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Fostering Rural Employment through Creating Rural Non–Farm Activities (RNA) and Household Jobs in Haramaya, Kersa, and Babile Woredas of Eastern Hararghe Zone, Oromia National Regional State, Ethiopia

Jabessa Teshome(Corresponding author)
Department of Management, College of Business and Economics, Haramaya University
PO box 227, Dire Dawa, Ethiopia

Zelalem Bayisa
Department of Management, College of Business and Economics, Haramaya University
PO box 227, Dire Dawa, Ethiopia

Temesgen Keno
Department of Management, College of Business and Economics, Haramaya University
PO box 138, Dire Dawa, Ethiopia

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Abstract
This study analyses the behavior of rural households on the involvement in rural non-farm formal and informal indigenous handcrafts in off-farm work participation decisions of farm households in three districts (Haramaya, Babile, and Kersa), from Eastern Hararghe Zone of Oromia Regional State, Ethiopia. It attempts to map the areas where rural off farm household level handcrafts are practiced, and identify the major constraints hindering the development of non-farm employment activities in the study area. It primarily focuses on the mapping of rural non- farm activities in the study area. Mainly a descriptive statistics were used to analyze the data. The results of the analysis show that while farming is the main economic activity of Eastern Hararghe zone, there is a significant difference on the practice of handcraft activities. The distribution of such handcraft skills differ from household to household because of the availability of inputs, access to markets, learning opportunities and gender differences. The diversification of some handcraft activities in the zone could be attributed to existing skill practices and inputs. In terms of their distribution, households in Kersa district indicated the largest share (52.1%) of the total handcraft distributions followed by Babile which accounts for 39% of the total distributions. Pottery is the main handcraft category reported in the survey which needs further attention of rural income diversification programs in the study apart from leather processing and carpentry. Haramaya district recorded the least in the distribution of hand crafts. Moreover, the study indicated that inter-generational handcraft skill learning is becoming an old fashioned and this caused gaps in handcraft skills among the young and the elders. Finally, the study suggested that apart from increasing agricultural output and raising agricultural productivity, complementary policies and programs must be developed to strengthen the link between farm and non-farm activities. The current agricultural extension program should encompass both farm and non-farm activities and encourage the growth of small-scale businesses and create non-farm employment opportunities in rural areas.
Keywords: Nonfarm employment, nonfarm jobs, rural households, Eastern Hararghe zone

1. Introduction

Non-farm income is important to farm households in developing countries. In a review of about 100 farm-household survey studies from the 1970-1990s, Reardon *et al.* (1998) find an average share of 42 per cent of non-farm income in total rural household income in Africa, 40 per cent in Latin American and 32 per cent in Asia. There is also evidence that the importance of non-farm income has been increasing over the past few decades (Reardon et al, 2000).

Given the importance of non-farm income, the question of whether and under what conditions rural non-farm employment increases or decreases overall rural inequality is critical in the many situations in the developing world where inequality causes or exacerbates social tensions and instability. In turn, inequality could have a strong bearing on the operation of rural institutions and the impact of policies. Decentralization provides an example. In India, widening village-level inequality may well be undermining the effects of decentralization policies as village governments become less representative of the communities they serve (Jayaraman and Lanjouw, 1998). The current "conventional policy wisdom" is that rural non-farm employment, and thus the microenterprise promotion programmes which aim to stimulate this sector and are currently much in vogue, will unambiguously reduce rural income inequality and, as a result, social and political tensions. In the rural non-farm

economy literature this position is typically presented as a hypothesis that non-farm activity reduces the Gini coefficient of total income in a given rural area and hence is "equalizing" (Ahmed 1996).

To address the food security problems, the Ethiopian government has designed and implemented different interventions to improve agricultural productivity, such as irrigation schemes, fertilizer promotion, soil and water conservation, extension services, and food security policies, among others. Nevertheless, focusing on agricultural production alone may not be enough to combat the population's vulnerability to shocks and the resulting food insecurity.

With agriculture so completely dependent on rainfall, rain rules the lives and well-being of many rural Ethiopians. It determines whether they will have enough to eat and whether they will be able to provide basic necessities and earn a living. Indeed, the dependence on rainfall and its erratic pattern has largely contributed to the food shortages and crop crises that farmers are constantly faced with. Even in good years, the one-time harvest or crop may be too little to meet the yearly household needs; as a result, the majority of Ethiopia's rural people remain food insecure (Bezabih et al, 2010).

