College of Development Studies Center for Food Security Studies

Determinants of Food Insecurity and Coping Strategies of Internally Displaced Persons In Hachalu Resettlement Site, Koye Feche Sub city Sheger City Administration, Oromia Regional State, Ethiopia

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Statement of Declaration

I the undersigned hereby declare that this thesis entitled "Determinants of Food Insecurity and Coping Mechanisms of Internally Displaced Peoples Residing in Hachalu Resettlement Site, Koye Feche Sub city, Sheger City Administration, and Oromia Regional State, Ethiopia." Submitted to Addis Ababa University; School of Graduate Studies is my original work and has not been presented to any university or other institution for award of degree of any other purpose. All sources of materials used for the thesis have been dully acknowledged.

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Statement of Certification

I the undersigned confirm that this thesis under the title "Determinants of Food Insecurity and Coping Mechanisms of Internally Displaced Peoples Residing in Hachalu Resettlement Site, Koye Feche Sub city, Sheger City Administration, and Oromia Regional State, Ethiopia" submitted by Yohannes Sisay written under my supervision as university advisor, and to the best of my knowledge it is original and fulfill the requirements of the University for submission.

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We as a major adviser and department chairperson of the thesis, we certify that we read and evaluated the thesis prepared Yoahnnes Sisay entitled Determinants of food insecurity and coping strategies of internally displaced peoples residing in Hachalu Resettlement Site, Ethiopia' and recommend for Open Defense as fulfilling the requirement for the Degree of Master of Science in Food Security and Development Studies.

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Yohannes Siasay

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Table of Contents

Contents page

List of Figure

LIST OF TABLE

List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

- ANOVAa- Analysis for variance
- FAO - Food and Agriculture Organization
- FGDs-Focus Group discussions
- GDP - Gross Domestic Product
- IDPs - Internally Displaced Peoples
- NGO - Non-Governmental Organization
- SPSS- Stastical Package for social science
- UNHCR - United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
- WFP - World Food Programme
- WHO - World Health Organization

Abstract

As of 2023, there were more than 3.8 million internally displaced people (IDPs) in Ethiopia as a result of armed conflict, climate shocks, and intercommunal violence (IDMC, 2023). The majority of these IDPs reside in the Oromia Regional State, where many of them suffer from acute food insecurity as a result of their livelihoods being upended, and their lack of access to humanitarian aid (WFP, 2023).In Hachalu settlement, food insecurity among internally displaced people (IDPs) is a serious problem that has a big impact on their general wellbeing. A study was carried out to evaluate the coping strategies and food security status of IDPs in the region in order to address this issue and guide future initiatives. In order to investigate the causes of food insecurity and the associated coping strategies among IDPs, the study used a descriptive and explanatory technique, combining quantitative and qualitative data gathering in a mixed-methods approach. A representative target group was created using a stratified random sampling procedure, yielding a sample size of 276 people. Of the IDPs in the survey, 58.3% were men and 41.7% were women, with the majority (71%) being between the ages of 35 and 44. The results showed issues in food insecurity and the socioeconomic difficulties that internally displaced people experience. Notably, 75.4% of IDPs lacked formal education and 56.5% were unemployed, highlighting the necessity of job training and educational programs. An overwhelming 84.1% of IDPs did not have access to enough food, even though the majority made between 2,001 and 3,000 Birr a month, which is slightly above the poverty level. With mean scores of 1.93 for worries about food sufficiency and 2.69 for limited availability of nutrient-dense foods, descriptive analysis revealed substantial levels of food insecurity. Additionally, the study identified strong correlations between food insecurity and factors such as economic status (r = 0.897), access to resources (r = 0.897), health (r = 0.891), coping processes (r = 0.859), and social support networks (r = 0.848). The study highlights how urgently aid is needed to address food insecurity among internally displaced people. It emphasizes the significance of increasing access to markets, clean water, and land to promote food security and asks for job training and educational activities to improve these people's socioeconomic standing. It is also considered crucial to treat health issues that restrict IDPs' ability to earn a living. According to the study, food insecurity is made worse by extended displacement, high food costs, and limited income opportunities, which push households to use unhealthy coping strategies like asset depletion, meal skipping, and child labor (FAO, 2023). In order to improve food security and resilience among displaced populations, the study emphasizes the critical need for focused interventions, such as livelihood support and social protection programs.The study concludes by highlighting the serious problem of food insecurity among Hachalu Resettlement Site 's internally displaced people and promoting all-encompassing solutions that include quick assistance, socioeconomic advancement, and better access to necessities.

