# A Cup of Gender Equal Impact

*A research into Moyee Coffee and the FairChain Foundation and their possible contribution to the realization of the Fifth Goal of Sustainable Development Goal Agenda 2030.*


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# Abstract

This research investigates if Moyee Coffee, a Dutch coffee corporation who adopts a different strategy than other fair trade coffee corporations, can contribute to the fifth goal (Gender Equality) of the Sustainable Development Goal Agenda 2030. The research investigates the political, economic, and socio-cultural aspects of coffee in Ethiopia, known as the birthplace of Arabica coffee. It highlights how generic and fair trade coffee supply chains operate. It seeks to understand how the position of smallholder farmers could be improved through the workings of a continental and supra-national development agenda. All this whilst highlighting the position of women within each topic. The research explicitly focuses on women regarding SDG 5 (Gender Equality) and the generally marginalized position of women within global supply chains.

By investigating the workings of Moyee Coffee, this research highlights to what extent there is gender equality among the smallholder farmers as employed by Moyee. By aligning the baseline measurements to the theoretical approaches of the Sustainable Livelihoods Framework, Gendered Commodity Chains theories, and national and regional data, it seeks to understand to what extend there is gender equality among smallholder farmers as employed by Moyee and how there is a possible contribution to SDG 5 (Gender Equality).

The key outcomes of the research indicated that there is no differentiation between the position of female smallholder farmers as employed by Moyee and the regional and national female smallholder farmers. Thus, the livelihoods of female smallholder farmers, through the workings of a different type of fair trade, are not empowered nor improved. However, the regional outcomes, to which the outcomes of the data of Moyee compare, do contribute to a slight extend to the realization of SDG 5 (Gender Equality). Nevertheless, the outcomes of the baseline study invite more specific interventions targeted at improving the lives of female smallholder farmers.

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Firstly, a big, big thank you to my parents and my sister. I started this research at the beginning of January of 2021, not knowing where to start and feeling slightly lost. They allowed me to stay with them for an extended period and provided me with a shoulder to cry on, someone to laugh with, a dog to take outside, and a warm sofa to chill on and a bed to relax in. Secondly, my colleagues at Moyee Coffee and the FairChain Foundation. I could not have imagined my internship to be as fun as it was. The endless talks about impact whilst drinking a good cup of coffee allowed me to expand my thinking and be critical. They allowed me to flourish as a researcher and as an employee.

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Next to all these, my friend Diene de Jong at university, who unconditionally supported me whilst also having to write her own thesis.

# List of Abbreviations

- African Union: AU
- Coffee Quality Institute: CQI
- Ethiopian Coffee Marketing Corporation ECMC
- Ethiopian Commodity Exchange: ECX
- Foreign Exchange: FX
- Growth and Transformation Plans: GTP
- Human Development Index: HDI
- Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change: IPCC
- Less Economically Developed Countries: LEDC
- Millennial Development Goal: MDG
- National Action Plan on Gender: NAP
- Plan Accelerated and Sustained Development to End Poverty: PASDEP
- Southern Nations, Nationalities, and Peoples Region: SNNPR
- Sustainable Development and Poverty Reduction Program: SDPRP
- Sustainable Development Goal: SDG
- Voluntary Sustainability Standards: VSS

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# I. Introduction

*Buna dabo naw – Coffee is our bread.*

(Ethiopian proverb)

This Ethiopian proverb rings on a personal level for me as the author of this research. Ever since I was a little girl, I always loved the smell of a freshly brewed batch of coffee that arose from the kitchen. Whilst growing up and shedding a child's giddiness, I realized how intricate and complex different global systems are, especially the systems related to specific supply chains, such as cacao, avocados, and especially coffee. My passion for the beverage and curiosity for the system led me to try to comprehend everything. However, through trial and error, one cannot know everything there is. Hence, my quest for knowledge of coffee became more focused on the human processes within the supply chain.

In Ethiopia, the birthplace of Arabica coffee, approximately 15 million lives are dependent on the cultivation of coffee as their main source of income alongside subsistence farming (Amamo 2014, 110). According to Jhaveri, around 2.25 billion cups of coffee are consumed daily (Jhaveri 2021, 431). Of this enormous amount, a large share is produced in Ethiopia. Reuters noted that in export year 19/20, Ethiopia exported around 4 million bags of coffee, sixty kg each (Mersie 2019). Hence the Ethiopian proverb *Buna dabo naw – Coffee is our bread* is quite literally the case for many Ethiopians.

It has been recognized that Ethiopia is a rich country on many fronts, such as the root of civilization, ancient kingdoms, and other cultural aspects (Gill 2010, 1). However, the country has experienced many famines and political turmoil. The promotion of an increased standard of livelihoods in Ethiopia has been a priority on many agendas. In Ethiopia, poverty is inextricably linked to smallholder farming, with many smallholder farmers living below the national poverty line of four USD a day (ICCO 2019, 3). Approximate 72 % of the total population of Ethiopia is employed in the agricultural sector, with 74% of the families dependent on farming as a source of income (Food and Agricultural Organization of the United Nations 2018, 1).

Two current global and continental agendas aim to increase the standard of livelihoods of smallholder farmers, as part of the initiation of a long-lasting global development scheme. Arguably the most well-known global Agenda is the Sustainable Development Goal Agenda 2030, as proposed by the United Nations member states in 2015. The Agenda introduced

seventeen goals and hundred and sixty-nine targets and indicators to improve environmental, social, and economic issues globally (Abraham and Pingali 2020, 173 – 174). The SDGs root their fundamental basis upon partnership. Hence the philosophy upon the five P's, people, planet, profit, peace, partnering, and the specifically focused SDG 17 (Partnership for the Goals) (Pfisterer and Van Tulder 2021, 1). Although the goals were established on a supra-governmental level, the realization of the goals has been advocated for on a multi-stakeholder degree (1). It could be argued that business ventures into the largest practiced sector of Ethiopia, coffee, could improve the livelihoods of smallholder farmers alongside the contribution to the realization of the SDG Agenda 2030. The question which this research seeks to answer is the following: "*Does Moyee Coffee, a Dutch coffee corporation, contribute to the realization of the Sustainable Development Goal Agenda target 5 (Gender Equality)?"*

This research will adhere to the following structure. There will be four parts overall to this research of which the first includes this introduction. The second part of this thesis will include the review of the existing literature on five specific topics which contextualize the research question and the further case study. The first chapter will discuss the cultural, political, social, and economic perspectives on coffee in Ethiopia. The second chapter will focus on the risks of the production of coffee. The third chapter will include an analysis of generic and fair trade coffee supply chains. Hereafter, the fourth chapter highlights the global Sustainable Development Goal Agenda 2030, and the continental Agenda 2063, followed by the fifth chapter which focusses on the national development agendas as pursued by the Ethiopian government.

The third part of this research includes the case study of Moyee Coffee and their possible contribution to the realization of SDG 5 (Gender Equality). Firstly, the theoretical framework and methodology, as applied throughout the case study, will be outlined. Hereafter, the case study of Moyee Coffee and the FairChain foundation and their possible contribution to the realization of SDG 5 will be discussed, highlighting the theoretical framework. The case study will be followed by reflecting on the possible contributions to the SDG 5 of Agenda 2030 whilst aligning the case study with the theoretical framework.

The fourth and final part of this research will be dedicated to the conclusion.

# II. Contextualization of the Research

This second part of the research contains a discussion on the available literature to contextualize the case study and the research question. The topics of coffee in Ethiopia, the risks of the production of coffee, the way in which generic and fair trade supply chains operate, Agenda 2030 and Agenda 2063, and the national development plans by the Ethiopian Government will be discussed.

## 1. Coffee on the Eastern part of the African continent

Approximately 25 countries in Africa produce coffee, most of them located in sub-Saharan part of the continent (Crumley 2013, 102).

Figure 1 depicts what share of coffee exports contributes to the national gross domestic product of African coffee producing countries. Ethiopia astonishingly is the largest exporter. Global trade with developing countries should, as its basic premise, stimulate economic growth. Coffee being the largest export within the country, should accumulate for economic growth and development among coffee producers within Ethiopia. However, as noted by Technoserve (2014) and Minten (2018), Ethiopian smallholder coffee farmers earn approximately 60% less than smallholder coffee farmers in other African coffee producing countries. Hence, as based upon figure 1, Ethiopia's large share of returns from the exported coffee does not profit the farmers smallholder farmers, who find themselves at the bottom of the supply chain and are often the most crucial players within the coffee producing process. Thus, value and revenue seem to disappear somewhere within the supply chain of Ethiopian coffee.

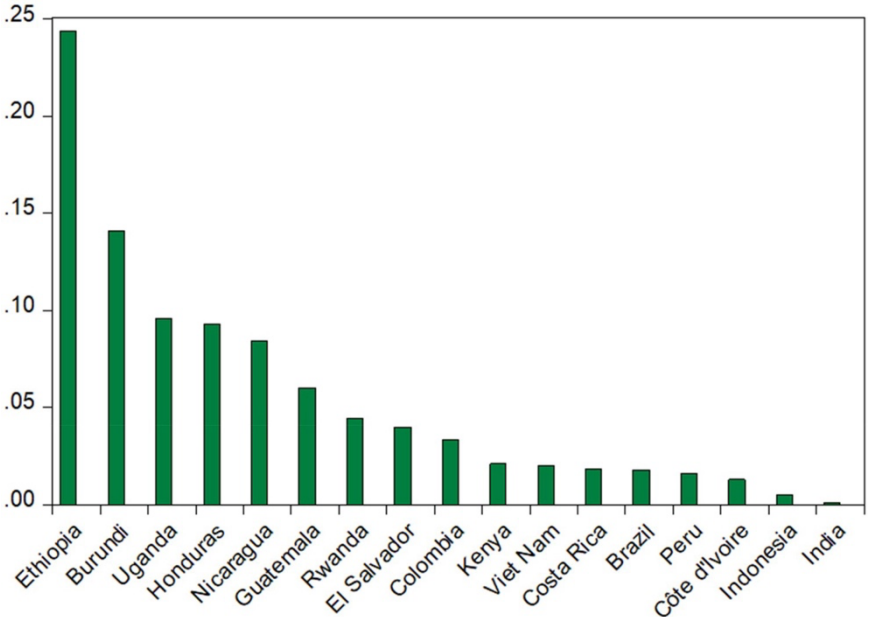



*Figure 1:* Nsabimana, A., Wondmagegn Tafesse Tirkaso. 2018. "Examining coffee export performance in Eastern and Southern African Countries: do bilateral trade relations matter?" *Agricultural Economic Research, Policy and Practice in Southern Africa,* vol. 29;1.

### 1.1. Economics of Ethiopian coffee

In the harvest year, 2018/2019, Ethiopia estimated to have produced 7.25 million bags of 60 kilos (USDA Foreign Agricultural Service 2019, 2). Around 25 to 30 % of Ethiopia's

Foreign Exchange (hereafter FX) comes from coffee production (Amamo 2014, 109). Around fifteen million Ethiopians are dependent on coffee production as their primary source of income (Petit 2007, 226; Abdissa 2011, 1). This number translates to approximately 5 million smallholder farming households (Minten *et al.* 2019, 371). The coffee market in Ethiopia has seen many ups and downs. In Ethiopia, the coffee market had not been liberalized yet before 1991 and was to a great extend centrally planned. This central planning was translated into a system controlled through quotas and the fixing of the price of coffee by the appointed ministry; the Ministry of Coffee and Tea Development (International Coffee Organization 2000, 1). Coffee producers and smallholder farmers did not have a choice of where and at what price they could sell their coffee. Hence, the majority was sold at the Ethiopian Coffee Marketing Corporation (hereafter ECMC), which regulated and fixed prices. The post-1991 market became oriented towards the flexibility of the market, thus more liberalized. Because of the liberalization policies, the ECMC was divided up into two public enterprises. One enterprise focused on purchasing the coffee to bring it to the auction. The other to export the sold coffee from the auction (1).

In 2008, the Ethiopian Government introduced the Ethiopian Commodity Exchange (hereafter ECX) to liberalize the coffee market further and to make it more transparent. The ECX's primary function is as market and meeting place for purchasers and sellers, quality and quantity checks and assurances, security of payment, and delivery (Handino *et al.* 2018, 500). The basic premise of this institution seeks to keep the coffee market competitive and is in line with laissez-faire economic policies. Many have been critical about whether the ECX works in favour of the improvement of livelihoods smallholder farmers. Liberalization, as practiced in the ECX, can have harmful effects upon the general well-being of Ethiopian coffee farmers. It can be harmful for smallholder farmers because of the competitiveness of the market when the sector is liberalized. Smallholder farmers are often pushed to sell at a competitive market price which is determined by supply and demand. Hence, earnings and returns are low because of competition. However, it is argued that fair trade and other moral and sentimental-driven market approaches can turn this around by providing for stable returns for the coffee sold (Lee & Lee 2010, 157).

### 1.2. Coffee in the Political Sphere

The ECX is an example of an initiative by the Ethiopia Government to increase levels of market competition and transparency to be able to highlight possible bottlenecks within the national coffee supply chain (Cramer & Sender 2019, 8). The Ethiopian Coffee and Tea

Authority overlooks these bottlenecks and produces policies accordingly to solve issues. As established from a governmental and regulatory point of view, their mission is as follows: "*To see a people free of poverty and developed economy on the modern coffee, Tea and Spices Development and Marketing in 2025.*" (Ethiopian Coffee and Tea Authority 2020). The aims to see the Ethiopian coffee market flourish, as stated by the Ethiopian Coffee and Tea Authority, are interwoven into the national development plans by the Ethiopian Government to become a low-to-middle income country by 2025, known as the Growth and Transformation Plans I and II (hereafter GTP I and II) (Cramer & Sender 2019, 4).

### 1.3.Socio-Cultural Aspects of Coffee

Alongside having economic and political value, Ethiopia's cultural sentiments surrounding coffee dates back centuries. As well as notably being the birthplace of Arabica coffee, the country knows a rich history surrounding the beverage rooted in legends and myths. The plant roots can be traced back to where the Kingdom of Kafa once used to be, in the South-West of Ethiopia.

The central legend surrounding coffee is that of Kaldi. The story features a goat herder named Kaldi from Kafa, located in the Highland region. One day Kaldi notices that his goats act differently than usual. He discovers that his goats ate some red berries, coffee cherries, to be exact. The cherries carry an energizing effect. The berries were taken to a nearby monastery by Kaldi. The monks believed that the berries were cursed and threw them into a fire. The fragrance that left the burnt cherries compelled the monks and Kaldi. They took the berries out of the fire, crushed them, and poured hot water over the crushed coffee berries. Hereafter, coffee was born (National Coffee Association, 2021).

Coffee does not only have a cultural stigma in Ethiopia. It goes much further than that. Ethiopians often participate in traditional coffee ceremonies. These ceremonies are called *Buna. Buna* is based upon the story of the herder Kaldi (Palmer 2010, 323). Although the ceremony differentiates slightly from region and location, Ethiopians are nonetheless proud of the cultural connotation of the practice. *Buna*, at its core, focuses on the actual process of coffee making. It is often a lengthy process that can take up to an hour. The main character within this traditional practice is always female. The woman starts by washing some coffee beans. Through this washing, the shells and husks of the coffee beans are removed. The next step in the ritual is the roasting of the beans. The roasting process releases oil and smoke. The smoke is wafted, by the hostess of the ritual, to each of the participants in the ceremony. Hereafter the beans will be ground. The ground beans will be transferred to a clay pot, a *jebena*, to which hot water is

added. Finally, the mixture will be poured through a sieve which leaves the final product; traditional Ethiopian coffee (324 – 325).

Ethiopians attach much value to the tale and practice of coffee. Coffee, as prepared through the ritual, is not meant to be drunk alone. The culture requires time and socialization (Brinkerhoff 2011, 130). The ceremony is not the only time in which coffee leads to interaction. Within Ethiopia, there is much inland migration to coffee-growing areas. This migration can occur because of several factors such as lack of employment within the region of birth, scarcity of land, amongst others. Many young unmarried men tend to move to coffee-growing areas to find employment and possible marriage partners (Duressa 2018, 18).

### 1.4.Female Smallholder Farmers in Ethiopia

Approximately three-fourths of the people that work in the coffee sector in Ethiopia are female (Louis Dreyfus Company 2020). However, the share of income that these women receive is only about 43% (Technoserve 2018). The main challenges that women face in the coffee sector in Ethiopia are related to the ownership of land, decision-making processes, lack of market and information knowledge, marital constraints, among other issues (4C 2020. A report by the International Coffee Organization notes that within female-headed households, the land is 23% less productive than their male counterparts (International Coffee Organization 2018, 14). Thus, although women perform most of the labour related to the production of coffee and are regarded of highly in the coffee rituals, they are disadvantaged on many levels.

## 2. A Cup of Risks

This section will highlight the systematic risks that occur within the production of coffee. It will briefly focus on COVID-19 and coffee, after which the section will discuss the risks concerned with global warming and the production of coffee. Another risk that will be focused on is the occurrence of poverty and the production of coffee. Finally, within all the mentioned risks, importance will be paid to the position of female smallholder farmers.

### 2.1.Coffee and Covid

The arrival of the SARS COVID-19 virus had unprecedented and massive effects on many aspects of global life. This effect was also felt on global coffee export, which experienced a massive supply and demand shock (International Coffee Organization 2020, 1). Many countries adhered to general global guidelines to prevent the further spread of the virus. Among these are social distancing, restrictions in travel, remote working, amongst others. A survey conducted amongst sixteen coffee-producing countries illustrated that the most negatively affected aspect of the coffee sector was employment (4). The study's other outcomes illustrated those countries expect income for farmers to decrease and input costs will increase (5). Moreover, regarding income levels of individual farm households, food costs and health care service costs are expected to rise. The Ethiopian Government, in that same report, noted the following. "*Because of global and national risk management measures and lockdowns, coffee cultivation and harvesting would be difficult because in Ethiopia coffee cultivation (weeding, stumping, manuring, and other activities) as well as harvest is done by hand."* (6). As mentioned before, women in Ethiopia are responsible for the cultivation of the coffee plant and the harvest and the processing of the cherries (Jacobs and Cote *et al*. 2015, 25). Hence, the status of women's livelihoods within Ethiopian coffee supply chains could be regarded as more unstable because of Covid-19.