Rainfall contributes to poverty both directly, through actual losses from rainfall shocks, and indirectly, through responses to the threat of crisis. The direct impacts particularly occur when a drought destroys a smallholder farmer's crops. Under such circumstances, not only will the farmers and their families go hungry, but they also will be forced to sell or consume their plough animals in order to survive. They are then significantly worse off than before because they can no longer farm effectively when the rains return. These impacts may last for years in the form of diminished productive capacity and weakened (Bezabih et al, 2010).

Indirect impacts are equally serious. People tend to be excessively risk-averse when faced with the threat of possible weather shock. They also tend to shy away from innovations that could increase productivity because these innovations may also increase their vulnerability or drain the assets needed to survive a crisis. Moreover, farmers face credit constraints if creditors are not willing to lend for fear that drought might result in widespread defaults —even if loans can be paid back easily most years. This, in turn, critically restricts access to agricultural inputs and technologies, such as improved seeds and fertilizers.

The threat of disaster is enough to block economic vitality, growth, and wealth generation during all years -good or bad—even though a drought (or a flood or a hurricane) may happen only once in five years. Ethiopia has experienced at least five major national droughts since 1980, along with literally dozens of localized ones (World Bank, 2008). These cycles of drought create poverty traps for many households, constantly consuming any build up of assets and increase in income.

Evidence shows that about half of all rural households in the country experienced at least one major drought during the five years preceding 2004. The evidence also suggests that these shocks are a major cause of transient poverty. That is, had Ethiopian households been able to smooth consumption, then poverty in 2004 would have been at least 14 percent lower, which translates into 11 million fewer people falling below the poverty line.

Therefore, non-agricultural or non-farm activities as sources of alternative income may be of paramount importance for people's livelihoods in the face of climate change, particularly in drought-prone areas and the degraded highlands.

The traditional image of farm households in developing countries has been that they focus almost exclusively on farming and undertake little rural non-farm (RNF) activity. This image persists and is widespread even today. Policy debate still tends to equate farm income with rural incomes, and rural/urban relations with farm/non-farm relations. Industry Ministries have thus focused on urban industry and Ministries of Agriculture on farming, and there has been a tendency even among agriculturists and those interested in rural development to neglect the RNF sector (FAO, 2010).

Nevertheless, there is mounting evidence that RNF income (i.e. income derived in this sector from wage-paying activities and self-employment in commerce, manufacturing and other services) is an important resource for farm and other rural households, including the landless poor as well as rural town residents. Although this source accounts for only part of total off-farm income (which also includes farm wages and migration earnings), this study focuses on RNF income so as to enable a closer examination of what can be done within rural areas themselves to increase overall economic activity and employment.

There are several reasons why the promotion of RNF activity can be of great interest to developing country policy-makers. First, the evidence shows that RNF income is an important factor in household economies and therefore also in food security, since it allows greater access to food. This source of income may also prevent rapid or excessive urbanization as well as natural resource degradation through overexploitation.

Second, in the face of credit constraints, RNF activity affects the performance of agriculture by providing farmers with cash to invest in productivity-enhancing inputs. Furthermore, development of RNF activity in the food system (including agro processing, distribution and the provision of farm inputs) may increase the profitability of farming by increasing the availability of inputs and improving access to market outlets. In turn, better performance of the food system increases rural incomes and lowers urban food prices.

Third, the nature and performance of agriculture, themselves affected by agricultural policies, can have important effects on the dynamism of the RNF sector to the extent that the latter is linked to agriculture. This sector grows fastest and most equitably where agriculture is dynamic– where farm output is available for processing and distribution, where there are inputs to be sold and equipment repaired and where farm cash incomes are spent on local goods and services.

There is a rural labor shortage during the peak season and high unemployment and underemployment during the slack season. Non-farm activities have a great potential to provide employment and additional incomes during the slack season to rural households. In addition, given rising population pressure on agricultural land which results in a decline in land holding per individual, off farm activities can provide alternative employment. Off farm employment refers to employment in activities outside his/her farm. It includes employment in other farmer's farm. But non- farm employment refers to employment outside farming activities. Despite their great potential, rural nonagricultural activities account for less than three percent of the rural labor force (CSA, 1999).

