and survival of pastoral lives are done by pastoral women. This finding was consistent with a report provided by ILO & Elizabeth (2008). This report claimed that pastoral women usually have various tasks simultaneously because of their tendency to perform multiple roles within the reproductive, productive and community managing spheres. Elizabeth (2008) noted that the reproductive tasks done by women in the pastoral community are mostly domestic chores which include food preparation, fetching water, firewood collecting, house-cleaning, construction and maintenances of houses and fences, support children, elderly and sick members of the household.

Additionally, a single table was sketched based on respondents' responses to community managing roles. Accordingly, almost all (100%) of responses are located on all community managing activities whereas 93.1% on provision and maintenance of resources. This shows that most community managing activities are done by pastoralist women for community care.

Table 6

Option	Responses N	Percent	Percent of Cases
Provision and maintenance of resources	108	18.9	93.1
Cleaning dropping	116	20.3	100
Visiting the sick neighbors	116	20.3	100
Participating in social events	116	20.3	100
Participating in village organizations	116	20.3	100
Total	**572**	**100**	**493.1**

Source: survey data, 2019. NB: the total is not 100% because of multiple responses

Likewise, a participant from an FGD delineated the qualitative details concerning community managing roles as:

Honestly speaking, we are highly engaged in community works. We are participating in social events. We are helping each other both in time of adversity and prosperity. We are also sharing in

pastoral services-ceremonies and celebrations. We have holidays; we have traditional festivities; we have religious-oriented celebrations. Besides, we have burdens to maintain customs and traditions. Also, visiting sick neighbors and supplying food is our daily task. As well, we are highly participating in group and village organizations (Idir).

Key informants also reported the qualitative information as women in the pastoralist community to have numerous roles in community managing for community care. This finding was supported by the ideas of Moser (1993) cited in Ludgate (2016). Accordingly, the community managing role is used to describe activities carried out by women as an extension of reproductive role i.e. provision and maintenance of scarce resources of collective consumption.

Factors, Challenges, and Opportunities of Pastoral Women

Multinomial logistic regression outputs

Table 7: Factors affecting pastoral woman's tripled gender roles (Next page)

Selected predictor variables, challenges, and opportunities of pastoral women's roles are simultaneously discussed below. The study employed a multinomial logistic regression model to identify determinant variables. Thus, 18 explanatory variables were selected, but merely 9 variables were identified as determinants of the dependent variable. Accordingly, the regression output indicated that being other variables constant, a unit increase of age (29-39), women's productive roles increase by the odds ratio of 3.033 as compared to a community managing role. Statistically, a significant relationship was also observed at p<0.05 (Table2). Besides, the qualitative data indicated that age can increase women's tripled gender roles. This finding was linked with previous research findings of Basnayake and Gunaratne (2002) and Macha (2011) i.e. age could be determinant of various human development stages accompanied by the ability to perform certain activities. The age of a person is usually a factor that can explain the level of production and efficiency.

Besides, being other variables constant, a unit increase of family size (3-5 and 6-8), women's reproductive roles increase by the odds ratio of 1.988 and 3.169 as compared to a community managing role. A significant relationship was perceived at P< 0.05 in both cases (Table2). Similarly, the participants asserted that family size could increase the effectiveness of women's participation in tripled gender roles. This result was associated with a former study did by Nkurlu (2000). Hence, having more family members per household means more demand for food and other requirements which may increase women's burden inside and outside of the home. Moreover, being other variables constant, women with married marital status had more likely to participate in productive and reproductive roles by the odds ratio of 2.201 and 2.703 as compared to a community managing role. A significant relationship also observed at p<0.05 in both cases (Table2). Likewise, the qualitative result indicated that married women had better involvement in both productive and reproductive roles. Thus, the result was associated with Macha's (2011) research finding.