### 2.2.Global Warming

Climate change is a widespread and serious issue worldwide. The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (hereafter IPCC) notes that between the years 2030 and 2052, global temperatures will rise 1.5 degrees Celsius (Eshetu *et al.* 2020, 318). Crop production, among which coffee, is highly dependent on and sensitive to changes in climate. Coffee grows at a

specific altitude under specific conditions. These conditions can only be found within the coffee belt, which spans several Latin America, Sub-Saharan Africa, South Asia, and Northern parts of Australia. Increased droughts, because of global warming, often cause coffee plants to fail. These droughts force farmers to plant their crops higher up the mountain for the crops to receive more rainfall. However, the specific altitude at which coffee grows cannot be compromised and moving the crops higher up causes them to fail too. Through training and participation programs, national institutions aim to train female and male smallholder farmers in the field of climate-smart coffee growing (Louis Dreyfus Company 2020).

A study conducted in the Jimma Zona in Ethiopia, which tried to determine how smallholder coffee farmers adapt to changes in climate, uncovered that the most widely used adaptation method is the planting of coffee trees in different seasons (Eshetu *et al.* 2020, 324). This strategy illustrates that localized communities are aware of climate change and are willing to adapt. However, there the study illustrated no distinction to what extent male or female smallholder coffee farmers were explicitly affected by climate change.

### 2.3.Coffee and Poverty

Between 2015 and 2017, extreme global poverty fell from 10.1% to 9.2%. This decline means that in 2017 approximately six hundred eighty-nine million people live on 1.90 USD a day or less (World Bank 2020). 1.90 USD is insufficient to meet a decent standard of living and suffice for basic human needs (van de Ven et al. 2020, 18). If farmers do not have a stable income, they tend to end up in a cycle of poverty. The cycle of poverty often results in the absence of health care institutions, lack of safety and housing, inadequate education opportunities, and a lack of employment opportunities (Habitat for Humanity Great Britain 2021). This vicious cycle of poverty creates negative externalities such as lack of food security, deforestation, the occurrence of child labour, and other climate and people harming practices.

Most Ethiopian smallholder coffee farming families too live below the international poverty line. Therefore, they rely on a system which consists of a combination of cash cropping and subsistence farming (Tolcha 2015, 121). The former is meant to yield economic turnover and the latter with the purpose for own consumption. However, 43% of the families still experience a lack of food security even though they tend to produce for economic turnover and personal consumption (Shumeta & D'Haese 2018, 2). Moreover, as Shumeta and D'Haese note, regions with prevalent cash cropping also have high prevalence of low education levels, lower productivity of yields, less access to health care institutions, lack of infrastructure, etcetera.

## 3. How do coffee supply chains operate?

This section will highlight how generic coffee supply chains operate, explicitly highlighting the position of women within these supply chains. This section will also delve into how fair trade organizations operate to increase opportunities for women within their supply chains.

### 3.1.Generic Supply Chains

Around 70 countries in the world can produce coffee (World Population Review 2021). Most of these countries are in the Global South, or better known as the Coffee Belt, as shown in figure 9. Figure 9 illustrates the coffee producing countries around the world, ranging from the South-Western hemisphere to the South-Eastern hemisphere.

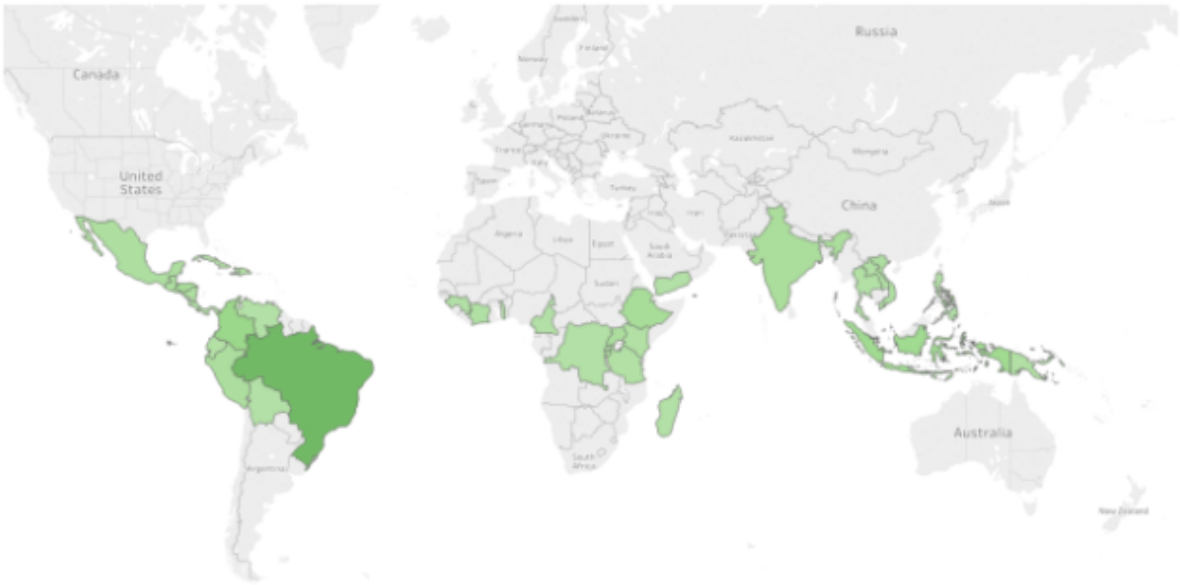



*Figure 2:* Coffee producing countries globally. Source: Ferreira, J. "Data Insight: World Coffee Production and Consumption." *Cafespaces,* uploaded on December 9th, 2017.

The countries which produce coffee will be dubbed as the **country of origin**. The countries in which the coffee is mostly consumed will be named the **country of consumption**.

Three steps must be undertaken within countries of origin before the coffee is shipped to the country of consumption. The first step is the cultivation of coffee. The cultivation begins with the planting of coffee bushes. The plants often take quite some time, approximately three to four years, to fully mature and produce berries that can eventually be utilized. In most cases of the cultivation of coffee, the coffee cherries are picked by hand. The picking is a very labour and people-intensive occupation. After the cherries have been picked, the batches of cherries will be transported to the mills where the coffee processing will occur. Transportation from and

to the mills can vary between the country of origin. The cherries are first sorted in size, weight, and shape. Hereafter, the cherries are processed.

There are two methods in which the cherries are processed, wet or dry. During the wet processing method, the cherries are thrown into the water. The ripe and usable cherries sink. The cherries are cleaned in a machine and then sun, or machine dry. This method is usually more expensive than dry processing because of the usage of water, which in many countries where coffee is produced, is scarce. It is therefore usually more expensive. However, dry processing is a lot cheaper than wet processing. The cherries are sorted by hand and then placed in the sun to dry or dried by a machine. In both methods, the final product is the green, often dried, bean. The residue of the processing, the hull, dust, and other scraps are usually thrown away. Then, the green beans are graded and exported to the country where the coffee will be consumed. The abovementioned activities are highly labour-intensive.

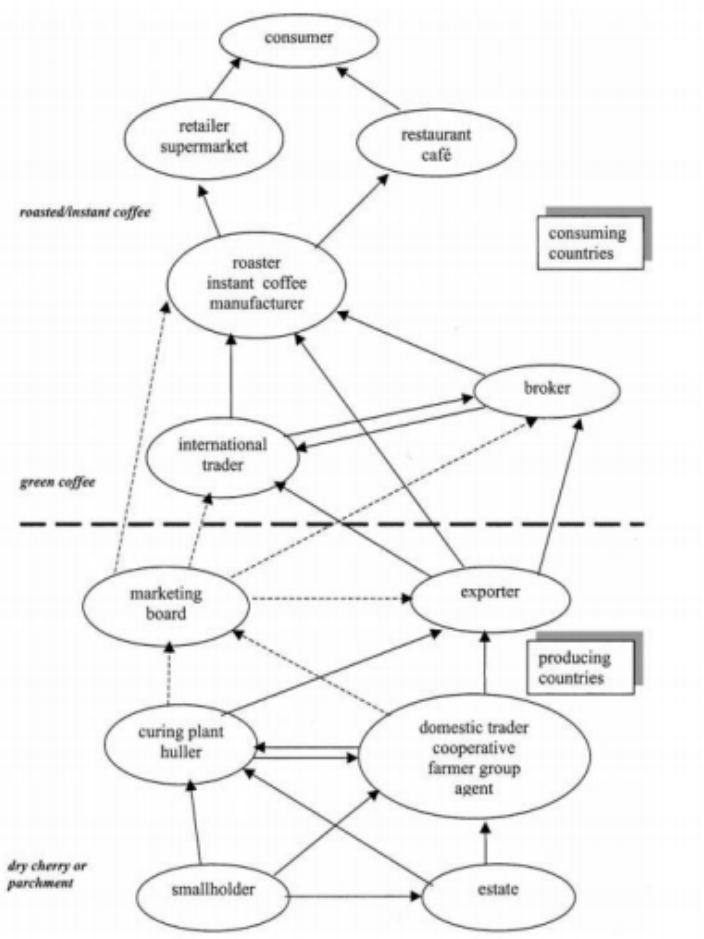



*Figure 3:* Ponte, S. 2002. "The Latte Revolution? Regulation, Markets and Consumption in the Global Coffee Chain." *World Development* 30 (7), 1099 - 1122.

After processing is done and the coffee is ready for export. The green coffee, depending on whether smallholder growers or plantations produce it, is sold to local traders or directly to the exporters. Green bean coffee is often sold below market price because of high supply, lower demand, and international market competition. Once exported, the coffee arrives in the country of consumption in which it is taken on by the importers, usually the considerable coffee cooperation. Many other steps can be taken in this process, such as choosing to buy from a smallholder

farmer or cooperation. These steps depend on the choices which are made in the country of origin.

Two other steps must be undertaken in the country of consumption before its consumers consume the coffee. Roasting takes place in the country of consumption. The roasting companies buy raw coffee beans far below the coffee's price and are processed. The roasting in the West often contributes to a vicious cycle of poverty for coffee farmers because value is added within these countries. Value is added by creating blends and using special techniques to roast. After the roasting, the coffee is packaged. Once the coffee has been roasted, the marketing process begins. It has been proven that marketing contributes to a large value-adding of the final product. After marketing, the product is sold to the consumer. These two activities are mostly labelled as capital intensive (Ponte 2002, 1101 – 1104).

This whole process can be seen in figure 3, which depicts a generic coffee supply chain. On the bottom of the figure, the smallholder farmer and the estates are depicted from which the red coffee cherries are sourced. The cherries then move on to the next individual which hulls the cherries. Hereafter, the hulled beans are moved to the next institution which exports the green beans, after which the product leaves the country of production. The figure illustrates that there are numerous players in country of consumption too. Hence, the supply chain becomes in-transparent and unclear,

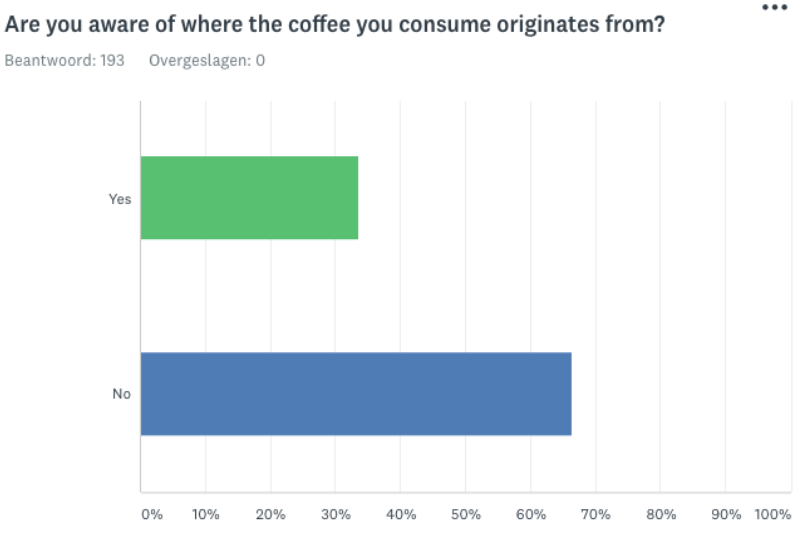



*Figure 4: Boom, M. van den, Christen Faver, Diene de Jong, Robin van Seumeren. 2020. "A Cup of Visualisation." Project for the Intensive Methods Clinic, Leiden University.*

It is important to note that big coffee corporations often do not directly contact the farmers from which they source. Because of this anonymity in the supply chain, there is often a lack of transparency. Corporations often cannot guarantee that certain practices do not occur in their supply chain simply because they do not know what happens in country of origin. A lack of transparency within the supply chain can also be discovered among the

consumers of coffee. The outcome of this study can be seen in figure 4.[1] A survey conducted in November 2020 illustrated just this lack of transparency. Out of the 193 respondents, 90% drank coffee daily. A little over 30% were aware of which country their coffee originated from. Most of the respondents, 67 %, did not know the country of origin of the coffee which they consumed daily.

### 3.2. The Position of Women in (Generic) Coffee Supply Chains

The Coffee Quality Institute (hereafter CQI) noted that women are important actors in coffee production. Women are responsible for and involved with caring for the coffee plants, the harvest, and the processing of the cherries, which are then sold to different actors. After the cherries are sold, men are often responsible for transportation to the market and marketing for and selling the green bean and roasted coffee (Jacobs and Cote *et al.,* 2015, 25).[2] The study conducted by the CQI moreover noted that women miss out on participation in the process of decision-making, experience lack of ownership of land, have a lack of access to resources, education, credit, amongst others. Cultural perceptions can significantly influence the position of women within the supply chain (25).

### 3.3.Fairtrade Coffee Supply Chains

As mentioned before, green bean coffee, in generic coffee supply chains is often bought at a below market price.[3] The low prices are because of high fragmentation within generic supply chains, high supply, low demand, and international competition. The principle of fair trade was established to protect producers at the lowest levels of the supply chains within every type of supply chain. Fair trade aims to pay an x percentage above the market price for producers of a good to climb out of poverty. Institutions, among which the World Trade Organization, European Fair Trade Association, and others share a definition of fair trade which is as followed: *"Fair trade is a trading partnership, based on dialogue, transparency, and respect, that seeks greater equity in international trade. It contributes to sustainable development by*

[1] The survey was conducted in November of 2020. The author of this researcher wished to comprehend whether consumers were aware of the origin of their coffee. The survey was constructed with three peers, Diene de Jong, Robin van Seumeren, Christen Faver, and published via the online survey tool Survey Monkey. The sampling size of this survey was a hundred ninety-three. This survey would serve as the basis of a visualization of the bean-to-cup process.

[2] N.B.: Role division within coffee supply chains can differentiate by region and country.

[3] Market price is country specific. In Ethiopia in 2021, coffee is sold at between 3.46 and 3.39 USD per kilo.

*offering better trading conditions to, and securing the rights of, disadvantaged producers and workers, especially in the South."* (International Fair Trade Organization 2009, 6).

The approach hence does not only seek to pay higher prices but also contribute systematically to the improvement of sustainable livelihoods of its receivers (Rice 2013, 128). Fair trade approaches also seek to produce higher quality, facilitate financial training and capacity building, provide for development in respective communities, and stimulate overall improvement of livelihoods. On a consumer level, the products sold through a fair trade venture carry a certification and often cost an estimated percentage more by which the buyer can recognize the product's underlying statements.

Ethiopia's coffee is traded on two levels: either through one of the twenty-eight cooperatives or on the ECX (Dahlberg 2012, 14). However, fair trade certification, on both levels, is practiced very little. One study illustrated that only 12% of coffee sold through the ECX is fair trade certified (Minten *et al.* 2018, 121). Another study illustrated that out of 28 coffee cooperatives in Ethiopia, whose production capacity ranges between 900 and 6000 kg of coffee cherries per year, only 10% was sold with a fair trade label (Dahlberg 2012, 16).

### 3.4.Other Types of Fair Trade

There are two other types of fair trade alongside the traditional fair trade approach of paying an estimated percentage above the market price. The first of which is a direct trade approach. Direct trade originated as a demand for better quality green bean coffee. Roasters in the West wished to increase their sustainability impact through direct contact with the seller of the green beans (Watts 2013, 121). There are however some issues with direct trade among which the struggle to find good quality green bean coffee, issues with investing, approaching farmers, traceability and transparency of the supply chain, and environmental issues (122 – 126).

The third fair trade approach neglects direct trade and seeks to completely restructure the notion of fair trade. Trade over aid as they call it themselves. So far there is only one coffee corporation who practices this approach of which they are also the founder. The FairChain approach by Moyee Coffee seeks to make the coffee supply chain more transparent, traceable, and fairer for all players involved. By roasting in country of origin and shipping roasted coffee to the country of consumption they aim to leave more value and employment behind in country of origin as opposed it disappearing to roasting facilities in the West (Moyee 2021, 11). The case study, as can be found in part III, will go into more detail about the specifics of Moyee's approach.

### 3.5.Women in Fair Trade Coffee Supply Chains

The definition of fair trade, as stated by Schmelzer, it is targeted at *"securing the rights of marginalized producers and workers – especially in the South."* (Schmelzer 2010, 229; van Gelder 2013, 17 – 18). Deconstructing this specific notion of fair trade, it is important to highlight the term marginalized. Marginalized, as defined by the World Fair Trade Organization-Asia, is regarded as *"... a condition and a process that prevents individuals and groups from full participation in social, economic, and political life enjoyed by a wider society.*" (Alakhunova *et al.* 2015, 2). In Ethiopia, women are strongly disadvantaged and thus marginalized. They lack literacy, health services, and basic human rights (UN Women 2013, 98). Similarly, as this research noted earlier, women who are employed in the cultivation of coffee face a lack ownership, decision-making, income, and many other issues (4C 2020).

Thus, fair trade in Africa should enable and enhance the rights of women as a marginalized group in coffee supply chains. However, there is little empirical, up-to-date evidence that women are empowered through the workings of fair trade (Hutchens 2010, 449). Hutchens argues, in her study on women's empowerment through fair trade in Asia, that fair trade movements must inherently restructure their approaches to the inclusion of women to promote human rights (464). The Fairtrade Foundation in 2018, who conducted a review of the literature concerned with the economic empowerment of women through Fairtrade, highlights, that "*gender issues are addressed within the Fairtrade Standards mainly in terms of non-discrimination rather than the pro-active promotion of benefits for women*" (ODI 2017, 39; quoted in Fairtrade Foundation 2018, 15). Many authors, as discussed within the paper by the Fairtrade Foundation, note that there is still much more to do to promote the position of marginalized women within the fair trade sector. McArdle and Thomas's literary-based research coincides with this latter argument and extends this by stating that the undermining of women within fair trade also has to do with existing power relations within the communities in which it is practiced (McArdle and Thomas 2012, 290).