As compared to other African countries, the proportion of the rural labor force engaged in non-farm activities is too low. According to ILO/JASPA (1993), in Ghana for instance 26.7% of the rural workers were engaged in rural non-farm activities, 15% in Sierra Leone and an average ranging from 10 - 20% in Sub Saharan Africa. According to this report the importance of the rural non-farm activities in Ethiopia is understated because of the narrow definition of the Central Statistical Authority, and the Ethiopian definition of urban area as towns of 2000 people or more compared to the UN definition, which uses 20,000 people as a cutoff point.

A review made by Abebe Damte (2002) by referring to Mulat and Teferi (1996) classified non-agricultural activities in the rural areas of Ethiopia in to the following categories;

a) Small-scale industrial activities such as food processing: flour milling, oil processing, and soap making, cottage industries: handicrafts, spinning of cotton (yarn and wool), cloth weaving and dyeing pottery leather tanning and distilling local brews (such as tej and tella).
b) Informal sector artisan activities; blacksmithing, masonry, wood work/ carpentry, house construction, repair services and fabrication of farm tools.
c) Commercial activities; trading and transportation
d) Infrastructural development activities; special public works feeder roads and irrigation works.
e) Formal employment in rural areas including professional administrative and clerical cadres.

2. OBJECTIVES AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

2.1. Research objectives

The general objective of the study is to identify and document the various rural non-farm formal and informal indigenous technologies in the study area and the specific objectives of the study are the following:

- To map the areas where rural off farm household level handcrafts technologies being are practiced.
- To identify the major constraints hindering the development of non-farm employment activities in the study area (Haramaya, Babile and Kersa) particularly during off-farm seasons, and
- To identify the availability of institutional supports that help foster rural off-farm employment activities.

To come up with policy recommendations for the establishment of institutional systems to remote rural non-farm businesses and thereby bridge the gaps between agriculture and industry king the cognizance of value chain additions and market linkages.

2.2. Research questions

Research questions to be addressed are as follows taking the study area into account:

- What are the patterns of RNF income and employment in different Kebeles and Villages of Haramaya, Kersa and Babile Woredas?
- What are the various rural household jobs and indigenous technologies that can be upgraded to rural enterprise development?
- What effects do RNF income and employment have on the levels and distribution of rural household incomes, poverty incidence and food security?
- What policy and program implications can be drawn from these points?

2.3. Materials and methods

2.3.1. Description of the study area

The study was carried out in Eastern Hararghe Zone in three Woredas (Haramay,Kersa and Babille). Eastern Hararghe Zone is located in the Eastern part of Oromia Regional State. The Zone has 18 administrative districts (Woredas) with three municipality towns namely: Aweday, Haramaya and Deder. The Zone has a total area of about 24,248 km^2 (2,424,800 ha). It is bordered with West Hararghe Zone in the West, Bale Zone in the South, Somali National Regional State in the East and South-east, Dire Dawa Administrative Council in the North East

and Harari National Regional State is surrounded by the Zone (EHZ/FEDO, 2007). Based on the summary and statistical report of the 2007 population and housing census, the Zone has a population of 2,739, 390 persons from which about 91.93% are living in rural areas and the remaining 8.07 in towns (FDRE/PCC, 2008).

East Hararghe is one of the Zones of the Ethiopian Region of Oromia. It takes its name from the former province of Hararghe and is bordered on the southwest by the Shebelle River which separates it from Bale, on the west by West Hararghe, on the north by Dire Dawa and on the north and east by the Somali Region. The Harari Region is an enclave inside this zone.

Towns and cities in East Hararghe include Alemaya, Babille and Fugnan Bira. Its highest point is Gara Muleta. Local landmarks include the Harar Wildlife Sanctuary and Haramaya University.

The Zone is characterized by three farming systems: the mixed farming (crop and livestock) production, pastoral and agro-pastoral. The mixed farming region accounts for 40% of the total area of the Zone, the pastoral areas account for 50% and the agro-pastoral areas make-up 10% of the total area of the zone. Cereals, pulses, oilseeds, vegetables, fruits and cash crops, like coffee and *"khat"* are widely grown in the Zone during the two cropping seasons. At the lower altitudes, crop cultivation is usually limited leading to more of livestock based economy. At the higher altitudes the economy is characterized by live stock activities.