Model Fitting Information

Model	Model Fitting Criteria	Likelihood Ratio Tests		
	-2 Log Likelihood	Chi-Square	Df	Sig.
Intercept Only	117.114			
Final	7.186	109.929	22	.000

Goodness-of-Fit

	Chi-Square	Df	Sig.
Pearson	1.572	110	1.000
Deviance	1.955	110	1.000

Pseudo R-Square

Cox and Snell	.429
Nagelkerke	.905
McFadden	.872

Classification

Observed	Predicted			
	Productive roles	Reproductive roles	Community managing roles	**Percent Correct**
Productive roles	**5**	1	0	83.3%
Reproductive roles	1	**178**	2	98.3%
Community managing roles	0	0	**9**	100.0%
Overall Percentage	**3.1%**	**91.3%**	**5.6%**	**98.0%**

Parameter Estimates

Triple gender roles		B	S. E	Wald	Df	Sig.	Exp(B)	95%C.I for Exp(B) Lower	Upper
PR	Intercept	-.365	.612	.356	1	.551^{ns}			
	age=29-39	1.916	.030	12.356	1	.001*	3.033	1.648	5582.24
	Married	1.875	.017	9.108	1	.000*	2.201	1.41	1.256
	climate var.=yes	-1.521	.064	9.604	1	.015*	.641	1.051	3.861
	drought=yes	-1.067	.071	6.301	1	.042*	.108	.829	1.103
	conflict=yes	-.301	.011	11.03	1	.000*	.602	1.103	3.021
RR	Intercept	1.661	.008	7.968	1	.005*			
	Married	1.160	.015	7.995	1	.008*	2.703	.705	3.084
	famsize=3-5	1.641	.048	8.264	1	.006*	1.988	3.057	1292.99
	famsize=6-8	1.154	.024	9.307	1	.003*	3.169	.902	3.983
	violence=yes	-1.901	.075	8.013	1	.007*	.901	.906	1.073
	gender r/ns.=yes	-2.347	.022	9.006	1	.036*	.972	.798	2.162
	social service.=no	-1.280	.116	5.839	1	.016*	.576	.602	1.948

***Source**: survey data, 2019. NB: *= significant at 0.05, ^{ns}= not significant, PR= productive Role, RR= Reproductive Role.*

This survey showed that marital status can determine pastoral women's roles because many families in this community they bare many children hence more responsibilities for taking care of childcare.

Furthermore, being other variables constant, for every one-unit increases of climate variability, recurrent drought, and inter-conflict; women's productive role is more likely to decrease by the odds ratio of 0.641, 0.108 and 0.602 as compared to a community managing role. A significant relationship was perceived at $p<0.05$ in all cases (Table2). KIs also conveyed the qualitative details similar to the numerical facts. Findings from FGDs also reported the qualitative data as:

Our lives get worse from time to time. Our livelihood is highly failed because of the availability of periodic shocks of drought. Frequent drought has been increasing from our locality because of rainfall variability. Then, migration becomes usual to search pasture and water as no rainfall availability, and water inaccessibility. Also, drought has the potential consequences of ecological destruction. Consequently, Cattles, camels, goats, donkeys, and sheep are dying. Overall, this leads to household chronic food insecurity and poverty. Not only have these but also have others such as property and human life loss. Such complication also restrains our roles.

Likewise, Aklilu et al. (2013) and Oxfam (2011) emphasized that following climate variability (occasional erratic rainfall, flooding, and windstorms); malaria and other infectious diseases increased in pastoral areas especially among children and pregnant women. This also influenced women's roles in pastoralist societies. Moreover, Tewodros (2011) stated that climate change would place additional burdens on women by altering the roles and tasks they performed. Similarly, UN (2007) highlighted that pastoralism has been facing by recurrent drought with its devastating effects on rangelands, livestock and the general livelihood of pastoralists. Men and women do not share the burden equally or in the same ways. As desertification takes hold in dryland areas, women's already limited access to productive assets such as land, water, and livestock productions. Additionally, Kipuri and Ridgewell (2008) stated that conflicts largely stem from resource competition where traditional tolerance and conflict resolution mechanisms fail to mediate the competition. Thus, not only does conflict lead to disasters, but it also contributes to inefficient rangelands resources. Here, women nearly always suffer the greatest hardships during the conflict. It also increases domestic burdens on women when men go to war. The regression results also showed that being other variables constant, for every one-unit increases of violence, gender power relation and social services inaccessibility; women's reproductive role is more likely to decrease by the odds ratio of 0.901, 0.972 and 0.576 as compared to a community managing role. A significant relationship was observed at $p<0.05$ in all cases (Table2). The KIs also provided the qualitative details alike the numerical facts. A participant from an FGD noted: also reported the data hereunder.