The lack of evidence that women are empowered through this movement can also be seen in a growing number of international programs that tend to promote just this. Culture and social relations can influence what extend women can be empowered (Jacobs and Cote *et al.,* 2015, 25; Tallontire 2014, 5). Even though women tend to contribute a significant amount more to the production of coffee in Ethiopia, men usually own the land, which leads to the male cashing the profits (Tallontire 2014, 5). Moreover, most of the coffee cooperatives that women are members of are dominated by males. The International Trade Forum notes that it is difficult to measure ownership because of unclear distinctions in marital status (International Trade Forum

2008). A study conducted in the Jimma Zone in Ethiopia illustrated that the fair trade certification social premium paid to the coffee cooperatives within that region does not provide for access to services related to healthcare, education, transportation, amongst others. Moreover, the study illustrated that those women in the cooperative in the Jimma Zone still did not have increased access to health services and were required to walk many kilometres before reaching clean drinking water, utilized to grow coffee, and sustain themselves and their families (Jena *et al.* 2012, 434).

## 4. The Global and the African Continental Agenda's

This section will include the discussion of two different development agendas. The primary Agenda which will be adhered to is the Sustainable Development Goal Agenda 2030. The second Agenda which will be highlighted is Agenda 2063 by the African Union. This section will include a description of both agendas and highlight the most important targets and indicators related to the improvement of female smallholder livelihoods. Both agendas will be discussed separately first. They will be aligned to underscore differences and similarities between approaches to improving gender equality and female smallholder farmers' livelihoods.

### 4.1. The Sustainable Development Goal Agenda 2030

The SDGs build upon the previously established Millennial Development Goals (hereafter MDGs), which were drafted in 2000 and lasted until 2015 (French and Kotzé 2018, 1). These previously established MDGs included a goal on gender equality on a global scale (Sach 2012, 2207). However, it is noted that this goal has not yet been met on a global scale (2208). It is argued that there are seven main differences between the MDGs and the SDGs. According to Kumar, Kumar, and Vivekadhish, these are primarily related to the more inclusive nature of the process of drawing up the goals. Secondly, the scale of the SDGs compared to the MDGs. Thirdly, the larger scale of including the globe as opposed to only developing countries. Fourthly, the inclusion of Human Development Indexes (hereafter HDI). Fifth, human rights and equity. Sixth, the shorter period of achievement (15 as opposed to 25). Seventh, the focus on partnerships. As of last, the high importance of civil society organizations (Kumar *et al.* 2016, 4). The SDGs have taken on a broader approach than the MDGs. Although on a continental level, it is difficult to measure to what extent the MDGs were achieved, some advancements could be measured. Poverty reduction, MDG 1, in 2008 managed to be reduced from 58% in 1990 to 52% in 2008. Maternal mortality in 1990 lay around 870 deaths out of 100,000 births, which declined to 640 deaths per 100,000 in 2008. Primary school enrolment increased to 76% in 2008 from 58% in 1999. Other targets related to the MDGs achievement included women in parliament, access to clean drinking water, and child mortality (Chimhowu and Hulme 2012, 1). Chimhowu and Hulme note that although the MDGs were achieved largely, the implementation of an agenda after the latter should be focused on a way that includes small achievements on a continental scale more significantly (8). Chimhowu and Hulme stress the importance of involving African actors in constructing the targets following

the MDGs (9). Yet, many African institutions are hopeful that the SDG Agenda 2030 will spark a catalyst of developmental change.

The SDG Agenda 2030 is structured as followed: 1. No Poverty, 2. Zero Hunger, 3. Good Health and Well-Being, 4. Quality Education, 5, Gender Equality, 6. Clean Water and Sanitation, 7. Affordable and Clean Energy, 8. Decent Work and Economic Growth, 9. Industry, Innovation, and Infrastructure, 10. Reduced Inequalities, 11. Sustainable Cities and Communities, 12. Responsible Consumption and Production, 13. Climate Action, 14. Life Below Water, 15. Life on Land, 16. Peace, Justice, and Strong Institutions, 17. Partnership for the Goals. Within these seventeen goals, the U.N. established 169 targets which are accompanied by many indicators. These targets and indicators were called into play to easily monitor contribution to the success of the SDGs (SDG Kenya Forum 2016, 11).

Although there is a supra-national and governmental focus of the Agenda, critics have noted that a state-centred approach often falls short of implementation and effective solutions (Roberts and Parks 2007 in Sexsmith and McMicheal 2015, 582). Hence, as Sexsmith and McMicheal argue, public-private partnerships should play a pivotal role considering SDG 17 and other targets, especially in developing economies such as those in Sub-Saharan Africa (589). This argument is supported and highly stressed by Oliveira *et al.* in their article concerned with a conceptual framework for the application of the SDG Agenda in a local context (Oliveira *et al.* 2019, 22). Moreover, as stressed by Sexsmith and McMicheal, the International Assessment of Agricultural Knowledge, Science, and Technology for Development notes in their 2008 report that there should be a focus on 'nonhierarchic development models' in which the development of marginalized people plays a pivotal and primary role for the achievement of the global agenda (Sexsmith, McMicheal 2015, 590). The nonhierarchic development models as argued for by Sexsmith and McMicheal entails the realization of the SDGs through public-private partnerships in which marginalized people are pushed to the forefront.

### 4.2.Gender Equality in Agenda 2030

The subtitle of Goal 5 is "Achieve Gender Equality and Empower all Women and Girls." The Goal includes nine targets labelled 1 – 6 and a, b, and c (United Nations, n.d.). Each of the targets includes indicators, which illustrate what must be measured to achieve the target.

The applied targets and indicators most applicable for this research are scaled under targets 5.a, 5.b, and 5.c (see figure 5). Figure 5 depicts the specific targets of 5.a, 5.b, and 5.c. Target 5.a states "*Undertake reform to give women equal rights to economic resources, as well as*

*access to ownership and control over land and other forms of property, financial services, inheritance and natural resources, in accordance with national laws."* The indicator 5.a.1 states as a measurement "*(a) Proportion of total agricultural population with ownership or secure rights over agricultural land, by sex; and (b) share of women among owners or right-bearers of agricultural land, by type of tenure."* And 5.a.2 states as measurement "*Proportion of countries where the legal framework (including customary law) guarantees women's equal rights to land ownership and/or control."*

The target 5.b by notes the "*Enhance the use of technology, in particular information and communications technology, to promote the empowerment of women."* The indicator here measures "*Proportion of individuals who own a mobile telephone, by sex."*

The last target, 5.c, indicates "*Adopt and strengthen sound policies and enforceable legislation of gender equality and the empowerment of all women and girls at all levels."* The indicator here reads "*Proportion of countries with systems to track and make public allocations for gender equality and women's empowerment."*

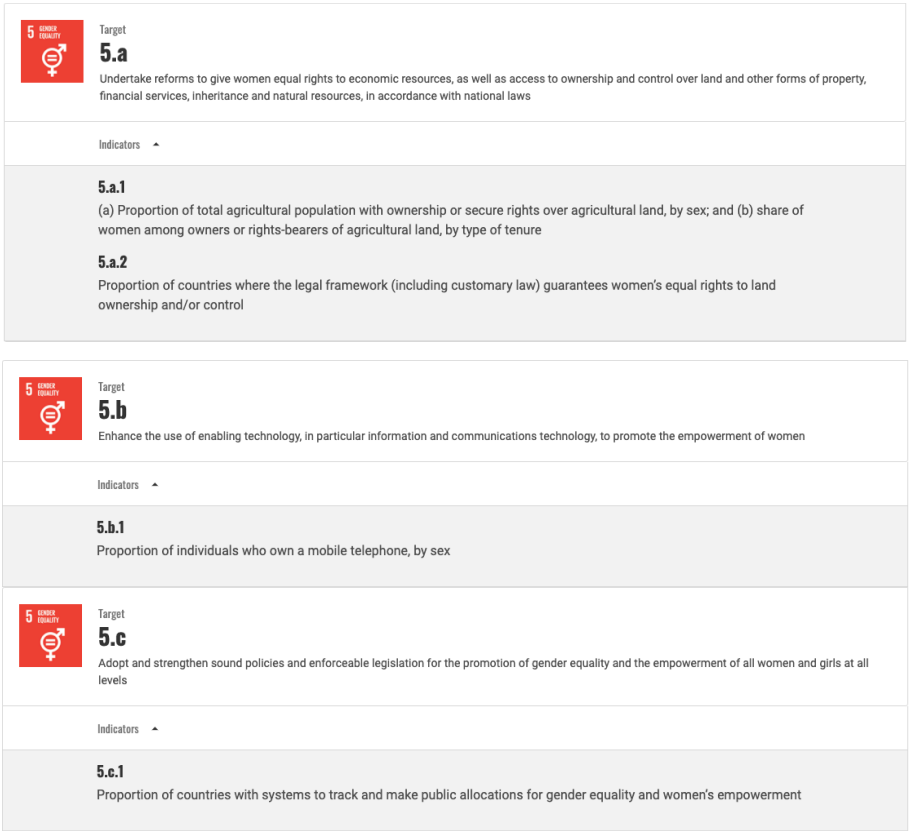



*Figure 5: SDG 5, Target 5.a. Source: United Nations. 2021. "Goal 5: Achieve Gender Equality and Empower all Women and Girls." Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Accessed May 9th.*

### 4.3.Agenda 2063

In 2015 the African Union (hereafter A.U.) wanted to acknowledge the challenges and successes of the continent and how it functioned and flourished in the international system (Tella 2018, 716). It acknowledged and highlighted the shortcomings of the MDGs and its specific focus on aiming to develop only the Global South (716). An agenda for the continent and by the continent. The Agenda works with three-term goals and parts. The short-term (10 years), medium-term (10-25 years), and long-term (25 – 50 years) goals (Tella 2018, 716). The Agenda counts for seven aspirations, each with a set of goals. Women are highlighted within the main context of the Agenda and focused on in two of the seven aspirations. The first aspiration, *"A prosperous Africa based on inclusive growth and sustainable development,"* focuses on improving health services for everybody and specifically women and girls. Aspiration six, *"An Africa, whose development is people-driven, relying on the potential of African people, especially women and youth, and caring for children."*, includes a more focus on women. The First Goal of the sixth aspiration focuses on the improvement of gender equality in most of the life, among which social, political, economic. Moreover, this Goal wishes to end discrimination, in every form, against girls and women (African Union 2015, 13 – 14). For the latter aspiration, the Agenda recognizes

**Aspiration 6. An Africa Whose Development is people driven, relying on the potential of the African People, particularly its Women and Youth and well cared for children.**

There are two goals under this aspiration with three priority areas. The goals under this aspiration are numbered as goals 17-18 in the results framework.

| Goal 17: Full Gender Equality in All Spheres of Life | | |
|---|---|---|
| Priority Area (1) | 2023 Target | Key Process Actions/Milestones Towards 2023 on AU Framework(s) |
| Women Empowerment | National<br>1. Equal economic rights for women, including the rights to own and inherit property, sign a contract, save, register and manage a business and own and operate a bank account by 2025<br>2. At least 20% of rural women have access to and control productive assets, including land and grants, credit, inputs, financial service and information<br>3. At least 30% of all elected officials at local, regional and national levels are Women as well as in judicial institutions<br>4. At least 25% of annual public procurement at national and sub-national levels are awarded to Women<br>5. Increase gender parity in decision | National<br>1. AU/REC Aligned Gender Policy is domesticated from 2017<br>RECs<br>1. Consultation with Member States on AU/REC Aligned Gender Policies Continental is completed in 2016<br>Continental<br>1. Framework Document and Action Plan for Harmonization of RECs and AU Gender Policy is developed followed by Consultations with RECs on Harmonization of Gender Policies in 2015 |
| | making positions at all levels to at least 50-50 between Women and Men<br>6. Solemn Declaration Index (SDI) developed by GIMAG and ECA on Gender is computed bi-annually and used in making policy / resource allocation decisions.<br>Continental<br>1. Increase gender parity in decision making positions at all levels in pan African organizations to at least 50-50 between women and men<br>2. High Level Panel on Women Empowerment operational by 2016<br>3. Fund for African Women is operational by 2017 | |

*Figure 6: Aspiration 6 of the African Union Agenda 2063. Source: African Union Commission. 2015. Agenda 2063: The Union We Want. First Ten-Year Implementation Plan 2013 - 2023. African Union, September.*

that women do not own and inherit as much property, have access to bank accounts or financial facilities, compared to men and that these elements should improve (22).

As brought forward by Agenda 2063 and the African Union, the aspirations must be realized on two levels, the national and the continental level. The earlier mentioned aspirations, one to seven, are included within the short-term goals of the timespan of 10 years. Figure 6 depicts the seventeenth goal of the sixth aspiration of the AU Agenda 2063. By 2023, as can be seen in figure 6, the short-term goals related to women include reducing female unemployment by 2 % annually. Secondly, reduce female poverty levels by 50%, a 30% increase in access to reproductive health services —furthermore, an aspired increase of 50% of women in the informal sector who own small enterprises. Moreover, higher levels of female participation in agricultural supply chains with 30% (24 – 54).

### 4.4.Let's Discuss the Agenda's

When aligning the Agenda's some differences and similarities arise. The primary, and most apparent difference, lies in the scope of both agendas. Agenda 2030 is globally focused. Agenda 2063 takes on a continental approach to improve the livelihoods of its inhabitants concerning the global. Another difference lies in the approach to the achievement of the targets and aspirations. Agenda 2030 is quite abstract in the achievement of the approaches and lacks stating to which extent institutions and individuals can help achieve the targets. The translation of this global Agenda into national policies can allow for different interpretations of the targets. Hence, critics such as Sexsmith and McMicheal stress the importance of public-private partnerships to achieve the set targets (Sexsmith, McMicheal 2015, 590). These public-private partnerships are stressed more in Agenda 2063, in which continental collaborations are pivotal in achieving the aspirations (African Union 2015, 22).

## 5. Ethiopia's Developmental Plans

This section will highlight how the Ethiopian Government implemented policies targeted in the country's development plans, explicitly highlighting coffee, smallholder farmers, and the position of women. The section will adhere to a chronological order of all implemented plans starting with 2002 and ending with the most recent plans, as adopted, and implemented by the Ethiopian Government.

### 5.1.Sustainable Development Poverty Reduction Program

Ethiopia's government has been very growth agnostic in the past decade, aiming to eradicate poverty in the country completely. One of the first policies created by the Ethiopian Government was the Poverty Reduction Strategy Program under the Sustainable Development and Poverty Reduction Program (hereafter SDPRP) of 2002 to 2005 (Ministry of Finance and Economic Development 2006, 1). Overall, between 2001 and 2005, Ethiopia's GDP grew from 1.0 % in 2001 to 10.6 % in 2005 (3). The SDPRP also focused on gender as an essential tool for development by stating that: "*... the Government has placed a strong emphasis on the participation of women in the developmental process, policies and strategies have been formulated to integrate and mainstream the gender dimensions in economic, social and political decisions. ... Protective legislation has been passed in terms of women's access to land, credit facilities, and productive resources as well."* (15). Interestingly, although, as stated in the latter, the outcomes of the SDPRP do not specify numbers on female access to land or credit facilities. Within the outcomes of the selected thematic targets, the position of women is highlighted mainly in the health sector. Hence, the SDPRP's lack of integrating an approach to stimulate the development of gender in the different sectors was to be taken as a priority within the next developmental policies, namely the PASDEP.

The SDPRP recognizes the value within the economic, social, and environmental sectors, which coffee has on Ethiopian society. During the introduction of the SDPRP, coffee accounted for approximately 60 % of the earnings of Ethiopia's export (Ministry of Finance and Economic Development 2002, 33).[4] Thus, enhancement in this sector could provide for sustainable growth. The market surrounding coffee in this period mostly fell under the umbrella term of agriculture. Under this umbrella term of agriculture, the most sought-after developmental policies for coffee were related to the provision of electricity, increased attention to niche

[4] N.b. This document was drafted before introducing the Ethiopian Commodity Exchange, which sought to regulate the coffee market and create higher levels of transparency for buyers and sellers.

markets within coffee such as organic and fair trade, the provision of services of institutions to the private sector (an increase of public-private collaborations), and the protection of coffee for external and internal market shocks (63 – 140).

### 5.2.Plan for Accelerated and Sustained Development to End Poverty

Hereafter, the Ethiopian Government constructed the Plan for Accelerated and Sustained Development to End Poverty (hereafter PASDEP) in 2005. PASDEP was a developmental framework aligned with the MDGs, or as stated in the program, "*... with particular emphasis on greater commercialization of agriculture and enhancing private sector development, industry, urban development and scaling-up of efforts to achieve the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)."* (Ministry of Finance and Economic Development 2006, 1). PASDEP ran from 2005 to 2010. The learnings from the SDPR allowed for the formulation of the plans for advancing gender as a primary target in the PASDEP and were formulated as followed: "*The Government has moved decisively to advance the agenda on the gender dimensions of poverty during the SDPRP, and a significant number of initiatives are underway, including the National Action Plan on Gender, which forms the core of the gender strategy under PASDEP, as well as analytical initiatives such as a mainstreaming of gender into the budgeting process, and strengthening gender-disaggregated data reporting to inform policy better."* (171). Thus, the main idea of the National Action Plan on Gender (hereafter NAP) was to align gender targets into programs and policies to improve outcomes of gender equity and reduce poverty (171). The NAP included four general objectives: enhancing economic growth, improving human development, democratization, and governance, and improving public institutional performance (172 – 173). These objectives were translated similarly into priorities for action into the PASDEP. The PASDEP, however, extended these objectives by providing stand-alone objectives targeted at environmental management and protection, educational and training access, sexual and reproductive health rights, reduction of violence, and the inclusion of an overall gender-based analytical framework within governmental policies and departments (173 – 175). Thus, the NAP and PASDEP were to cooperate closely to achieve set goals. However, PASDEP focussed more on the agricultural importance of women. This importance manifested itself into specific targets such as target a.2., "*Enhance rural women's equal access to and control over productive resources and services (land, oxen, extension, credit) in order to render them food secure and come out of the poverty trap;"*, b.1., "*promote women's participation and empowerment at all levels;"*, b.2., "*Increase women's access to information, improved technology, and alternative livelihoods;"*, c.3., "*Increase pastoralist and agro-pastoralist girls'*

*access to education;"*, and c.5., "*Strengthen the program to increase access and literacy levels of women;"* (173 – 174).