Due to high population growth, the zone is not in harmony with the rate of socio-economic development which in turn resulted in high dependence on the natural resource base for sustenance. This has also aggravated the rapid environmental degradation and imbalance. Due to these and other related factors, the zone is afflicted by recurrent drought, food insecurity and high poverty situation (EHZ/FEDO, 2007).

2.3.2. Data sources and collection methods

Both primary and secondary data were collected using formal as well as informal data collection process. Data to be used in this analysis will be taken from a survey of households in the Eastern Haraghe Zone low lands and high lands of Oromia Regional State. The data was collected from 350 farm households randomly selected and interviewed in 8 peasant associations, located in 3 Woredas of the Eastern Haraghe Zone.

The survey questionnaire was pre-tested before data collection and modified. Similarly, Key Informant Interview and Focused Group Discussions (FGD) were administered. Secondary data were collected from different reports, study documents, new paper clippings and websites.

2.3.3. Sampling Techniques

Sample households for data collection were identified using random sampling technique. In the first stage, household lists were collected from peasant associations (PAs) where handcraft activities were widely practiced. Accordingly, 8 peasant associations were indentified, three each from Babile and Kersa. 2 peasant associations were selected from Haramaya district. The households were selected randomly from villages where handcrafts were widely practiced. 3500 households have passed through a tracer study by indentifying villages in various rural Kebeles where handcraft works such weaving, woodworking and metal working, bottling, renting and/or leasing, and other off-farm employment activities are practiced.

2.3.4. Methods of data analysis

Because this study primarily focuses on the mapping of rural Non- Farm activities in the study mainly a descriptive statistics were used to analyze the data. Basic socio-economic and demographic characteristics of the sample households were analyzed using descriptive statistical tools including mean, standard deviation, percentage and frequencies.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

3.1. Description of household respondents

The results of the data collected through survey have been discussed in this section. Data were collected from 350 households through survey questionnaire in the three districts (Babile, Kersa, and Haramaya) of East Hararghe Zone. Out of the 350 questionnaires distributed only 310 were found to be valid and 40 questionnaires were excluded from this report. Eight peasant associations (PAs) (Kebeles) have passed through this study whereas the selection is being made based on the distribution of handcraft practices. Accordingly, been 3 PAs have been selected from Babile and Kersa districts each and only 2 PAs from Haramaya district were included. Haramaya district indicated the list in the availability of handcraft activities from the three districts in this study (see table 1and 2).

Kersa district recorded the highest in terms of the distribution of various handcrafts from the three districts and as a result many households were taken from it. Soddu peasant association from Kersa district comprises of the largest size (25%) sample household respondents.

3.2. Household respondent's off farm income contribution to household income

The respondents were asked whether or not they contribute to household's income and whether or not they engage in some off-farm activities. Accordingly, about 70% of the respondents contribute to household's income from their engagement in either on farm or off-farm activities. Women were found contributing less to the

household's total income compare to men. This may be because women engage mainly in domestic activities which were not included in the computation of total household's income. Evidently, women in Eastern Ethiopia involve even in the farming activities in addition to their domestic responsibilities (See table 3).

3.3. Non-farm and off farm activities and handcrafts knowledge distribution in the household

While farming is the main economic activity of the Eastern Hararghe zone, there is a significant difference on the practice of handcraft activities. The distribution of such handcraft skills differ from household to household because of many reasons. Availability of inputs, access to markets, learning opportunities and gender differences could be a few among the many reasons to be mentioned. In terms of their distribution households in Kersa district indicated the largest share 52.1% of the total handcraft distributions followed by Babile which accounts for 39% of the total distributions. Pottery is the main handcraft category reported in the survey accounting for 23% followed by woodwork (21%). Haramaya recorded the least in the distribution of hand crafts accounting for only 9%. Pottery is the mainly done by women and this skill should be an advantageous to them if practiced with proper training and tools for increasing their productivity and marketability of their products. Table 4 indicates the various handcraft distributions in the three districts.

Some handcraft skills were practiced for years by few ancestors because there had been bad social impression for those who produce handcraft activities such as leather products, wooden equipments, metal products, and pottery products. Thus such skills were not encouraged and grown up. Even today because of uprooted bad attitude of the society such activities were left to few groups in the society and some even gradually abolished.