We are living in a border area that is difficult for life. We are far from the center of the town. We are not lucky to get infrastructures. No health care centers available nearby us. Thus, service providers don't come here. We aren't getting professional supports from medical experts; no family planning advice; no ambulance service at the time of giving birth unless we are treating by traditional healers if not our destiny is dying. Affordable healthcare services aren't delivering. Hence, our health condition becomes alarming. Also, there is no access to education; we have only one school from grade one-four; we go distance areas to get education from grade five-twelve, but this is hard too; so, we obliged withdrawing schooling; no option evidence we are married. Here no access to clean water, electricity, and telecommunication. Despite NGOs like ADRA Ethiopia and GIZ provide food aid, clothing, and life skill training, they can't able to deliver timely. You can imagine how these challenges also deter our overall roles.

Similarly, Watson (2010) outlined that beyond domestic violence (physical, sexual and psychological), culturally accepted violence against women is common in pastoral areas (female genital mutilation, marriage by abduction, early marriage, enforced cross-cousin marriage, and widow inheritance). Such violence is deterred women's roles. Furthermore, Kandusi and Waiganjo (2015) delineated that patriarchal attitude and sociocultural discrimination had put pastoralist women in a disadvantaged position because of the asymmetrical power relationships between men and women. Hence, pastoralist women bear disproportionate tasks and responsibilities compared with pastoralist men. Moreover, Watson (2010) sketched that poor delivery of social services determined pastoral communities particularly, women. Antithetically, the regression result showed that a significant relationship was not observed between women's roles, and migration, traditions, and customary laws. But the qualitative data indicated that these variables are challenges that impede pastoralist people, especially women. This finding was similar with the survey results of Frame & Fratkin et al. (2004); Mongi (2005); Behnke & Elliot et al., (2006); Watson, 2010; Oxfam & Macha (2011); Ali & Stephen et al., (2014); Kandusi & Waiganjo (2015).

Conclusion

In a nutshell, this study shows that pastoralist women play pivotal roles to meet household needs, denoting that they are key agents of sustainable livelihood development. They engage in income-generating, socioeconomic and cultural activities. Pastoralist women also make a significant contribution to gross domestic products providing that livestock production and rangeland management. Mainly, pastoral women highly involve in triple gender roles. However, they are constrained by numerous factors (climate variability, recurrent drought, inter-conflict, violence, and services inaccessibility), but enjoyed limited opportunities. This condition makes their lives e miserable and deters triple-roles. Hence, this issue becomes a matter of debate worldwide.

Recommendations

To tackle the identified problems, the government, and NGOs (i.e. Adventist Development and Relief Agency Ethiopia and GIZ) work cooperatively have to provide extensive training for both men and women together with reference to pastoral people's social capital to create smooth gender relations, to ensure women's access to, and control over resources, and to assert women's decision-making power and property rights. Also, the government and ADRA Ethiopia should jointly focus on pastoral women's awareness rising via sharing empirical evidence that concerns on wise deploying of available local resources to generate alternative income to sustain the household economy. This can help them to build self-confidence, networks and access to social capital. Besides, considering pastoral women, the government makes social service delivery available i.e. healthcare facilities, education and infrastructure development. Moreover, place-based educational planning norms should be adopted by recognizing distanced habitations; and acknowledge pastoral women's roles are suggestions forwarded for the government. Furthermore, Awura *Woreda* Women Affairs Office should provide professional guidelines for pastoral women to improve their income-generating potential for the betterment of their lives and cope with unexpected environmental and economic shocks. This, in turn, might pave the way for pastoralist women to play their roles functionally.

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