Coffee, in the PASDEP, was again categorized under the sectoral policies for agriculture, along with tea and spices. Within the section dedicated to the three latter products, coffee was estimated to grow from 500,000 hectares to 734,000 hectares. The Government targeted smallholders to produce 419,000 tons of coffee by the end of 2010 (75). There were aims to reform agricultural practices to stimulate development and growth by the Ethiopian Government, as mentioned in point 7.16, Pastoralist Livelihood and Development, in the PASDEP. The aims within this target included the improvement of livelihoods, increase in essential social services, and the resolvent of institutional issues. Specific targets which related to coffee were a.1., *"Drought",* a.3., *"Water Development and Environmental Protection and Management"*, a.4., "*Natural Resource Degradation"*, and a.5., *"Infrastructure"*, b.1., "*Education"* (193 – 195). Specific attention should be given to target c.1., "*Gender*". Here, the PADEP notes the following: *"issues are crucial in understanding pastoral poverty and poverty reduction. ... and pastoral women are among the most marginalized groups in the country;"* (195).

The targets related to the production of coffee were realized to an extent too. Of the mentioned target of 419,000 tonnes of coffee produced, 341,000 tonnes were eventually produced by the end of 2010 (International Monetary Fund 2011, 9). Of these 341,000 tonnes, 323,000 tonnes were in total exported (10). Improvements were made in the field of the provision of agricultural extension services among which training, agricultural research, land right certification, the rehabilitation of land by water and conservation of soil, agricultural markets, cooperatives, and exports, and an increase in the number of food security programs (9 – 10). The outcomes mention little about the improvement of the livelihoods of female pastoralists, even though PASDEP insisted on its importance.

## 5.3.The Growth and Transformation Plans I and II

### *5.3.1. GTP I*

Ethiopia had just acquired the taste for constructing agendas targeted at national and sustainable development, and they were not planning to stop after the PASDEP period. The national vision for the years onwards of 2010 was dubbed the Growth and Transformation Plans (hereafter GTP), of which the first was launched in 2011 (International Monetary Fund 2011, vii). The first GTP envisioned agriculture as a significant opportunity for sustainable

developmental growth. As they put it in GTP I "*The agricultural sector will continue to be the major driver of economic growth. ... The experiences gained from the agricultural development program, and lessons drawn from the implementation of the PASDEP, were input to the GTP agricultural development strategy."* (22). In GTP I, coffee exports are targeted to grow from the baseline measurement in 2010 of 319,000 tonnes to 831,000 tonnes at the end of 2015. In the sub-sector of Agriculture and Rural Development, coffee was targeted to grow from 462,000 hectares in 2010 to 815,000 by 2015 (47). The earnings from the export of coffee were expected to grow from five hundred twenty-eight million USD in 2010 to 2037 million USD (48).

Building upon the lessons drawn from PASDEP, the GTP I became more targeted towards the growth of smallholder famers stating that "*During the GTP period, a key strategic direction is to ensure smallholder agriculture becomes the main source of agricultural growth by scaling up interventions based upon the experience gained, and identification of successes achieved in the previous plan period."* (45). Although the previous plan only mentioned the improvements of smallholder farmers lives in specific context, this development agenda sought to utilize this group of people as springboard for the achievement of higher levels of development, of which productivity and production were vital elements. Three targets were established, a. smallholder agricultural development, b. pastoral development, and c. private sector agricultural development (45 – 46). Targets were aligned with previous development policy agendas and considering the MDGs through stating that *"The broad objective of agriculture and rural development in the next five-years is to achieve accelerated and sustained growth and contributes to poverty eradication and achievement of MDGs."* (47). It should be noted that there is a consensus on the positive achievements of Ethiopia on the several targets of the MDGs. The achieved goals are mostly scaled under the health-related targets, ergo MDG 4 (Reduce Child Mortality), MDG 5 (Improve Maternal Health), and MDG 6 (Combat HIV/AIDS, Malaria, and other diseases) (Assefa *et al.* 2017, 3 - 5).

Sub-targets were added to the GTP I to expand the outcomes of smallholding farming practices. Among which a focus on improvement of best-practices of smallholder farming, technology multiplication, supply, and distribution, and large-scale farming development through *"... undertaken by private investors in lowland areas where abundant extensive land exists ... The Government will encourage investment in suitable areas identified by enabling local and external investors to develop using a lease system. The necessary support will be given to encourage the participation of Ethiopian investors. ... Every effort will be made to ensure private investors receive efficient services from Government."* (50 – 55). Hence,

agriculture and smallholder farmers were to develop using public-private partnerships and investing.

As mentioned before, gender had to take a primary role in the PASDEP period, also considering the establishment of the NAP for gender. Targets and outcomes related to gender were partly achieved within the years 2005 to 2010. An approximate 18.5% increase in female trainees within the agricultural extension services target (International Monetary Fund 2011, 9). The most significant achievements were reached within the health service sector during the PASDEP period. An increased number of females, who were childbearing age, started to use contraception, from 15% to 32% (17). However, other improvements in the livelihoods of women often lacked data. As noted, "*Efforts have been undertaken to ensure the benefits of women in economic growth and social development.*" (17). Nevertheless, data to underpin the claims often lack the policies' outcomes, as mentioned in the PASDEP.

The GTP I focussed more on the multidimensional facet of problems related to women. This multidimensional facet was achieved mainly by including women in most of the targets (27). The GTP highlights that woman, in 2011, makeup half of the country's population and thus have large untapped potential (110). The main objective of the GTP, related to gender was, "*to ensure women's active participation in the country's economic and social development as well as political processes and equal benefits to women from the resultant outcomes."* The most critical Gender development targets related to the agricultural sector were 2., "*Increase the number of women who receive training in management and entrepreneurship."*, 3., "*Increase the number of women beneficiaries of credit and saving services."*, and 5., "*Increase the participation of women in the decision-making process."* (111). However, the National Planning Commission and the United Nations in Ethiopia noted, in a report concerned with the achievement of the MDGs and thus the GTP I, that youth unemployment among women remained high and low levels of participation of women due to a lack of education was frequent. Moreover, low levels of political connectedness, amongst other downfalls, were still prevalent in 2015 (National Planning Commission and United Nations Ethiopia, 2015, 40;80).

### *5.3.2. GTP II*

After the first GTP, Ethiopia decided to introduce the second GTP following the years of 2015. As discussed in the GTP II, the notions are rooted in a commitment to the SDG Agenda 2030 (National Planning Commission 2016, ix; 76). As the focus of GTP I, agriculture grew 6.6% per year of implementation of the development agenda. This growth, however, did not meet the envisioned goal of 8% growth per year (National Planning Commission 2016, 24).

The coffee sector also lacked the achievement of the desired goal. Of the average target of 690,000 tonnes, only 60.8% was produced. Of that desired amount, 420,000 tonnes were produced by smallholder farmers, only approximately 40% of the desired outcome (24). Moreover, the export of coffee also did not reach the set target. Not reaching this target was primarily due to increases in international prices of the product (16). This latter issue created issues with the coordination of targets for GTP II for the production and export of coffee (67). The GTP II aims to increase coffee production from 420,000 tonnes in 2015 to 1045.05 tonnes in 2020 (122).

Growth in the agricultural sector during the GTP I was targeted at 8% annually. It, however, fell short 1.4% and ended at around 6.6% growth annual growth during the GTP I period (24). The International Monetary Fund noted that "*The major factor for the shortfall in achieving the planned level of agricultural productivity is related to the coverage and quality of implementation of the agricultural extension system."* (25). Although a shortfall was noted during the first GTP period, GTP II puts agriculture as a frontrunner for inclusive growth and sustainable development. The program stresses the importance of education of young farmers and the critical role private investing can play in the development of the sector (78). Smallholder farmers are thus at the forefront of the development scheme for the years 2015 to 2020. The second GTP seeks to broadly integrate the targets from the first GTP and extend them. Among these targets are A), "*Crop Farming and Pastoral Development"*, and B) *"Graduate Youths and Private Sector in Agricultural Investment"*. The implementation strategies focus on several aspects, among which capacity building, the improvement of crop productivity and production, strengthening of cooperatives, improvement of agricultural inputs such as fertilizer and seeds, the expansion of agricultural extensions systems among which investments, livestock productivity, and production improvements, natural resource conservation, and biodiversity conservation, food securitization, and overall development of agriculture in pastoral areas (129 – 135). All these implementation strategies are focused mainly on the increase of output of production. The GTP III does consider the trade aspect of the produced goods to a very large extend. The development scheme, which focuses on smallholder farmers, wishes to enhance the commodity exchange system. "*By providing up-to-date market information for all stakeholders, particularly for smallholder farmers and identifying the bottlenecks of the exchange system, and taking measures based on research findings, the commodity exchange system will be strengthened."* (165). Although not stated in this specific strategy, the overarching target is related to the provision of information technology through digital means.

In GTP I, the main objective related to the encouragement and strengthening of female participation was through associations and organizations. The primary outcome was increased political participation and higher levels of equity (55). However, "*the capacity of these organizations has not yet reached the desired level in terms of membership, as well as organizational and leadership capability. … Going forward therefore effective coordination of all actors should be established in transparently monitoring implementation and ensuring accountability for failing on ones responsibilities."* (55 - 56). Although targets in GTP I sometimes lacked effective outcome, around 8.6 million women benefitted from (non)agricultural activities. Moreover, 2 million female-headed households were granted land use rights. By providing relevant technologies, the reduction of workload alleviated around 3.4 million women of the extra workload. Credit and saving services recognized that around 6.62 million women benefitted from their services under the targets of GTP I (56). Although much was achieved during the first GTP period, much still must be done during the second. The National Planning Commission notes that agricultural sector extension provision can enhance women's lives in rural areas. The provision of technology in these sectors can also contribute to the alleviation of work, increase land ownership, and provide for saving schemes (56).

Here GTP II envisions several significant targets. The plan wishes, concerning agriculture, to increase female participation from 27 to 50 %. They wish to do so by engaging ten-point one million women in agricultural activities. These latter goals will be extended for five-point eight million women through the provision of relevant technological services. Focus within the agricultural scheme will be put on the conservation of the environment. These envisioned targets had been aligned with the SDG Agenda 2030 goals concerned with gender, SDG 5 (Gender Equality) (209).

# III. Case Study

This section of the research will include the specific case study of the research. The methodology will firstly be highlighted which is followed by the limitations, and the theoretical framework. Hereafter, the case of Moyee Coffee and their possible contributions to the realization of SDG 5 (Gender Equality) is discussed, which is followed by the reflection on the outcomes of the data as discussed in the case study.

## 1. Data Collection

The research problem this research wishes to investigate is the following: *"Does Moyee Coffee, a Dutch coffee corporation, contribute to the realization of SDG 5 of Agenda 2063?"*

To answer this question, this research uses secondary quantitative data. The data utilized comes from a study conducted by Moyee Coffee in 2019 and 2020. This study sought to, amongst 375 smallholder farmers, determine how far off smallholder farmers as employed by Moyee are from living income and how this living income can be realized through specific interventions. The survey was designed in the form of multiple choice, Likert scales, and open-ended questions.[5] The various modules utilized in this study, which ranged from 1 to 14, included surveys. These surveys included questions related to the variables which constitute a calculation of the Living Wage and Income concept as the thought of by the academics Anker and Anker.[6] The total sampling size of all modules together is 5430, of which the frequency of responses is not known. The location of the gathered data was at the Moyee wet mill in Limmu Kosha, SNNPR, Ethiopia, where the washing station of Moyee coffee is located and where the smallholder farmers as employed by Moyee deliver the coffee cherries. The surveys were administered on paper, after which Ådne Renes transposed them accordingly into Excel sheets. The questions of the various modules can be found in the appendix.

Building on the secondary quantitative data, this research has created experimental data by controlling and manipulating variables. The modules and corresponding variables can be seen in the table below. Five of the fourteen modules were utilized to comprehend the extends of gender equality within Moyee's supply chain.

[5] Likert scales are scales which can operationalize perceptions of your sample size. For more information I refer to https://www.scribbr.com/methodology/likert-scale/

[6] For more information about the Anker and Anker Living Wage calculation, this research refers to the book Living Wages Around the World by Richard and Martha Anker.

| Module | Variables | Female | Male | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| General | Household size, landownership, coffee-farm related labour. | 16 | 74 | 90 |
| 1 | Intra-household relationships | 63 | 465 | 528 |
| 3 | Water, healthcare, electricity, technology | 12 | 18 | 30 |
| 11 | Financial | 12 | 18 | 30 |
| UCPH | Technological and decision-making | 7 | 18 | 25 |
| **Total: 5** | 15 Variables | 122 | 611 | 733 |

### 1.1. Methodology of the Data Analysis

The data of the modules, as can be seen in the table above, first needed to be cleaned up. Double farmer IDs were removed to overcome duplication of participants. The data is tested in a T-test, indicating that two groups, male, and female, will be compared according to quantitative categorical variables. The data of the specific modules will be translated into corresponding graphs and diagrams and tested according to the theoretical framework, which will be discussed further on. Thus, the position of male and female smallholder farmers as employed by Moyee will be compared. The data will also be compared to national figures on the variables discussed. This can indicate to what extent Moyee's female smallholder farmers are above or below the national averages.

### 1.2.Limitations

Unfortunately, this research acknowledges that there are limitations related to the secondary quantitative data. The largest limitation thus far has been the restriction in being able to gather on-the-ground data. Originally, the internship was supposed to be abroad, in which data could be gathered. Nevertheless, due to the COVID-19 crisis, no one was allowed to travel abroad during the period of the internship. The researcher was constricted to the readily available data

and provided for by Moyee and FairChain. However, there is no data available, related to the specific variables, from Moyee prior to these Living Income studies. Hence, the data utilized in this research will act as a **baseline study**. A baseline study describes the current situation of the supply upon which specific interventions and projects can start. Thus, these baseline studies, as based upon the data provided by Moyee, will have to illustrate what the position of women is within the supply chain of Moyee coffee and what potential there is to contribute to SDG 5 (Gender Equality) However, the limitations do invite further and more extensive research, which the researcher and Moyee coffee will hopefully utilize.

## 2. Theoretical Framework

To be able to answer the research question, the two following theoretical approaches will be utilized throughout the case study.

### 2.1.Sustainable Livelihood Approach/Framework

The Sustainable Livelihood Approach stems from changing perspectives around the '90s and early 2000s. Academia began to take a different stance towards poverty, sustainable development, and participation (Brocklesby and Fisher 2003, 185). Among these scholars were Sen, Chambers and Conway, Moser, and Swift. There are four main components to the Sustainable Livelihoods Framework. Firstly, the vulnerable context of people. Secondly, five types of capital assets people can utilize (1. Social, 2. Natural, 3. Financial, 4. Physical, 5. Human) (187).[7] These type of capital assets creates the basis of the people's asset base. Thirdly, these

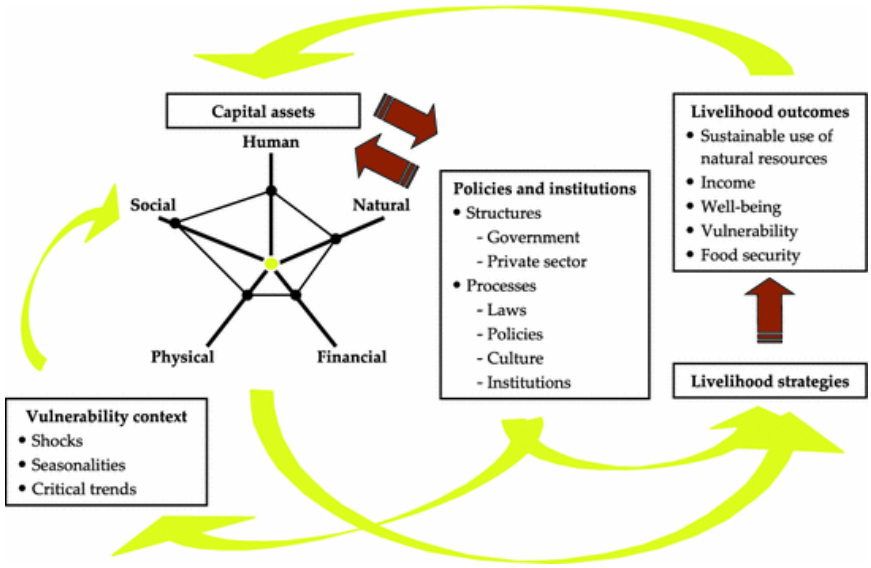



*Figure 7:* The Sustainable Livelihoods Framework. Source Serrat, O. 2017. "The Sustainable Livelihoods Approach." *Knowledge Solutions.* Springer, Singapore, 21 - 26.

[7] Social capital includes people's relationships; natural capital refers to natural resources available; financial capital relates to income, savings, and debt, physical capital to the availability of transportation, infrastructure, etcetera.; and lastly, human capital the skills, knowledge, and labor one possesses.

latter mentioned assets are related to livelihood strategies, and in the case of this research, how these assets realize a level of gender equality within Moyee's supply chain as part of a possible contribution to the realization of SDG 5 (Gender Equality). Fourthly, access to livelihood activities shapes by different factors, including policies, institutions, and processes (187).

This research will add one specific type of capital asset to the usage of the Sustainable Livelihoods Framework, which will be targeted in the specificity of this research and the contribution to the SDG Agenda 2030, specifically SDG 5, target 5.b and 5.b.1 (United Nations 2021). Physical, digital assets will be defined as items which *"using or relating to digital signals and computer technology"* (Cambridge Dictionary 2021). For this study, physical, digital assets will include mobile phones and the digitization of labour activities within the supply chain of a set institution. Therefore, physical, digital assets, as provided for by institutions or owned by individuals, can serve a purpose in improving such livelihoods and contributing to SDG 5. The variables discussed are aligned with the targets in SDG 5 (Gender Equality). Hence, through the discussion of the variables, measurements of the contribution to the achievement of SDG 5 can be measured.