The interview and observation results indicated that weaving and metal work was widely practiced in the study area by people who migrated from Selallie area (See Table 4).

While pottery is mainly practiced in the study area in the three districts, tannery is practiced only in the Kersa area. Many animal produces known in the area but the skills of using skin and hide for income earning is quite minimal in the study area. Our observation indicated that many leather products are used for making agricultural and cultural tools. For instance at Kersa and Fadis districts women make a leather product called *Gorbota* which are used for transportation and packing on donkey and camel back. Because of lack of skills related to tannery and leather processing there is acute wastage of skin and hides in the districts.

3.4. Inter family handcraft skill transfer and intergenerational continuity of handcraft skill in the household respondents

Skill transfer in the household from one member of the family to the other or from the ancestors is crucial for sustaining a typical handcraft skill in the family. If a mother does some kind of handcraft activity in the household it is highly likely that children also learn some kind of handcraft. Certain handcraft activities are gender based. For instance, women usually engage in weaving, pottery and spinning activities whereas men participate in woodwork and metal work, and carpentry.

The prevalence of handcraft jobs in the family were asked in the three districts. Accordingly, only 43% of the respondents are indicated that there was some kind of handcraft activities in their households. In specific terms, 25 % respondents indicated that Kersa district has large number handcraft activities in the household (See Table 5).

Asked what relationship they had with the person who does some kind of handcraft in the family, the respondents indicated that "fathers" and "mothers" play significant role in passing skills from generation to generation(29%, and 25 % of the respondents respectively)(See Table 6). As a matter of fact, focusing skill training programs on fathers and mothers in the household play significant role in sustaining handcraft skills in the family.

Moreover, some of the respondents reported that they failed to learn some hand craft skills mainly because of lack of personal interest (43.3%) followed by lack of access (28.1%). Expectedly, social norms significantly discourage the skill transfer of hand craft skills (See Table 7). This demands public awareness creation on the role of handcraft skills towards income generation and maintaining rural livelihood employment.

3.5. Household's main source of income and major income generating activities

Rural households in the district had farming (63.4%) as their main source of income and livelihood (Table 8 and 9). District wise, there is no significant difference between the sources of alternative livelihoods and income for the family.

The rural community engages in various sector of rural non-farm micro and formal and informal household and village level activities. There could be many reasons to me mentioned as to why there exist disparities among different villages in terms of the practice of handcraft activities. The question remains with what factors constrain the continuity and advancement of rural household off-farm income activities.

Understandably, devoting time to off-farm activities, while complementing agricultural incomes, may

be constrained by labor availability and financial capacity. The importance of off-farm activities for food security is unremarkable. It contributes to the availability of agricultural labor, and financial constraints on off-farm employment decisions.

Farm households are involved in two types of off-farm activities: wage employment and self-employment (own business activities). Wage employment includes paid community development work (often called food-for-work), farm work, and manual work in construction, masonry, and carpentry. Self-employment includes petty trading, transporting by pack animal, fuel wood selling, charcoal making, selling fruits, making pottery and handicrafts and stone-mining. The majority of farm households participate in some farming activities (63%). Most of the farm households work in their home some cash crops. Most of the off-farm works are temporary and do not require any professional qualification with the exception of masonry and carpentry. The proportion of households that do participate in mixed employment is 25% (See Table 8).

In most farm households, more than one member participates in off-farm activities. For reasons of simplicity family members are categorized into six groups: household head, wife/spouse, children, relatives, servant, and hired laborer.

The dominant type of off-farm work is paid development work. The household heads work in farm activities in 80% of the households, in off-farm activities in 6.4% of the households, and in non-farm activities in 2.1% of the households. The household wives work only in farm activities (10.2%) and other manual work (2%). Other family participant members work little or no paid development work. This is due to the fact that almost all the respondents were either adults or family heads. Unless a person is unable to work, the provision of food aid (in case of drought) is linked to the participation of households in development activities such as terracing, reforestation, dam and road construction and maintenance, and the rehabilitation of social services like clinics and schools. Regardless of crop failure, terrace construction and maintenance is done every year until the whole area that needs terracing is covered. Farm households allocate their labour between farm and off-farm activities as well as homework (See Table 10).

4. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Agriculture is the backbone of the economy and the performance of the sector directly or indirectly affects the lives of so many people in Ethiopia. More than 85 percent of the labor force is engaged in agriculture. Low productivity of the sector is the major cause of unemployment and underemployment in the rural areas. Hence rural off farm activities can play an important role to improve the well being of the rural population.

In a risk free and perfect capital market environment, diversification to other alternative economic activities can make farm households loose the gains that they could have achieved from specialization in framing activities alone.

However, in an environment where agriculture is risky and the credit market is nearly non-existent, diversification, especially income diversification increases the farm households' capacity to undertake risk at farm level and to use more variable inputs in production which will eventually lead to higher return in agriculture.

The foregoing analysis has made clear that income diversification by accommodating off-farm and nonfarm activities increases ensuring sustainability of households' food security and sustainability. It also reveals that off-farm income helps to finance farming activities such as purchase of farm labour and other inputs such as seeds, fertilizer, and pesticides. Since crop diversification is done to match the type of crop with the soil type, it does not result inefficiency in production. Therefore, there is a substantial potential for increasing farm income of farm households by diversifying their income sources in general and by promoting off-farm employment in particular.

Studies indicated that the supply of labour for off-farm work (and hence off-farm income) is largely determined by farm characteristics, market wage rate and household compositions. It increases with market wage rate, livestock wealth, and family size, and decreases with non-labour income, farm assets, variable farm inputs, and area of land cultivated.

While farming is the main economic activity of the Eastern Hararghe zone, there is a significant difference on the practice of handcraft activities. The distribution of such handcraft skills differ from household to household because of many reasons. Availability of inputs, access to markets, learning opportunities and gender differences could be a few among the many reasons to be mentioned.

The diversification of some handcraft activities in the zone could be attributed to existing skill practices and inputs. The results of the foregoing discussions indicated that in terms of their distribution households in Kersa district indicated the largest share (52.1%) of the total handcraft distributions followed by Babile which accounts for 39% of the total distributions. Pottery is the main handcraft category reported in the survey which needs further attention of rural income diversification programs in the study apart from leather processing and carpentry. Haramaya recorded the least in the distribution of hand crafts. Pottery is the mainly done by women and this skill should be an advantageous to them if practiced with proper training and tools for

increasing their productivity and marketability of their products. Intervention programs should be designed to enhance existing skills such as in pottery products development and market enhancement at Kersa district with main focus on women. These and other skills should be promoted to Haramaya district as well.

Inter-generational handcraft skills learning is becoming an old fashioned and this caused gaps among the young and the elders. This definitely resulted in the termination of certain handcraft skills. The results of the focus group discussions made indicated that, parents do not want to pass their skills (such as smith) to their children because such jobs are not valued by the society. Consequently, such skills were not encouraged and grown up. Therefore, awareness creation programs should be developed in order for such skills to be enhanced for improvement of employment and proper use of labor and resources. Many animal produces known in the area but the skills of using skin and hide for income earning is quite minimal in the study area.

Therefore, apart from increasing agricultural output and raising agricultural productivity, complementary policies and programs must be developed to strengthen the link between farm and non-farm activities. The current agricultural extension program should encompass both farm and non-farm activities and encourage the growth of small-scale business and create non-farm employment opportunities in rural areas.

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About the Authors

Jebessa Teshome is a lecture and Chairperson of the Department of Management, College of Business and Economics, Haramaya University. Having been trained in general management and Business Administration his research interest were developed through his practical engagement on administrative duties. His research interests include Strategic Management and Decision Sciences, Change Management and Corporate Leadership, organizational design and business Process Management, and Innovation and Small Business Management. He can be contacted at: jabessat2000@yahoo.com.

Zelalem Bayisa is a lecture in the Department of Management and Dean, College of Business and Economics, Haramaya University. Having been trained in general management and Business Administration his research interest were developed through his practical engagement on administrative duties at various capacities. His research interests include Human Resource Management, Strategic Management, Change Management and organizational Transition, Organization Theory, entrepreneurship and Leadership. He can be contacted at: Zeeamour15@gmail.com.