Keywords: Food insecurity, Displacement, Poverty, Resource access, Conflict, Food assistance, Hachalu Resettlement Site

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the Study

In many parts of the world, especially Africa, where conflict, economic instability, and climate change combine to make matters worse for vulnerable communities, food insecurity is still a major issue (FAO, 2022). In this regard, Ethiopia has struggled with severe food insecurity brought on by a variety of causes, such as environmental problems, economic difficulties, and political upheavals (WFP, 2023). One of Ethiopia's most populated regions, the Oromia region, has experienced severe food insecurity, especially in metropolitan areas like Hachalu Resettlement Site (IDMC, 2023). The sub-city's internally displaced peoples (IDPs) are especially at risk because they were relocated due to violence and environmental issues, making it difficult for them to obtain food and other necessities (UNHCR, 2022).

Household economic status is a key factor in determining food security, and in Ethiopia, many families have found it difficult to obtain adequate nutrition because of varying income levels brought on by reliance on agriculture and a lack of work possibilities (Belayneh et al., 2013). IDPs, which frequently lack steady sources of income, are especially vulnerable to food insecurity as a result of the absence of employment possibilities, inflation, and economic instability, which have reduced their purchasing power (Dawit et al., 2021). Furthermore, food security for IDPs is significantly impacted by resource accessibility (Maxwell et al., 2020). Lack of funds, poor infrastructure, and restricted access to agricultural land make it difficult for IDPs to obtain enough food supplies (FSIN, 2023). IDPs may not be able to take advantage of this lack of access due to socio cultural factors (Zewdie et al., 2021).

Additionally, IDPs' food security is greatly impacted by their access to resources. IDPs' capacity to obtain sufficient food supplies is hampered by a lack of funding, poor infrastructure, and restricted access to agricultural land. Social dynamics may prevent IDPs from taking advantage of community resources, which exacerbates this lack of access and feeds the cycles of poverty and food insecurity (Tessema & Zewdie, 2020).

Another important factor that affects food security is health status. Food insecurity is further exacerbated by malnutrition and poor health, which limit people's ability to work and make a

living (Shikur et al., 2022). Health services in the Oromia area continue to be underfunded, which has an effect on people's general well-being, especially for women and children who are more vulnerable to the negative consequences of food poverty.

Social support networks can be extremely helpful in reducing food insecurity by giving those in need information, resources, and emotional support. The resilience of IDPs in Hachalu Resettlment site can be greatly impacted by the strength of these networks (Abebe & Teferi, 2022). Nevertheless, these networks may be weakened by disturbances in community cohesion, which frequently result from displacement, making it more challenging for IDPs to obtain crucial assistance.

Lastly, understanding the adaptive methods used by IDPs requires an awareness of the coping processes they deploy in response to food insecurity. Many turn to unhealthy coping mechanisms, such cutting back on meal portions or selling assets, which can negatively impact their long-term well-being and financial security (Alemayehu et al., 2021).

The IDPs who live at the Hachalu Resettlement Site in Koye Feche Subcity are mostly from neighboring areas like the Somali Regional State and conflict-affected areas of the Oromia Regional State,(IDMC, 2023; NRC, 2022). Interethnic conflicts, armed conflicts between government forces and rebel groups, and cyclical droughts that have destroyed livelihoods have all contributed to displacement (HRW, 2022; UNOCHA, 2023). Between 2018 and 2022, waves of violence resulted in the forcible displacement of many internally displaced people (IDPs). Some were evicted as a result of militarized operations, while others were displaced as a result of communal conflicts over resources and land (Amnesty International, 2023).

A combination of impromptu movements and government-led resettlement initiatives enabled the relocation to the Hachalu Resettlement Site, where displaced households sought refuge in urban areas (Sheger City Administration Report, 2023). However, many IDPs are living in unstable conditions with limited access to food, shelter, and healthcare due to poor planning and scarce resources (DRMFSS, 2023). Although precise numbers are still up for debate because of varying arrivals and unreported displacements, the Koye Feche Subcity Administration (2023) estimates that the site hosts 890 households (IOM, 2023).