### 2.2.Gendered Commodity Chains

Jane Collins, who builds upon other scholars, illustrates that gendered commodity chains analysis; *"... not only the labor intensity of the production process, the number of jobs created, and the gender and ethnic composition of the workforce but also the nature of the labor process, the forms of workplace control, and the ways in which the needs of firms for a particular kind of labor at a particular price intersect with local social relations of gender and ethnicity."* (Collins 2014, 32). Collins also stresses the importance, within gendered commodity chain analysis, of the preferences by the Global North as influential on the production schemes of the Global South (36). Based upon Anna Tsing (Tsing 2004, 32), Collins puts focusses on how doctrines of institutions can influence practices related to contracting of people in supply chains. Concretely, this approach highlights where agency happens and how institutions' choices influence the position of women within supply chains (36).

In the second chapter of the book, *Gendered Commodity Chains: Seeing Women's Work and Households in Global Production,* in which Collins is featured, Ramamurthy provides for elements which highlight feminist commodity chains. The first element is that *"Instead, feminist commodity chains, as connections across times and places, are neither linear nor unidirectional nor closed."* (Ramamurthy 2014, 44). Thus, different influences can have different effects upon women within commodity chains and choices made are never a one-way

street. The second element seeks to understand "*how gendered individual and collective identities are constituted through the process of production."* (45). The third element consists of regarding class not essential in relation to gender. What is meant by this is that it is crucial to shed the notion of class-structures within a society, as produced by introducing individuals to the work environment, because it has different national connotations (47). The fourth element seeks to "*... direct attention to consumption as a necessary mapping of how commodities connect distant locations and enable them to imagine and perform their place in the world."* (48). This is targeted at seeking the connection between consuming and producing households in spatially different locations. The fifth element wants to recognize that the producers of the good wish to consume it themselves as the consumers of that specific product (48). And the sixth element wishes to regard the household as safeguarding social reproduction alongside producing a global commodity.

In applying this type of analysis, Ramamurthy constituted several questions which can be posed during the gendered commodity chain analysis, among which the following:

1. How does difference, especially gender difference in relation to other forms of difference (e.g., national or racial), inscribe the policies and governmental programs of states and corporations that create the infrastructure for global commodity circuits?
2. How do policies and programs both attract and perplex the workers involved in commodity circuits?
3. How is the household an institution for the production and consumption of labor and global commodities?
4. What are the gendered aspects of commodity chains that fracture in unpredictable ways?

This research will utilize the questions above in the section which reflects upon the data. However, due to the limitations as posed by the COVID-19 situation, the questions will not be of ethnographic research in nature.

### 2.3.Methodology of the Application of the Theoretical Framework

The Sustainable Livelihoods Framework will be applied first throughout the data analysis.
The vulnerable context, as described as the first step in the framework, has to a large extent been described in the second part of this research, which included the literature review. However, the vulnerable context will shortly be reiterated at the beginning of each capital asset. The second step will include a discussion of each of the capital assets. This can be found under

heading 3.4, where the baseline study, which illustrates the position of women and men in the supply chain of Moyee, will be compared to the regional averages. The last two steps, livelihood strategies, and livelihood activities will be taken up in heading 3.5 where the data is reflected upon. Under heading 3.5, there will be a specific focus on the outcome of the compared data in 3.4.

Ramamurthy's questions, as posed under the Gendered Commodity Chain analysis, will be highlighted in the reflection which can be found under heading 3.5.

## 3. Moyee Coffee

This section will delve into the workings of Moyee and the FairChain foundation, a Dutch coffee corporation which seeks to approach the production of coffee differently than other fair trade coffee corporations. It will begin by introducing Moyee Coffee and the FairChain Foundation. Followed by an explanation of Moyee's supply chain. Hereafter, the section will continue with the comparison between men and women on the assorted variables as part of the baseline study as compared to the regional figures of the variables of the SNNPR. The variables will be sorted into the different capital assets as mentioned in the Sustainable Livelihoods Approach. This part of the research will be followed by a reflection of that data, highlighting the last two steps in the Sustainable Livelihoods Approach and the questions as posed in the Gendered Commodity Chains analysis.

### 3.1.The principles of Moyee and the FairChain Foundation

Moyee FairChain coffee was founded in 2012. Their main aim was to restructure existing coffee supply chains and make them fairer chains instead of fairer trade. They wanted to do this in the country in which Arabica coffee originated, namely Ethiopia. Moyee coffee would function as the coffee brand while the FairChain Foundation was the backbone of the operation. The FairChain Foundation, as they dub it themselves, "*uses cutting-edge technologies to facilitate inclusive business models and shared supply chains. Because when you give developing countries the right knowledge, skills, and technologies, you empower them to produce and package the commodities they farm. You give them power of profit."* (Moyee 2021, 2). The two interlinked institutions base themselves on four driving principles. The first principle is Trade over Aid. They are rooted in the notion that they function as social entrepreneurship. Within this notion, they aim to distribute the earnings of the production of coffee socially. Hence, they chose to roast in Ethiopia so that the value-adding activities remain in the country of origin. The second principle is the creation of shared value. To establish their vision, they want to leave 50% of the value created in Ethiopia. The third principle is the competition on quality and not on poverty. By buying quality products from smallholder farmers and paying a FairChain a 20% premium price on top of the market price, they aim to increase quality. At the same time, prevent poverty from occurring. However, by conducting studies Moyee realized that paying a premium price cannot get smallholder farmers to a living income. For an average Ethiopian smallholder family of seven people, this translates to 34.200 Ethiopian Birr a month. However, the current living income of Moyee's farmers, as calculated

in the Living Income studies in 2019/2020, is around 21.400 birr a month. Therefore, Moyee has established a Living Income Benchmark in the Living Income Roadmap to lift smallholder farmers from the current income of 21.400 birr a month to 34.200 birr a month.

The fourth principle is the digitization of the supply chain into BlockChain technology. This aim is rooted in the belief that digitization can create radical transparency for the customers of their product. This way, the value is redistributed and can contribute to the SDG Agenda 2030 in a verifiable and quantifiable way (Moyee 2021, 11).

Moyee's approaches move along the lines of Doughnut Economics as thought of by Kate Raworth. Raworth's theoretical approach has its roots in trying to create an economic system which is not based on growth but on thriving. As Raworth puts it herself "*Humanity's 21st century challenge is to meet the needs of all within the means of the planet. In other words, to ensure that no one falls short on life's essentials …, while ensuring that collectively we do not overshoot our pressure on Earth's life-supporting systems, on which we fundamentally depend – such as a stable climate, fertile soils, and a protective ozone layer."* (Raworth 2021).

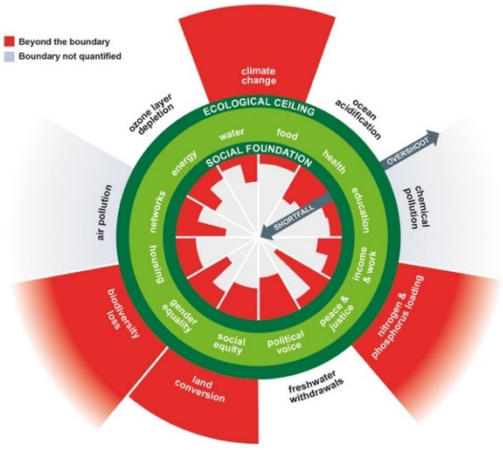



*Figure 8:* Raworth's Doughnut Economic Model

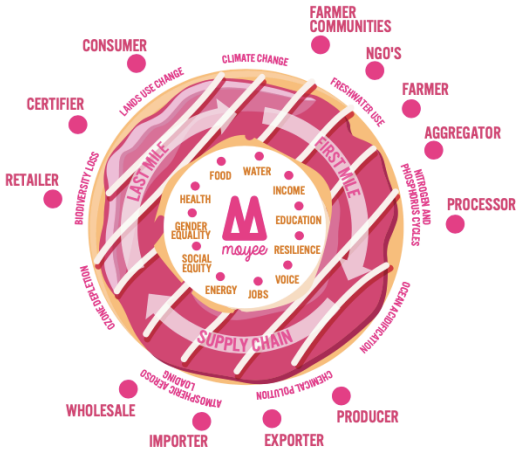



*Figure 9:* Moyee's Doughnut Economic Business Model as based upon Raworth's model

Figure 8 depicts the general doughnut economic model as thought of by Kate Raworth. The outer layer of the doughnut is the ecological ceiling and the inner layer the social foundation. Currently, there are in both layers' shortfalls and overshoots. Figure 9 depicts the economic business model by Moyee as based upon the thinking by Raworth. It is more business oriented yet incorporates all aspects which Raworth also highlights.

Critics of Raworth's approach note that the theory in many regards remains relatively shallow in practical application. As Schokkaert puts it, "*As the quote in the introduction illustrates, Raworth does emphasize that 'we can change the world, that 'we' should build a more democratic, and a more sustainable economy, that 'we' should be less motivated by GDP-*

*growth. Nevertheless, it is not always clear who 'we' is, and it is even less clear how 'we' should realize all this."* (Schokkaert 2019, 127). The critiques of Raworth's theory lacking flesh on the bones does become more concrete in the case of Moyee coffee.

### 3.2.Moyee's Supply Chain

The approach Moyee takes on could be applied in all unequal supply chains. However, they chose to begin with coffee since they note that "*Inequality is particularly acute in the coffee industry."* (13). Earlier, this research explained how generic and fair trade coffee supply chains operate.[8] Within generic coffee supply chains, a lack of transparency is recurrent and frequent. Like generic fair trade coffee supply chains, Moyee aims to pay an x percentage above the market price. As Rice noted, as earlier seen within this research, this approach seeks to systemically add to coffee producers' livelihoods (Rice 2013, 128). However, because Moyee roasts in the country of origin, their supply chain slightly differs from the generic fair trade coffee supply chain.

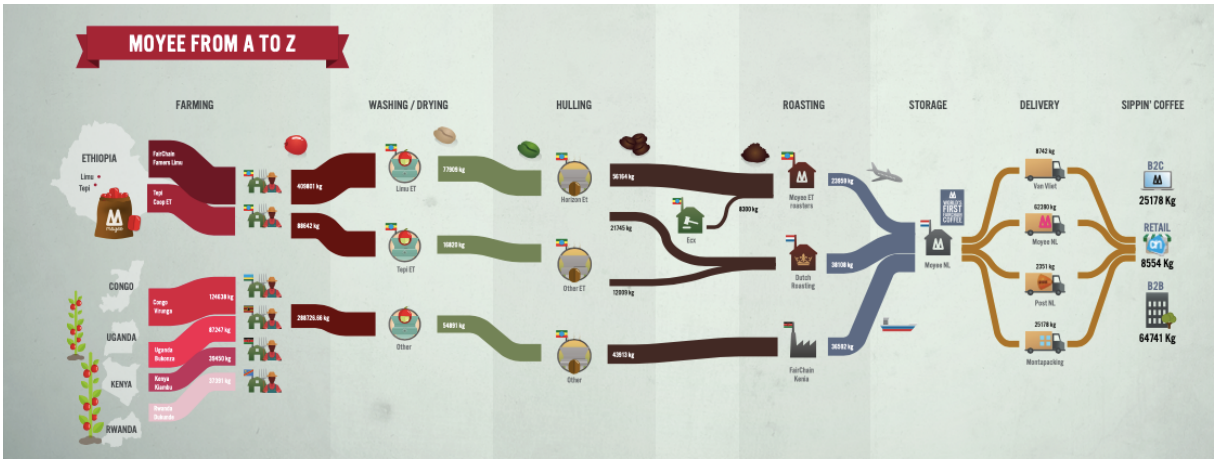



*Figure 10:* Moyee's Supply Chain. Source: Impact Report 2021. Moyee Coffee.

As can be seen from figure above, which represents Moyee's supply chain, the steps within the process are like that of generic or fair trade supply chains. Moyee sources from five different African countries, Ethiopia provided for the largest quantity of coffee and was the first in their approach. Therefore, this section will only highlight the supply chain from an Ethiopian point of view. More works with two locations in Ethiopia, namely Limmu and Tepi. Both locations are in the Southern Nations, Nationalities, and Peoples Region (hereafter SNNPR), approximately 500 km South-West from Addis Ababa. The red coffee cherries from both farming locations are brought to a nearby washing station in Limmu. After the washing and

[8] Here the researcher refers to generic fair trade coffee supply chains, not to align them with generic coffee supply chains, but to illustrate that Moyee's approach differs from the approach most adopted by fair trade coffee organizations.

drying, the green coffee goes to an intermediary who holds the coffee, Horizon PLC, before the coffee is shipped to Addis Ababa, where the roasting locations of Moyee are. After roasting in Addis Ababa, the coffee is transported to the Netherlands, distributed to various buyers.

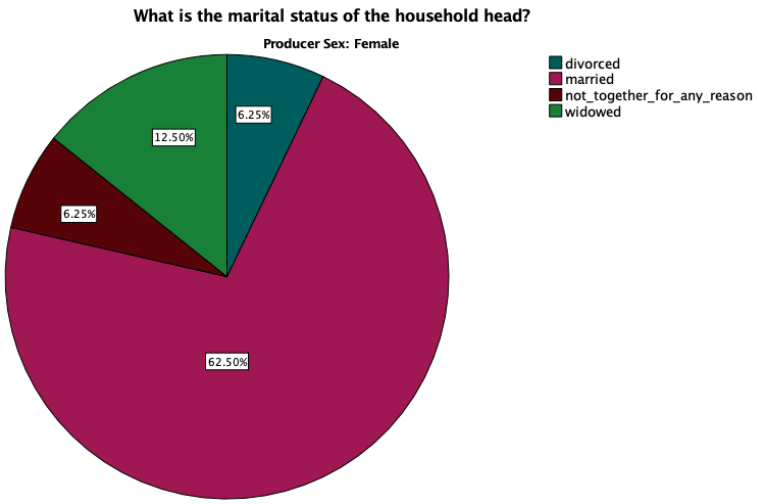
### 3.3.The Position of Smallholder Women in Moyee Coffee's supply chain.

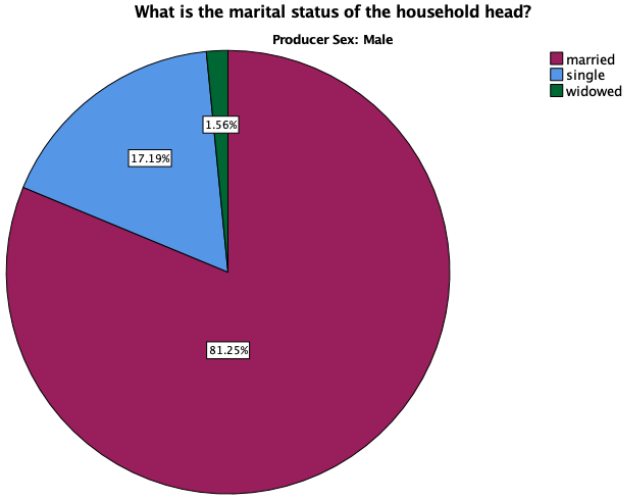
To assess the position of smallholder women within the supply chains, the six capital assets of the Sustainable Livelihoods Framework will be highlighted. Firstly, the social capital asset, which involves people's relationships to one another. The second is natural capital, which involves to the resources available. The third capital asset is the financial capital which relates to income, savings, and debt. The fourth capital asset is the human capital asset. This includes knowledge and skills one possesses over their specific labour. The fifth capital asset physical capital asset which seeks to highlight the availability of transportation and infrastructure. This was not extensively surveyed. Hence, the distance (in minutes) from the wet mill will be highlighted. The last asset is the digital capital asset involves the ownership over technology, which was specifically added to the Livelihoods framework by the researcher.

#### *3.3.1. Social Capital Asset*

Within the social capital assets, there are four variables that are characteristic. These are the marriage status, household size, household head, and the decision-making. This research focuses on internal relationships in households. External factors, such as religion, will not be considered. Because of limited data, intra-household issues are only discussed here.

As this research noted earlier, female smallholder farmers in Ethiopia often face marital constraints (4C 2020). Marital constraints can have influences on other social capital assets such as the ownership of land and decision-making. Unclear marital status can have influence on the level of ownership of land amongst partners, often negatively influencing the position of women. Women also face issues with decision-making in which they often lack power. Moreover, there is only a small percentage of female-headed households in Ethiopia. These households often have worse performing yields and less productive land (International Coffee Organization 2018, 14).



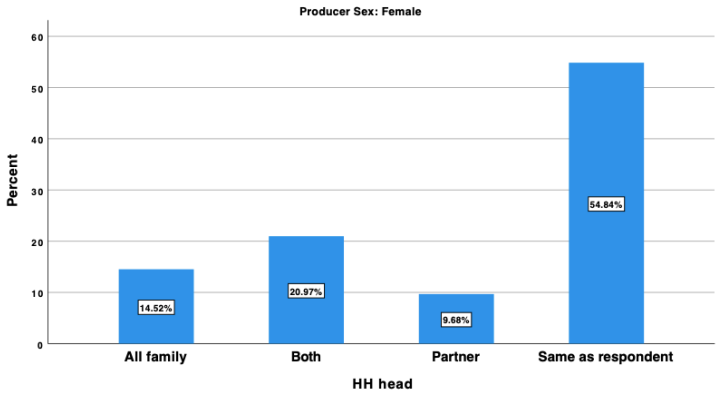

Marriage status between the smallholder men and women employed by Moyee differed slightly. In both cases, most respondents were married. Of the male respondents, 14% were single, and 1% widowed. The female respondents illustrated a wider variety in their marital status. 12 % were widowed, approximately 6% were divorced, not together for a particular reason, or not in a relationship whatsoever. A study of the SNNPR indicated that most of the people who inhabit the region are married. Of the 3205 people questioned, 74% t is married and live together, 1.7% is divorced, 2.2% widowed, 0.8% separated, and 21% single (Endriyas *et al.* 2017, 4). 2526 people were female amongst the surveyed.