List of Figures and Tables

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics of Household Respondents by their district and sex

		Sex		
		Male	Female	Total
District	Babile	91	20	111
		29.4%	6.5%	35.8%
	Kersa	105	46	151
		33.9%	14.8%	48.7%
	Haramaya	38	10	48
		12.3%	3.2%	15.5%
Total		234	76	310
		75.5%	24.5%	100.0%

Table 2. Household Respondents' distribution in terms of Districts and Peasant Associations

			Kebeles								
			Bishan Babile	Yabata Lenca	Golawachu	Awusharif	Ifaa	Tiniqe	Finqille	Soddu	Total
District	Babile	Count	54	0	0	46	11	0	0	0	111
		% of Total	17.40%	0.00%	0.00%	14.80%	3.50%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	35.80%
	Kersa	Count	0	24	50	0	0	0	0	77	151
		% of Total	0.00%	7.70%	16.10%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	24.80%	48.70%
	Haramaya	Count	0	0	0	0	0	23	25	0	48
		% of Total	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	7.40%	8.10%	0.00%	15.50%
Total		Count	54	24	50	46	11	23	25	77	310
		% of Total	17.40%	7.70%	16.10%	14.80%	3.50%	7.40%	8.10%	24.80%	100.00%

Table 3: Contribution to Households' Income in Cash

			Do you contribute to HH income in Cash from Off Farm activities?		
			Yes	No	Total
Sex	Men	Count	154	76	230
		% of Total	50.8%	25.1%	75.9%
	Women	Count	57	16	73
		% of Total	18.8%	5.3%	24.1%
Total		Count	211	92	303
		% of Total	69.6%	30.4%	100.0%

Table 4. Kind of handcraft type Distribution in the three Districts

		Kind of handcraft type								
		weaving	sewing	pottery	woodwork	metal work	tannery	bottling	Some others	Total
Babile	Count	2	6	5	12	11	0	0	28	64
	% of Total	1.2%	3.6%	3.0%	7.3%	6.7%	.0%	.0%	17.0%	38.8%
Kersa	Count	4	6	33	19	13	2	3	6	86
	% of Total	2.4%	3.6%	20.0%	11.5%	7.9%	1.2%	1.8%	3.6%	52.1%
Haramaya	Count	1	4	0	3	1	0	0	6	15
	% of Total	.6%	2.4%	.0%	1.8%	.6%	.0%	.0%	3.6%	9.1%
Total	Count	7	16	38	34	25	2	3	40	165
	% of Total	4.2%	9.7%	23.0%	20.6%	15.2%	1.2%	1.8%	24.2%	100.0%

Fig 1 kinds of handcraft activities in the district

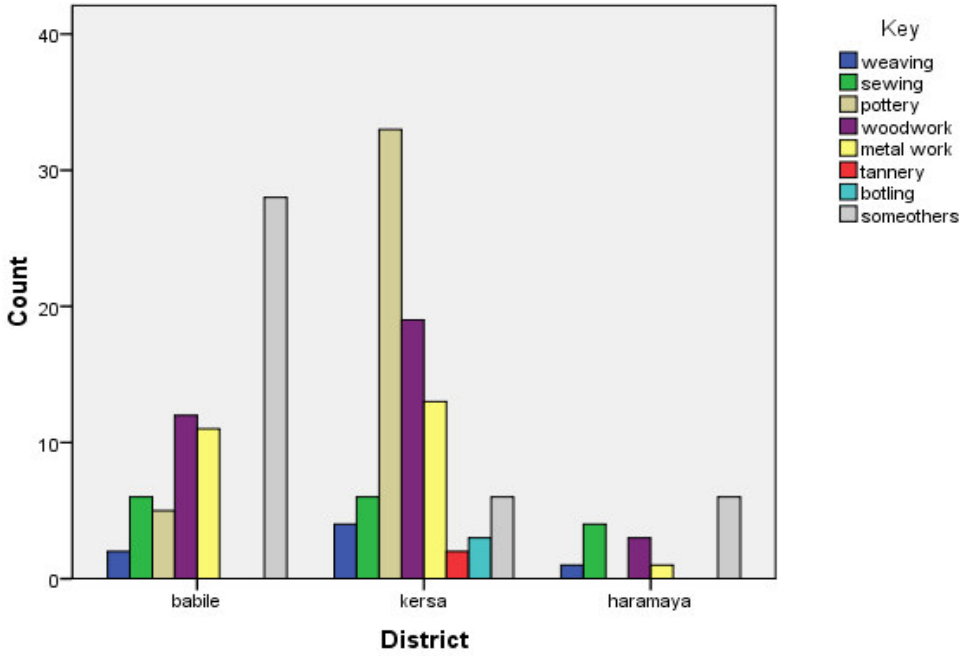

Table 5. Handcraft skill availability in the household

			Is there some kind of handcraft in family?			
			Yes	No	Don't know	Total
District	Babile	Count	42	65	2	109
		% of Total	14.0%	21.7%	.7%	36.5%
	Kersa	Count	74	51	18	143
		% of Total	24.7%	17.1%	6.0%	47.8%
	Haramaya	Count	12	34	1	47
		% of Total	4.0%	11.4%	.3%	15.7%
Total		Count	128	150	21	299
		% of Total	42.8%	50.2%	7.0%	100.0%

Table 6. The relationship of the person who does some kind of handcraft in the family to the respondent

			The relationship of the person who does some kind of handcraft to the respondent						
			Mother	Father	brother	sister	some other relative	no relationship at all	Total
District	Babile	Count	13	16	3	2	11	28	73
		% of Total	7.3%	8.9%	1.7%	1.1%	6.1%	15.6%	40.8%
	Kersa	Count	30	26	2	11	13	4	86
		% of Total	16.8%	14.5%	1.1%	6.1%	7.3%	2.2%	48.0%
	Haramaya	Count	2	10	1	1	3	3	20
		% of Total	1.1%	5.6%	.6%	.6%	1.7%	1.7%	11.2%
Total		Count	45	52	6	14	27	35	179
		% of Total	25.1%	29.1%	3.4%	7.8%	15.1%	19.6%	100.0%

Table 7. Reasons why the respondents failed to learn handcraft skills

			Reasons why the respondents fail to learn some skills					
			Lack of access	lack of personal interest	Social taboo	Lack of inputs	others	Total
District	Babile	Count	6	33	4	8	3	54
		% of Total	3.5%	19.3%	2.3%	4.7%	1.8%	31.6%
	Kersa	Count	38	36	8	7	2	91
		% of Total	22.2%	21.1%	4.7%	4.1%	1.2%	53.2%
	Haramaya	Count	4	5	4	9	4	26
		% of Total	2.3%	2.9%	2.3%	5.3%	2.3%	15.2%
Total		Count	48	74	16	24	9	171
		% of Total	28.1%	43.3%	9.4%	14.0%	5.3%	100.0%

Table 8. Household's Income source

			What is the main source of income for the family?						
			Farming	employment to other farmers	selling some handcrafts	mixed	Khat selling	any other	Total
District	Babile	Count	73	2	13	15	0	3	106
		% of Total	24.5%	.7%	4.4%	5.0%	.0%	1.0%	35.6%
	Kersa	Count	92	0	3	46	6	0	147
		% of Total	30.9%	.0%	1.0%	15.4%	2.0%	.0%	49.3%
	Haramaya	Count	24	0	3	14	3	1	45
		% of Total	8.1%	.0%	1.0%	4.7%	1.0%	.3%	15.1%
Total		Count	189	2	19	75	9	4	298
		% of Total	63.4%	.7%	6.4%	25.2%	3.0%	1.3%	100.0%

Table 9. Major income generating activities in the Household

			Household's income generating activities			
			Farm income	Nonfarm income	Off-farm income	Total
District	Babile	Count	89	14	3	106
		% of Total	30.9%	4.9%	1.0%	36.8%
	Kersa	Count	135	2	1	138
		% of Total	46.9%	.7%	.3%	47.9%
	Haramaya	Count	37	4	3	44
		% of Total	12.8%	1.4%	1.0%	15.3%
Total		Count	261	20	7	288
		% of Total	90.6%	6.9%	2.4%	100.0%

Table 10. Family relationships and Participation in income generating activities

		Relationship											
		Head		Spouse/wife		Children		Relatives		Servant		Hired labourer	
		N	N %	N	N %	N	N %	N	N %	N	N %	N	N %
Household income generating	Farm income	226	79.90%	29	10.20%	1	0.40%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%
	Nonfarm income	18	6.40%	1	0.40%	1	0.40%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%
	Off-farm income	6	2.10%	1	0.40%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%

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