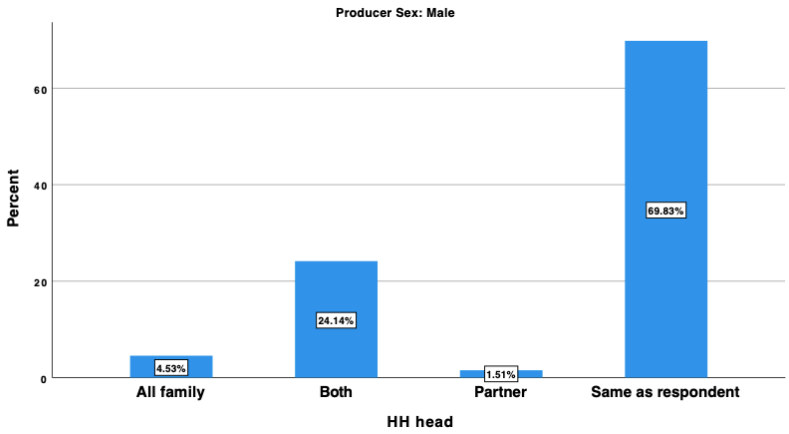
The numbers do not seem to differ to greatly between the regional numbers and those employed by Moyee.

**Descriptive Statistics**

| Producer Sex | | N | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Female | How many people are living in this household in total? | 14 | 2 | 12 | 4.93 | 2.674 |
| | Valid N (listwise) | 14 | | | | |
| Male | How many people are living in this household in total? | 64 | 1 | 14 | 5.52 | 3.034 |
| | Valid N (listwise) | 64 | | | | |

The household size differed between the two genders too. The female respondents indicated that they were responsible for 4.93 people on average, whilst the men indicated that they were responsible for approximately 5.52 people, as can be seen from the table above. A UNICEF report noted that the average household size of the SNNPR lay around 5.2 persons (UNICEF 2019, 5). Thus, the averages among the smallholder farmers of Moyee do not differentiate greatly from the averages of the region.

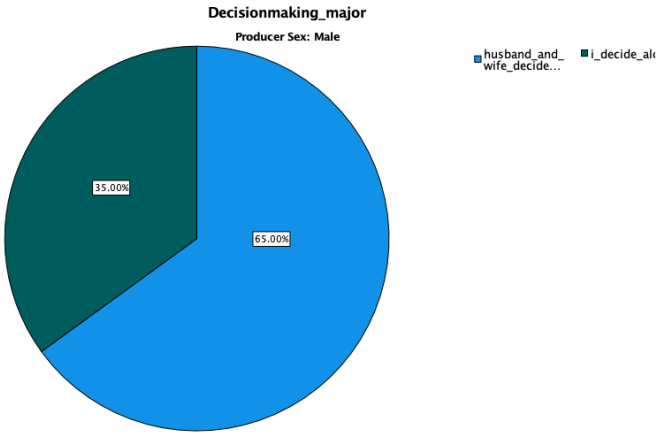


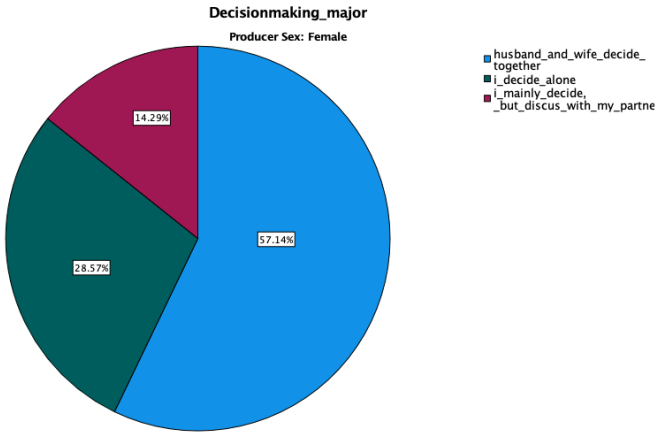




Household heads was distinguished for between the answers of all family, both, partner, and same as respondent. As we can see from the left diagram above, many of the female respondents indicated that they were the household head, roughly 20% indicated that both themselves and their partner were household head, 14% the whole family, and 9% indicated that their partner was head of the household. The right diagram above illustrated the male responses to the question. Most of the males that responded were also the head of the household. 24% indicated that both themselves and their partner were household heads, 4% all family, and in less than 2% of the responses was the partner the household head. Overall, in Ethiopia, approximately 24 %of the families is female-headed (World Bank 2021).

The decision-making between genders also varied. The variable had a couple of possible answers; my partner decides alone, husband and wife decide together, I alone decide but discuss with my partner, I decide alone. It is important to note that this variable did not make a distinction of the marital status of the respondent.

Minor decisions among the female respondents, as can be seen on the pie charts to the left, were mostly decided upon alone, translating to 57% . The other female respondents indicated that minor decisions were made together with their spouses. The male respondents indicated that 50% of them decide on minor decisions with their partners. 30% indicated that they decided



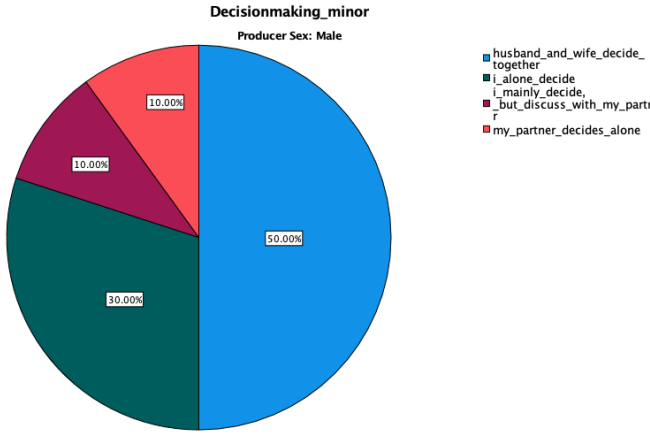



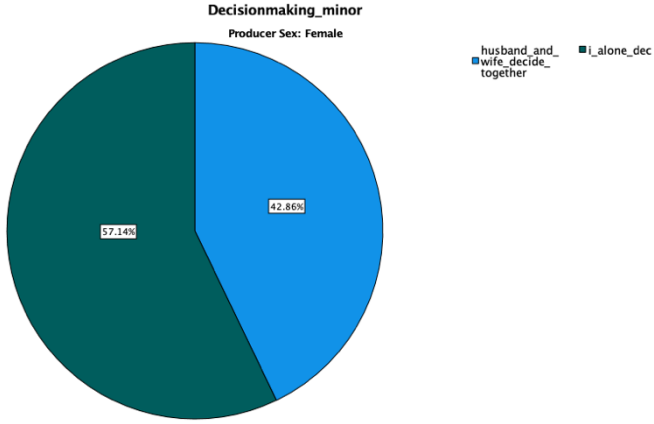
alone. 10% decided alone but discussed with their partner, and 10% indicated that their partner decided on minor decisions alone.

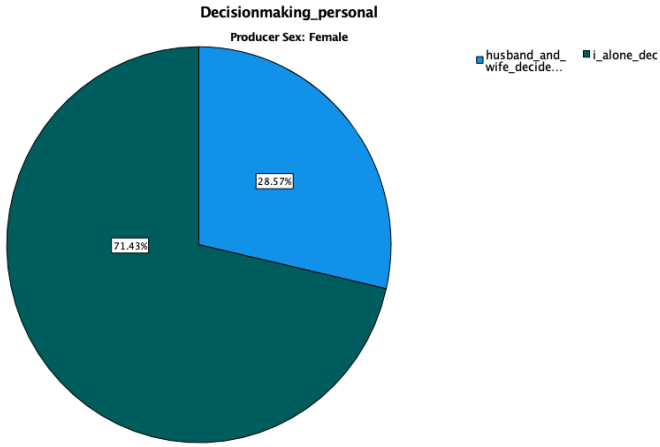
Major decisions among the female respondents were mostly taken together with the spouse. Almost 30% indicated that they decided alone on major decisions, and 15% decided alone but discussed with their partner. 65% of the male respondents indicated that they decided upon major decisions with their spouses. The other 35% indicated that they decided over major decisions alone.

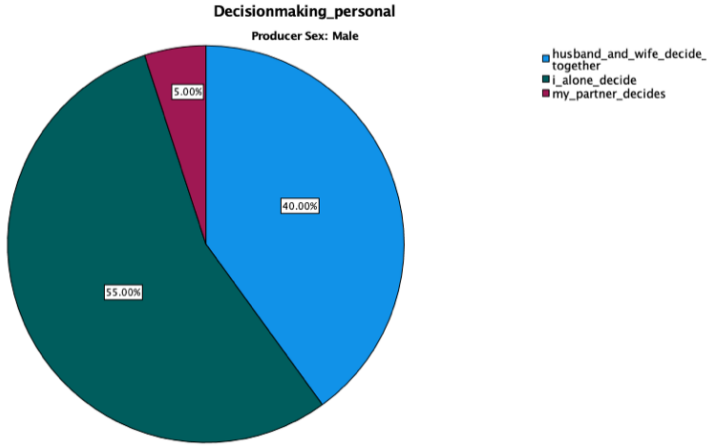
Personal decisions among both genders were mostly taken by the respondents themselves, with 74% of the females and 55% of the males indicating this. 28% of the women indicated that they decided personal decisions with their partner, which among the male respondents lie around 40%. 5% of the male respondents indicated that personal decisions were taken by their partner.

A report by UNICEF noted that in the SNNPR decisions on major household purchases was mostly done in accordance with one another. Similarly, the report noted that women also can decide over their own health care. This corresponds to the measurements as made from the variables by Moyee in which overall decision-making was in accordance with the spouse.



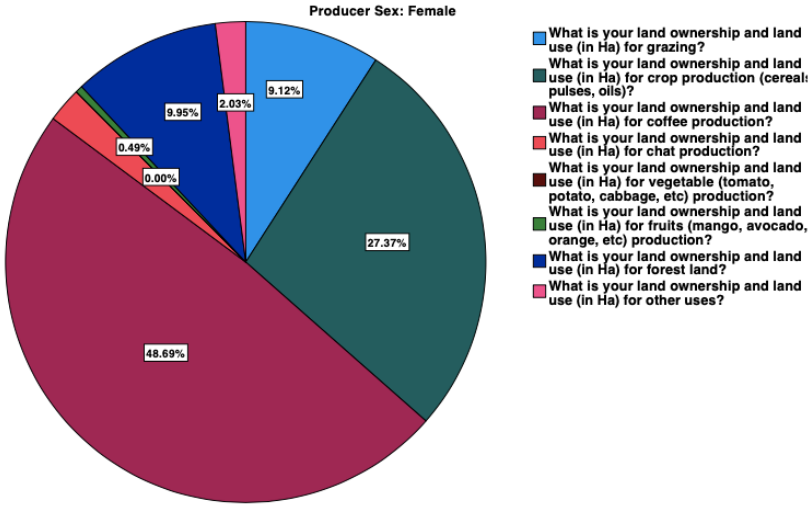
### *3.3.2. Natural Capital Assets*

The natural capital assets will include the land ownership and crop divisions on the land which both genders utilize, the clean water availability and affordability, and electricity availability.

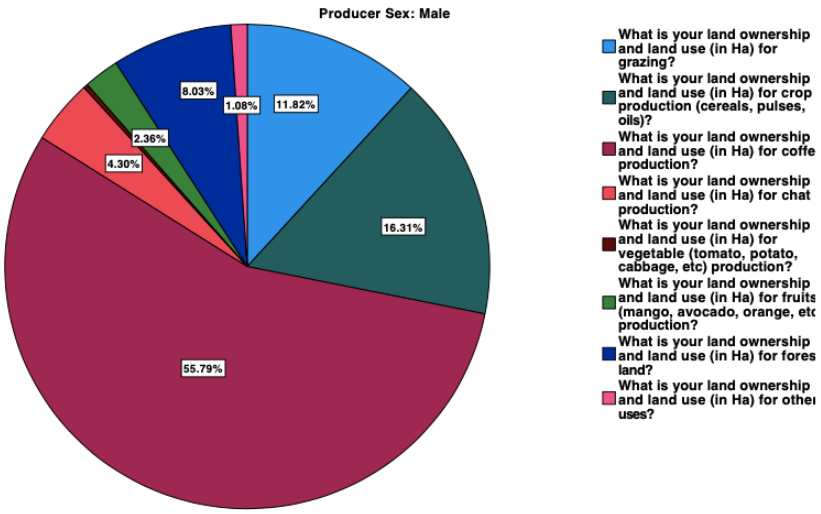
As mentioned before, smallholder farmer women in Ethiopia often have less access to water facilities and have less productive land than their male counterparts.

Ethiopian smallholders from which Moyee sources own an approximate 1 hectare of land. This land is utilized in the following way. It is important to note that the module did not specify which percentage is sold and which percentage is subsistence farming. Specifics between the two genders cannot be noted from the data. However, regionally women own 17% of the land as opposed to 37% of the men owning land (UNICEF 2019, 31)

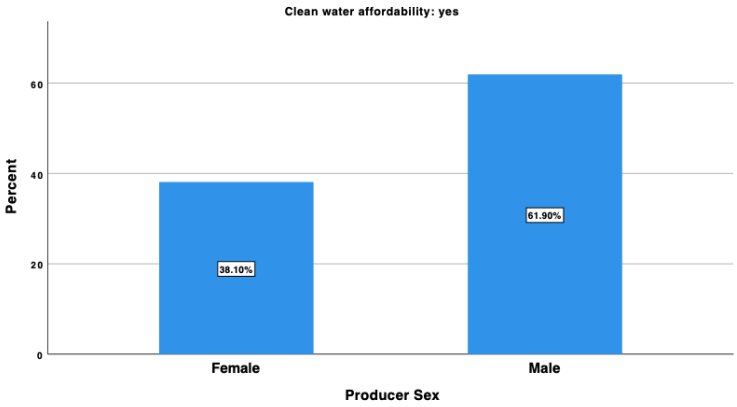
Female respondents utilized their land, on average, in the following way. Approximately 48% is used to produce coffee, followed by 27%, which is used to produce cereals, pulses, and oils. Almost 10% of the land is used for forest purposes. 9% is used for grazing, 2 % for other uses, and 0.5% to produce chat.

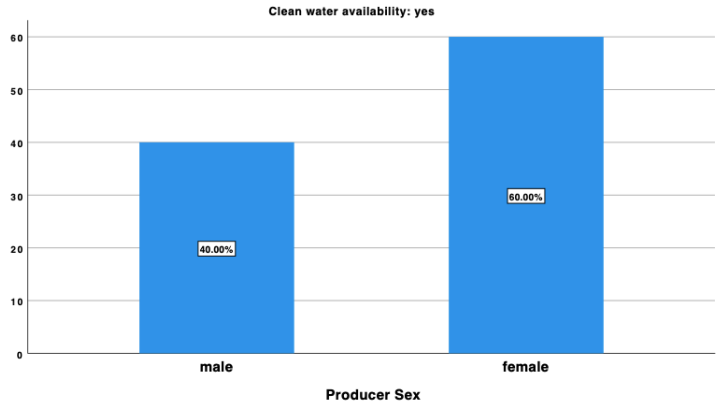



Among the male respondents, 55% of the land is utilized to produce coffee. 16% takes up the growing of cereals, pulses, and other oils, almost 12% for grazing, and 8% for forest land. 4% is used to produce chat, 2% to produce fruits, and 1% is meant for other uses. Although the data of what percentage of land utilized for the selling of produced goods as a percentage of owned land, it is interesting to note that within the SNNPR male-headed households often have more food security than the female-headed households (Abejie *et al.* 2020, 10). It could be argued that the numbers above, males utilizing

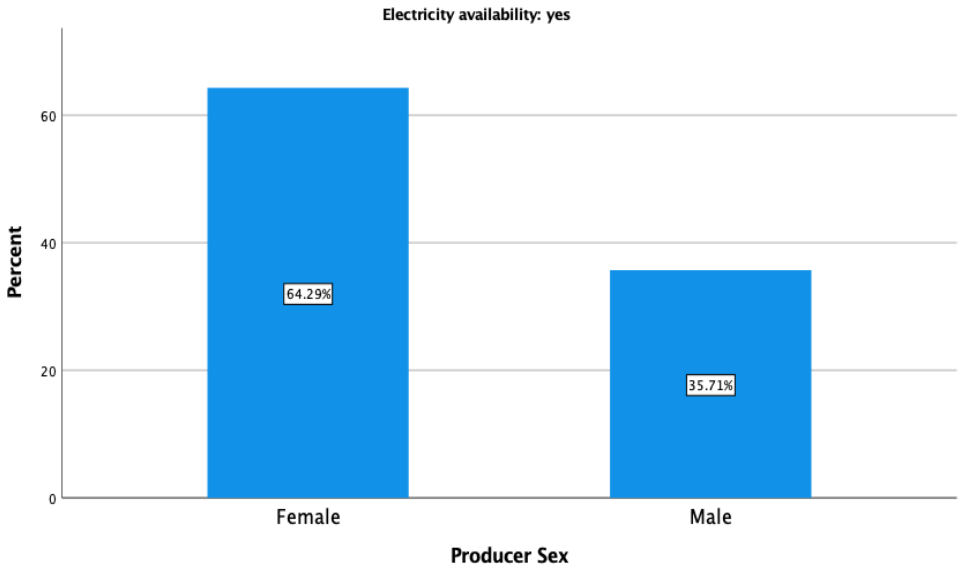


more of their land to produce coffee, generates a more stable income for the provision of food for their families.




Clean water is the next natural capital asset which will be focussed on. Here, respondents had to indicate whether they had clean water available and if they were able to afford clean water. As can be seen in the graphs above, between the male and female respondents, 60% of the females and 40% of the males indicated that they had clean water available. However, only 38% of the women were able to afford clean water as opposed to 61% of the men. There was no distinction in the data for the usage of the clean water. However, in 2016 on a regional level, an approximate 58% of the households had drinking water sources available. Within those households, approximately 8% had improved sanitation facilities which utilized clean water (UNICEF 2019, 19).




Between men and women, 64% of the females have electricity available as opposed to 35% of the males. The affordability of electricity was not discussed further. In the SNNPR, an approximate three million households had electricity available (Desalew 2014, 22). A distinction between

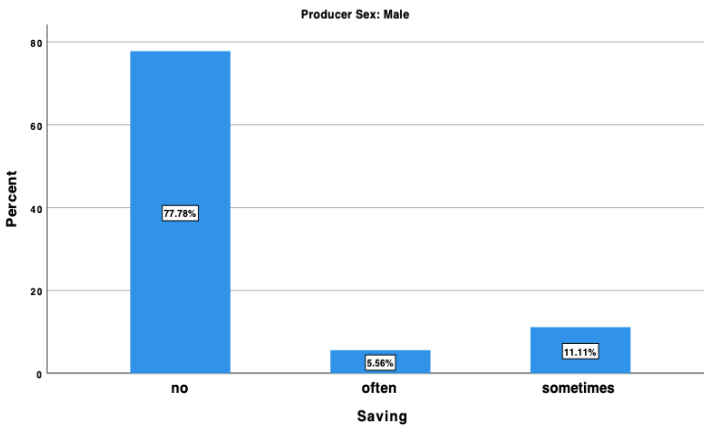
the genders was not made. Thus, no conclusion on the availability can be made according to this variable.

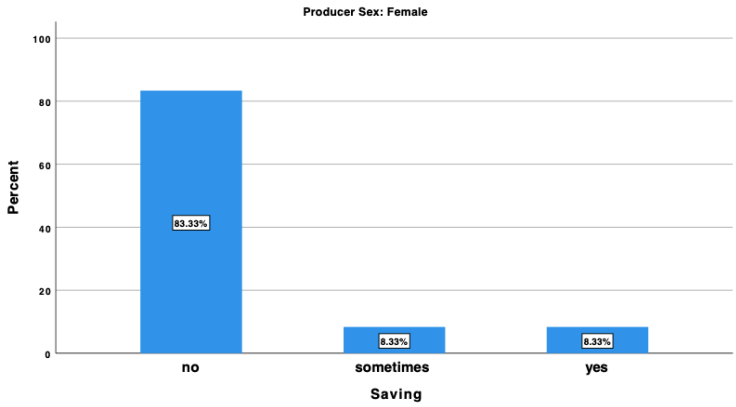
### *3.3.3. Financial Capital Asset*

This capital asset includes the financial services and attributes which both genders have access to or utilize. These variables include whether an individual save or not. As noted in the outcomes of GTP I, credit and saving services aided 6.62 million women. However, as mentioned, women in agricultural should be provided for with more technological services in order to facilitate their saving opportunities.

The comparison between the frequencies of saving illustrates the following. 77% of the males indicated that they do not save, 88% of the women indicated that they do not save. 11% of the men saved sometimes as opposed to 8% of the female respondents. 5% of the male respondents saved often. Among the female respondents, 8% saved on a frequent basis

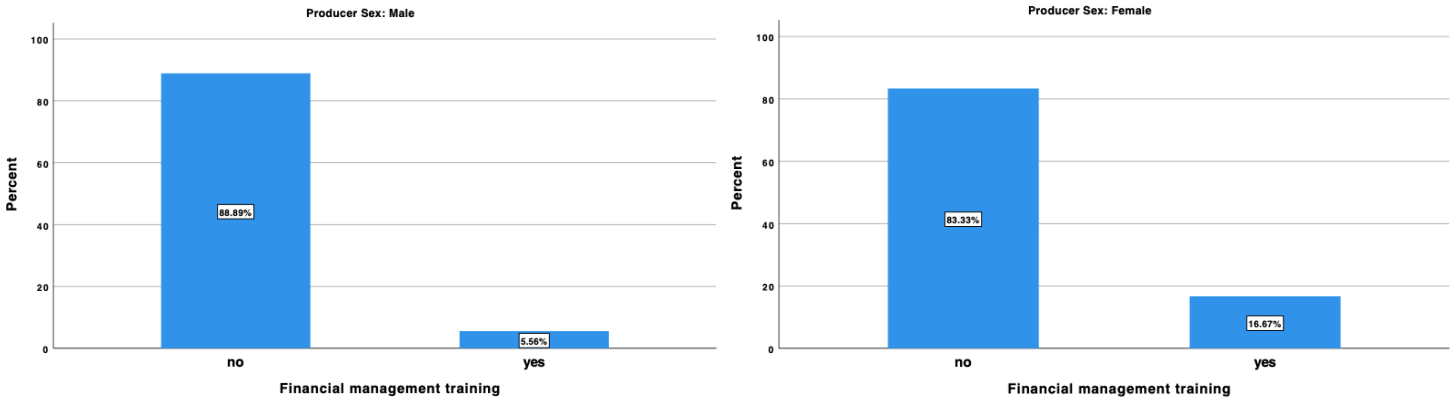
A study conducted within the SNNPR concerned with the percentage of income saved revealed that male-headed households saved of their disposable income than female headed households (Duressa and Ejara 2018, 735). This number correlates to the frequency mentioned above in the numbers of the smallholder farmers of Moyee.



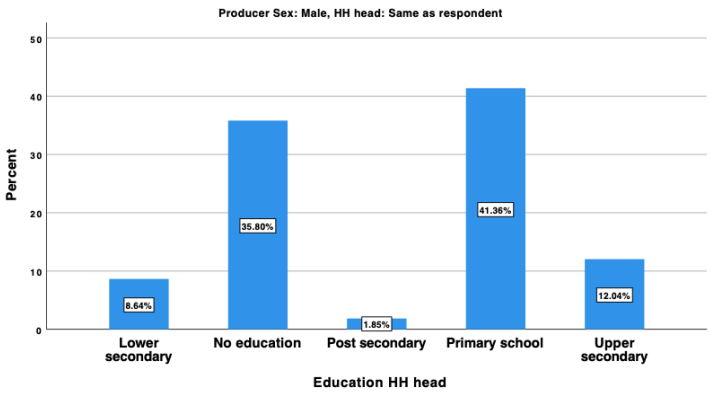
### *3.3.4. Human Capital Asset*

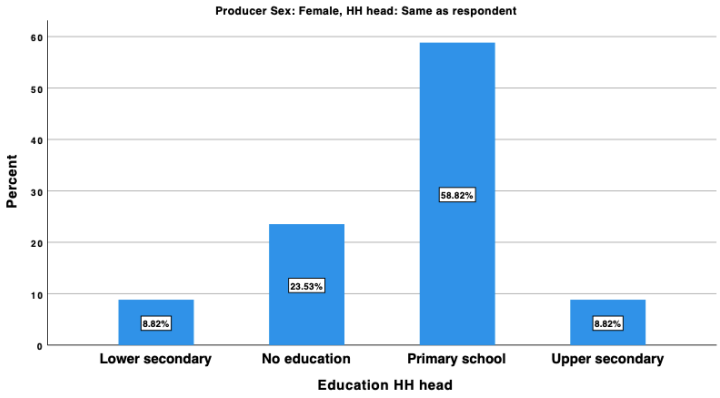
The human capital assets include the knowledge and skills individuals possess in their employment. This asset will add whether financial management training was received, level of education of the household head, the training availability by institutions, and the training and skills requested to be provided. Poverty often creates a lack of said variables in the case of smallholder farmers in Ethiopia (Habitat for Humanity Great Britain 2021).




The responses to the variable discussed under the financial capital asset correlate with the responses of the financial management training variable in which approximately 16% of the women indicated that they received financial management training as opposed to 5% of the male respondents. Overwhelmingly though, most of the respondents did not receive financial management training. Although regional numbers on the receiving of financial management training lack, a general study conducted by ICCO in an area relatively close to the SNNPR noted that 20% of the smallholders which they interviewed followed financial skills training (ICCO 2019, 4). No distinction was made between the genders. Yet, overall, the numbers above correspond to this average with a total of 21% of the respondents receiving financial management training.

In the module, which discussed education levels, the respondents were able to indicate the level of education of the household head. In a previous section, the household head variable was distinguished between the answers of all family, both, partner, and same as respondent. The variable of education will only highlight the specific education levels of the respondents who indicated that the household head was the same as the respondent.

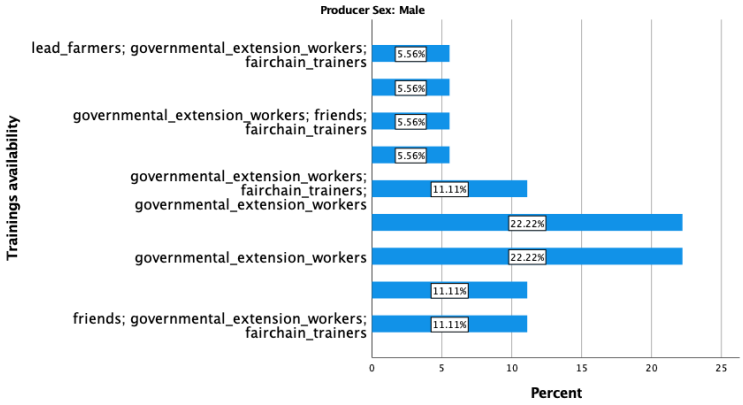


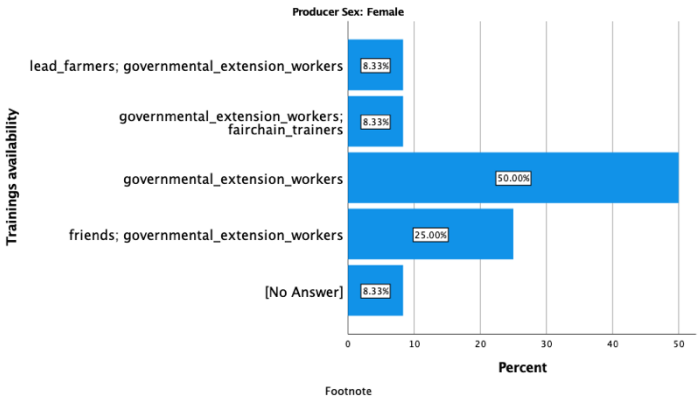




Among the female respondents an approximately 85% finished their primary education, 23% did not enjoy any education, 8% finished lower education, and other 8% finished upper secondary. The male respondents indicated that 41% had finished primary school, 26% did not enjoy any education, 12% finished upper education, 8% lower education, and 1% finished post-secondary. In 2018, in the SNNPR, net enrolment rates in early childhood education were 33%, primary education 99%, lower secondary 25%, and upper secondary 5% (UNICEF 2019, 16; ESAA 2017/18). The numbers as provided for by Moyee correspond to the given numbers related to the enjoyment of education in the region. However, as the report by UNICEF notes and the numbers by Moyee fail to illustrate one thing. Literacy levels and numeracy are often, even though children attend school, not acquired during the years of education. Hence, education can be enjoyed without, at the end of the education, possessing primary skills.

Among both smallholder farming men and women, the most requested type of training and skills needed in health and nutrition and financial management. A study conducted within a region close by indicated that smallholder farmers they needed to obtain skills in the repayment of individual loans, financial management, training to increase production, and financial skills (ICCO 2019, 4). The results of the smallholder farmers by Moyee only differentiate in their health and nutrition skills which they indicated they needed. Hence, for the most part the results correspond to the regional average demands.


The outcome of the variable on the availability of trainings illustrated that both genders mostly have governmental extension workers within their reach. This corresponds with the plans of the government to increase the availability of farmer training centres. In 2010, the Ethiopian government wished to nationally establish 15,000 training centres (Alemayehu 2010, 77). It appears that in 2019 this plan by the Ethiopian government was successful amongst the smallholder farmers which Moyee employs.

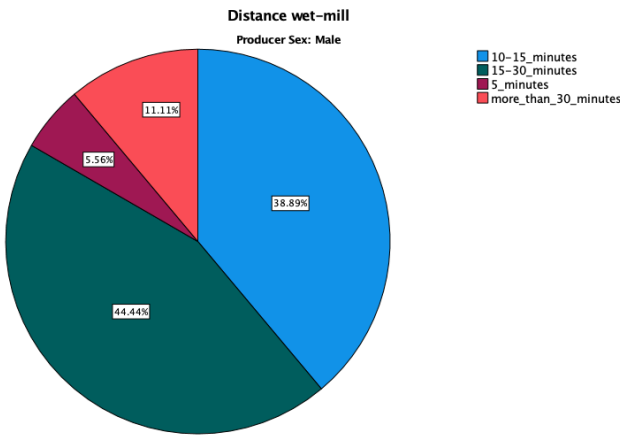


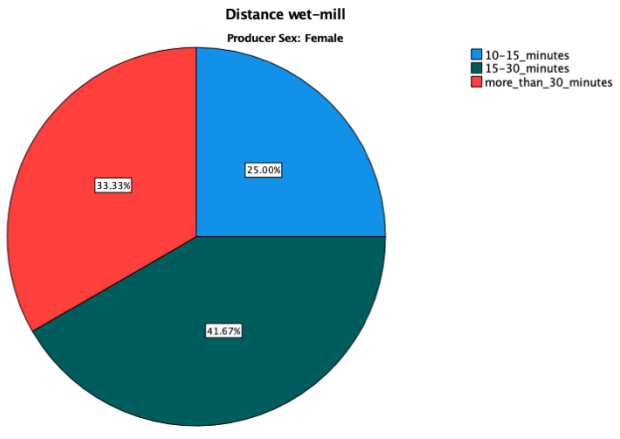




### *3.3.5. Physical Capital Asset*

This asset, as mentioned earlier, was not extensively questioned. There was no indication of a module that discussed the availability of infrastructure or transportation. Hence, the research has chosen to highlight the distance travelled by males and females from their respective farms to the wet mill.

Among the male respondents, only 5% must travel five minutes or less, 38% between ten and fifteen minutes, 44% between fifteen and thirty, and 11% more than thirty minutes. 25% of the female respondents must travel between ten and fifteen minutes, and 41% must travel between fifteen and thirty minutes, and 33% more than thirty minutes.

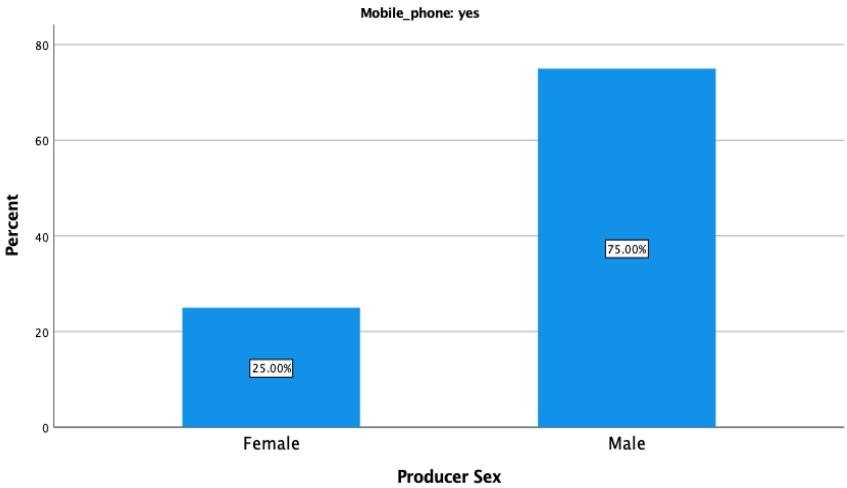


It has been noted by UNICEF that infrastructure for the respective inhabitants of the SNNPR is very poor (UNICEF 2019, 18). The infrastructure that is present is often quickly destroyed by natural disasters, which also makes it difficult for smallholder farmers to deliver their crops in time (29). Employees often must travel an average of five to six kilometres to reach the farms which they work on (Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia 2012, 79). These vast distances and lack of infrastructure can negatively affect the quality of the coffee. Moreover, it has been noted that increased distances negatively affect livelihoods such as the access to quality education, healthcare, markets, and other facilities (79).

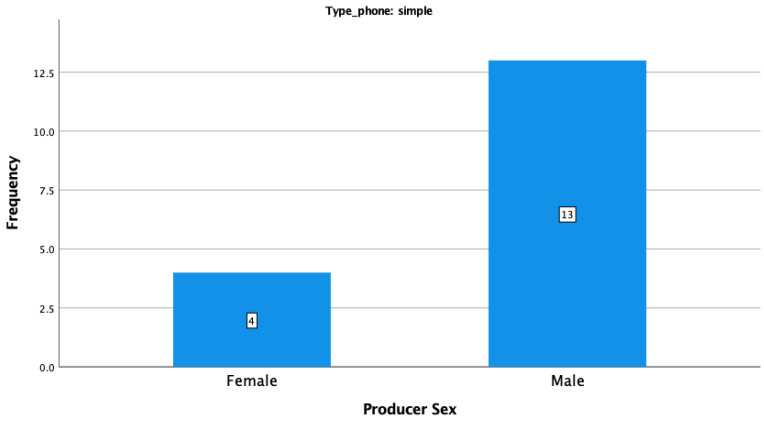
### *3.3.6. Physical Digital Asset*

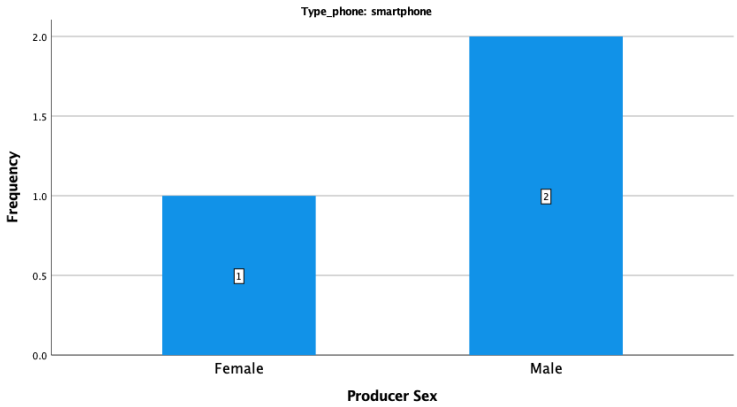
The last asset highlighted in this research is the ownership of physical, digital means. This asset was specifically added to the research to see whether smallholder farmers have access to this type of technology and how they utilize this. The ownership of technology among women was to be promoted in the second GTP to stimulate knowledge distribution, saving, and best-practices. Generally, in Ethiopia, mobile phone ownership among women is approximately 30%, on average 26 % less than the males of who almost 55% owns a mobile phone (LeFevre *et al.* 2020, 3).




The male respondents overwhelmingly have more ownership over mobile phones compared to the females. 75% of males own a mobile phone compared to 25% of females.

The most owned type of phone between men and women is a simple type of phone. Four women indicated that they are in possession of a mobile phone as opposed to eleven men. A smartphone is owned by three people in total, one woman and two men.




Other research has noted that, within the SNNPR, women lack behind on receiving information opposed to men. Ownership over a mobile phone is dominated by men, of which 50% approximately own a phone, as opposed to 20% women (UNICEF 2019, 31). Even though there was only a small number of smallholder farmers as employed by Moyee who had ownership over a mobile phone, most of the phones were owned by men, which thus corresponds to the regional averages.

### 3.4.Reflection

Regarding the data overall, the position of female smallholder farmers as employed by Moyee did not differ from the overall position of female smallholder farmers within the SNNPR region. Moreover, female smallholder farmers, on several crucial elements, were not equal to their male counterparts.

Starting with the social capital assets, marital status, household size, household head, and decision-making outcomes were similar to the regional outcomes. The outcomes of the household heads, however, only allowed for a measurement against national outcomes. Here, only a small percentage of the families is headed by a female household, which indicated similar results. Only a small percentage of the households in smallholder farming families is female-headed. On a national, as well as on a regional scale, the Ethiopian government can initiate programs to strengthen the position of female headed households. Especially in the case in which both males and females carry shared responsibility for the households, as is the case with several of the respondents as employed by Moyee. Here Moyee can, in corporation with regional governments and initiatives, initiate dialogues with their employees on the importance of strengthening the position of women in the household. Especially regarding the general position of women in coffee supply chains in Ethiopia in which they are often at the forefront but lack the benefits of the outcomes. If Moyee actively pushes for more smallholder farmers to have shared or female household heads, decision-making could also positively correlate to a more balanced and shared outcome between men and women.

Natural capital assets, among which the variables of land ownership, crop division, availability and affordability of clean water, and availability of electricity were discussed, also had no outlying results compared to the regional outcomes. Regarding land ownership, regional studies indicated that male-headed households are often more food secure than female-headed households. This could be correlated to the outcome of the land use between men and women as employed by Moyee in which males utilized more of their land to produce coffee and hence might have a more stable income. In the GTP I and II, as pursued by the Ethiopian Government, it has been indicated that agricultural productivity should be boosted for development to be able to be achieved. This target can also be extended to the productivity and land division of women, as part of the overall target to increase gender equality within the agricultural sector (National Planning Commission 2016, 56). The availability and affordability of clean drinking water, the larger proportion of men had clean drinking water available and was able to afford it as opposed to the female respondents. Regionally, although no distinction between genders was made, most households had clean water available. However, regarding the importance of water in the

production of coffee and the cruciality of clean water in sanitation, the increased availability of (clean) water should be provided for by Moyee in accordance with regional governments.

The financial capital asset, which included the variables of saving frequency, indicated that the majority of male and females do not actively save money of their income. Although this outcome refers to an equality, it is a negative one as such. The regional numbers compared to those as represented by the smallholder farmers as employed by Moyee.

Relating these outcomes to the primary variable as discussed in the human capital asset, it was indicated that most of the male and female respondents did not receive financial management training. However, interestingly, more females had received financial management training as opposed to the male respondents. This lack of financial management training can also be seen in the general numbers of smallholder farmers within the region. As part of Agenda 2030 and SDG 5, increased availability of financial services should be made accessible to achieve set goal.

Education levels of the household head, as part of the human capital asset, indicated that most women had finished their primary education. However, more men were able to finish their upper secondary education. Thus, male respondents were able to enjoy education for a longer period. Again, these numbers corresponded to the regional averages of net school enrollment. However, primary skills often lack and the safety of women within educational facilities is not guaranteed. Therefore, Moyee should in alignment with GTP II, increase education opportunities for women to be able to possess primary skills such as literacy and numeracy. They should also target more women who have not been able to enjoy any education at all and provide them with trainings to increase their primary skills.

Moyee can make a great catch up regarding the training and skills needed and the institutions who were able to provide for such trainings. Both genders clearly indicated that the overall needed training was to be in financial management and health and nutrition. Even though most respondents indicated that trainings were available from governmental institutions, Moyee should rethink whether their approach of providing for trainings by FairChain employees is sufficient or whether they should cooperate with regional and national institutions to provide for said trainings, which have proved to have increased in the past years.

The physical capital assets indicated overall that female smallholder farmers must travel greater distances in order to get from their respective farms to the wet mills where they deliver their red coffee cherries. As reported by UNICEF, the SNNPR has poor infrastructures and many of the problems which smallholder farmers face can be resolved by the improvement of infrastructure.

The last asset, physical digital assets, also indicated a discrepancy between male and female respondents. More male than female respondents have ownership over a mobile phone. This again correlated to general ownership over mobile phones within the region. Women in the region are more deprived of information resources than males. Together with an increase in the availability of electricity, women should be provided for more mobile phones to increase their access to information and knowledge. This could improve yields, general knowledge, productivity, and feeling of inclusion.

To restate the questions regarding gendered commodity chains, as brought forward by Ramamurthy and Collins:

1. How does difference, especially gender difference in relation to other forms of difference (e.g., national or racial), inscribe the policies and governmental programs of states and corporations that create the infrastructure for global commodity circuits?
2. How do policies and programs both attract and perplex the workers involved in commodity circuits?
3. How is the household an institution for the production and consumption of labor and global commodities?
4. What are the gendered aspects of commodity chains that fracture in unpredictable ways?

Regarding the first question, only in the national development plans of the Ethiopian Government is actively pursuing the promotion of livelihoods of female smallholder women. Although many have argued that the position of marginalized people, a.k.a. women in many cases, is at the forefront of development within fair trade supply chains, the opposite seems to be true in the case of Moyee coffee.

The second question can be regarded similarly, with the GTP II actively pursuing the attraction of female smallholder farmers in their developmental plans. Agenda 2030 has a similar goal, as well as Agenda 2063. Yet, the private-public partnership, as stressed by scholars and the agendas, do not seem to actively contribute to SDG 5. Even more so, although it is stated by Moyee that women and youth will be pushed to the forefront of their developmental scheme, this is not actively reflected in their achievements thus far. It can even be argued that Moyee does not actively seek out to employ female smallholder farmers, as can be seen by the mere number of male smallholder farmers as opposed to female.

The third question is an interesting one in the sphere of coffee as a global commodity. The cultural, social, economic, and political stigma's that coffee carries with it in Ethiopia reflects its importance in the household. Consumption wise, coffee is an important tool for socialization in which women have an important role. Moreover, as noted earlier, women make up an approximate 75% of the workforce which is employed in coffee yet only earn about one-fourths of what male employees earn. Hence, the income generated to the household is severely less among female-headed household than male-headed households. Moreover, because of the fragility of coffee as a global commodity, the position of women in the household as well as breadwinners is always compromised. Especially regarding the women which Moyee employs. The workings of Moyee have not yet created significant gender equal environment for women, either within their supply chains or the SNNPR. Thus, the household is no stable institution for the production and consumption of the product.

Lastly, almost all variables discussed considering the Sustainable Livelihoods Framework are aspects that can fracture in unpredictable ways. Coffee is a good which can fracture in unpredictable ways. But with this in hindsight, Moyee should act upon strengthening those specific variables that can improve the position of the livelihoods of smallholder women. This can be resolved by Moyee through the provision of a stable living income.

Let's also reiterate the specific targets and indicators of SDG 5 (Gender Equality) upon which this research wished to focus. These were 5.a, 5.b, and 5.c (see figure 5). Figure 5 depicts the specific targets of 5.a, 5.b, and 5.c. Target 5.a stated "*Undertake reform to give women equal rights to economic resources, as well as access to ownership and control over land and other forms of property, financial services, inheritance and natural resources, in accordance with national laws."* The indicator 5.a.1 stated as a measurement "*(a) Proportion of total agricultural population with ownership or secure rights over agricultural land, by sex; and (b) share of women among owners or right-bearers of agricultural land, by type of tenure."* And 5.a.2 stated as measurement "*Proportion of countries where the legal framework (including customary law) guarantees women's equal rights to land ownership and/or control."*

The target 5.b by noted the "*Enhance the use of technology, in particular information and communications technology, to promote the empowerment of women."* The indicator here measured "*Proportion of individuals who own a mobile telephone, by sex."*

The last target, 5.c, indicates "*Adopt and strengthen sound policies and enforceable legislation of gender equality and the empowerment of all women and girls at all levels."* The

indicator here read "*Proportion of countries with systems to track and make public allocations for gender equality and women's empowerment."*

On a regional level, women do tend to have some level of ownership and control over land. Although, as shown in the case of Moyee, this is not close to the standards which achieves equality among smallholder farmers, it is a start. Moreover, financial services are available within the region. It is thus vital for public-private partnerships such as Moyee to stimulate the usage of those services for women to contribute to the realization of this target. The GTP II actively tries to promote and guarantee women's right to ownership of land. Yet, Moyee should employ more women and grant them ownership through their ability to purchase land.

Regarding target 5.b., Moyee has not provided for the mobile phones of the women who have ownership over them. Moreover, the regional levels of ownership over such a technological device are quite low and differs between men and women. To contribute to such a target, Moyee should provide female smallholder farmers with such technological services and accompanied trainings to stimulate access to information, farming information, saving schemes, and alleviation of work, as mentioned in GTP II.

To be able to contribute to the last target, Moyee should start actively measuring their progression in the development of the lives of female smallholder farmers.

Overall, the abovementioned outcomes can allow for more targeted interventions in the supply chain of Moyee, which in the future can contribute to higher levels of gender equality and thus aid in the realization of SDG 5 (Gender Equality).

All in all, Moyee does not contribute to the realization of SDG 5 (Gender Equality). The outcomes of the variables, as aligned to the Sustainable Livelihoods Framework and Gendered Commodity Chains, do not differ to the regional and national numbers. However, the regional and national numbers do, to a small extent, contribute to SDG 5. Hence, as mentioned earlier based upon Hutchens, there is little empirical data that the workings of 'fair trade' actively promote the empowerment and improvement of livelihoods of women. The outcomes do, however, invite for specific initiatives and interventions by Moyee Coffee to strengthen the position of smallholder women in their supply chain. Primarily, Moyee Coffee should start to target more female smallholder farmers, especially those who do not fall under national and regional standards. This way, actual impact can be made if they manage, through interventions, lift these women up to regional and national standards. By aligning themselves with future transformation plans, such as GTP II, more specific initiatives can lead to more specific outcomes.

# IV. Conclusion

This research set out to answer how a Dutch 'fair trade' coffee cooperation contributes to realizing the Sustainable Development Goal 5, Gender Equality, as part of Agenda 2030. Specifically, the country of Ethiopia, in which arguably Arabica coffee was originated. The research outlined the vast differences between the two processes by obsolete delving into generic and fair trade coffee supply chains. Through the workings of fair trade, as opposed to generic coffee supply chains, all players in those supply chains are supposed to receive a higher price for their products and more transparency within the chain. Moreover, the livelihoods of marginalized people, which for many developing Southern countries are women, should be improved. However, a lack of empirical evidence could not prove just the latter. This lack of evidence in improving livelihoods is also recurrent in the various plans to improve those women's positions. Hence, considering the SDG Agenda 2030 by the United Nations, Agenda 2063 by the African Union, and the various development plans introduced by the Ethiopian Government, the improvement in the livelihoods of female smallholder farmers should receive a higher level of attention.

Moyee and the FairChain foundation, which originated in 2012, seek to radically change the way fair trade works by making the chain fairer and more transparent. In 2012 they started their approach by paying 20 % FairChain premium to smallholder farmers on top of the market price. By analysing the raw data in the form of survey modules of their Living Income studies, this research created a baseline study to uncover the current levels of gender equality among smallholder farmers as employed by Moyee. It did so by testing the theoretical framework, which consisted of Collin's and Ramamurthy's Gendered Value Chains and the Sustainable Livelihoods Framework. It added the physical, digital capital asset to the Sustainable Livelihoods Framework. The baseline study indicated no contribution to SDG 5 (Gender Equality) by Moyee Coffee. Yet, the regional and national do contribute to SDG 5 (Gender Equality) to a small extent.

Future research will have to indicate whether an increased level of initiatives, interventions, and plans will contribute to the realization of SDG 5 (Gender Equality) within Moyee's supply chain. Moyee's and FairChain's approach tries to make every sip count and go further than the Ethiopian proverb "*Buna Dabo naw,"* coffee is our bread. However, Moyee should, as based upon another Ethiopian proverb, *"One who hides their illness cannot expect to be cured,"* face their current shortcomings in the field of gender equality and actively act upon them.

# Appendix

**Ectof Living Income and TCA Study Part 1**

1. Response ID
2. Completed Date
3. Producer First Name
4. Producer Last Name
5. Farmforce Producer ID
6. Producer Sex
7. Producer Date of Birth
8. Staff ID

- General
    1. Select Producer
    2. Take a Photo of Farmer
    3. What year is it currently?
    4. What is the name of the kebele
    5. What is the distance from the households residence to Limmu Genet town?
    6. What is the education of the household head? (in formal education years)
    7. What is the religion of the household head?
    8. What is the marital status of the household head?
    9. Capture location of the farmers house
- Household
    1. How many people are living in this household in total?
    2. How many males live in the household in the age group from 15 to 64?
    3. How many females live in the household in the age group from 15 to 64?
    4. How many males live in the household that are younger then 15 and older then 64?
    5. How many females live in the household that are younger then 15 and older then 64?
    6. Is the household member of FairChain?
    7. Is the household member of any other cooperative?
    8. Is the household member of any saving and credit?
- Land ownership
    1. What is your land ownership and land use (in Ha) for grazing?
    2. What is your land ownership and land use (in Ha) for crop production?
    3. What is your land ownership and land use (in Ha) for coffee production?
    4. What is your land ownership and land use (in Ha) for chat production?

5. What is your land ownership and land use (in Ha) for vegetable?
6. What is your land ownership and land use (in Ha) for fruits?
7. What is your land ownership and land use (in Ha) for forest land?
8. What is your land ownership and land use (in Ha) for other uses?

- Coffee farm related labour, answer the questions for all people working on the coffee farm over the past 12 months
  1. Did someone other than you work on the farm and received payment for this?
  2. Name of person working on the farm
  3. Relation of the person to the household head
  4. If other, please specify
  5. Is person living on the farm?
  6. Is wage paid regularly?
  7. What is the age of the person?
  8. What is the date of birth of the person?
  9. What is the gender of the person?
  10. What is the role of the person on the farm?
  11. Hours spent working in the coffee farm during the harvest season
  12. Days spent working in the coffee farm during the harvest season
  13. Weeks worked during the harvest season
  14. Hours spent working in the coffee farm during off harvest season
  15. Days spent working in the coffee farm during off harvest season
  16. Weeks spent working during off harvest season
  17. Did another person work on the coffee farm in the past 12 months.

**Ectof Module 1**

1. Response ID
2. Completed Date
3. Producer First Name
4. Producer Last Name
5. Farmforce Producer ID
6. Producer Sex
7. Producer Date of Birth
8. Staff ID

- Module 1: Household and Personal Data – (BASIC) [A. Respondent Data]
    1. Select farmer
    2. Image respondent
    3. GEOtag_Home
    4. Father name
    5. Grandfather name
    6. Full name
    7. Age
    8. Household Head
    9. Education HH Head
    10. Farm Owner
    11. Ownership records
    12. Ownership records proof
    13. Farm land access
    14. Member of Coop
    15. Smartphone ownership
    16. Smartphone model
    17. Smartphone picture
- [B. Partner Data]
    1. First name partner
    2. Father name partner
    3. Grandfather name partner
    4. Full name partner
    5. Gender partner
- [C. Contact Data]
    1. Village name 1
    2. Village name 2
    3. Address
    4. Mobile phone number
    5. Mobile phone number – child
- [D. Family Data]
    1. # of children 14 years of age or younger
    2. # of children between 15 and 18
    3. Total number of children
    4. Education of children
    5. Total family size

**Ectof Module 3**

1. Response ID
2. Completed Date
3. Producer First Name
4. Producer Last Name
5. Farmforce Producer ID
6. Producer Sex
7. Producer Date of Birth
8. Staff ID

- Module 3: Household and Personal Data – (PRO) [A. Household and Farm info]
    1. Select Farmer
    2. Electricity Available
    3. School Materials
    4. Healthcare available
    5. Healthcare affordable
    6. Clean water available
    7. Clean water affordable
    8. Trainings – lead farmers
    9. Trainings availability
    10. Distance Wet-mill
    11. Preference sun-dried/fresh cherry
    12. Information sources
    13. Information sources other
    14. Learning opportunities
    15. Learning opportunities other 1
    16. Learning opportunities other 2
    17. Training/skills needed
    18. Training/skills needed other 1
    19. Training/skills needed other 2
- [B. Time spent – coffee farm]
    1. # people working on coffee farm
    2. Land clearing
    3. Planting
    4. Pruning/stumping
    5. Weeding
    6. Compost making/application
    7. Cherry picking
    8. Other
    9. Children – coffee farm work days
    10. Children – coffee farm work hours
    11. Children – coffee harvest days
    12. Children – coffee harvest hours

**Ectof Module 11**

1. Response ID
2. Completed Date
3. Producer First Name
4. Producer Last Name
5. Farmforce Producer ID
6. Producer Sex
7. Producer Date of Birth
8. Staff ID

- Module 11: Finance/Technology [A. Saving and Loans]
    1. Saving
    2. Saving account
    3. Saving account – place
    4. Loan
    5. Loan – place
    6. Loan – purpose
    7. Financial management training
    8. Financial records – farm
    9. Financial records – household
- [B.] Mobile phone usage
    1. Mobile phone use

**Ectof UCPH**

1. Response ID
2. Completed Date
3. Producer First Name
4. Producer Last Name
5. Farmforce Producer ID
6. Producer Sex
7. Producer Date of Birth
8. Staff ID

- General
    1. Select producer
    2. Signature
    3. Staff
    4. Date
- HH Data
    1. Household size
    2. Children below 18
    3. Land Ha
    4. Land plots
    5. Amount coffee trees
    6. Kg. coffee last harvest
- Finance/Management practices
    1. Record money
    2. In chage of money
    3. Months no money essentials
    4. Use mobile money
    5. Who uses mobile money
    6. Save money
    7. Who is saving money
    8. Where save money
    9. Purchase lquib money
- Decision making
    1. Decision making minor
    2. Decision making major
    3. Decision making personal
- Trust
    1. Trust coffee prices
    2. Seedling low price
    3. Improve farm by training
- Risk perception
    1. Average market
- Time perception
    1. Gift
- Land
    1. More land
    2. Possible more land
    3. Imagine you inherited extra plot of land. What would you use it for?
- Tech
    1. Social media
    2. Remarks
    3. Mobile phone
    4. Type phone
    5. Use phone
    6. Remarks
    7. Touchscreen phone
- Community/Institutional details
    1. Idir member

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