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Ethiopia continues to face a serious problem with food insecurity among internally displaced people (IDPs), especially in resettlement areas like the Hachalu Resettlement Site in Koye Feche Subcity, Sheger City Administration, Oromia Regional State. Food insecurity has been made worse by displacement brought on by conflict, climate shocks, and economic instability, which has compelled IDPs to use a variety of coping strategies in order to survive (IDMC, 2022). Due to interrupted livelihoods, restricted access to agricultural land, and insufficient humanitarian aid, empirical data shows that internally displaced people in Ethiopia frequently face acute food shortages (FAO, 2021). Despite these challenges, the specific determinants of food insecurity and the effectiveness of coping strategies employed by IDPs in the Hachalu resettlement site remain understudied.

Previous research on internally displaced people in Ethiopia has mostly concentrated on populations living in camps, ignoring the particular risks faced by people living in informal settlements (Getachew et al., 2021). According to research, IDPs in urban areas frequently experience increased food costs, fewer employment options, and exclusion from social safety nets, all of which exacerbate their food insecurity (FAO, 2023). It is still unknown, though, how much these variables affect dietary diversity and food access at the Hachalu resettlement site. Furthermore, although coping strategies like food borrowing, cutting back on meal frequency, and depending on humanitarian assistance are well-established in rural IDP contexts (Maxwell et al., 2020), little is known about their suitability and efficacy in urban resettlement sites like Hachalu.

About 38% of Ethiopia's 3.8 million internally displaced people (IDPs) as of December 2022 were from Oromia, making it the region with the highest concentration of displaced people in the nation, according to the Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC, 2023). Political instability, climate-related disasters, and intercommunal conflicts are the main causes of this enormous displacement (UNOCHA, 2023). One of the many such displacement settlements dealing with severe food insecurity and livelihood issues is the Hachalu Resettlement Site in Koye Feche Subcity, Sheger City Administration.

Research already conducted shows that IDPs frequently use informal labor, cut back on meal portions, and rely on less favored foods as coping strategies (Maxwell et al., 2020). The ways in

which these tactics differ in Ethiopia according to gender, age, and length of displacement, however, are not well supported by empirical data. Additionally, although research has looked at food insecurity in refugee camps, little is known about the particular difficulties faced by internally displaced people in urban and peri-urban resettlement locations such as Hachalu (Zewoldi & Aweke, 2023). Policymakers and humanitarian organizations are unable to create focused interventions to increase food security among displaced populations due to a lack of localized data.

There is a critical knowledge gap regarding how specific factors such as duration of displacement, access to urban markets, and social support networks influence food security outcomes in resettlement sites like Hachalu. This study seeks to address these gaps by providing empirical evidence on the determinants of food insecurity and the effectiveness of coping strategies among IDPs in this specific urban resettlement context.

1.3. Research Questions

1. What relationship exists between food insecurity and economic status among Hachalu Resettlement Site's internally displaced people?

2. What impact does resource accessibility have on the degree of food insecurity among the region's internally displaced people?

3. How does IDPs' food insufficiency relate to their health status?

4. How do social support networks affect internally displaced people's food security in Hachalu Resettlement Site?

5. What coping strategies do internally displaced people use to deal with food insecurity, and how successful are these tactics?

1.4. Objective of the study

1.4.1. General Objective

Investigating the causes of food insecurity and coping strategies used by internally displaced people (IDPs) living in Hachalu Resettlement Site, Koye Feche Subcity, Sheger City Administration, Oromia Regional State, Ethiopia, is the main goal of this study.

1.4.2. Specific Objectives

- To evaluate how food insecurity among IDPs in Hachalu Resettlement Site is influenced by economic status.
- To assess how food insecurity levels in the IDP population are impacted by access to physical resources.
- To investigate the relationship between the displaced population's food insufficiency and health status.
- To examine how social support systems affect coping Strategies and food security.
- To determine the coping strategies IDPs employ to lessen food insecurity and investigate how well they work.

1.5. Scope of the Study

The households of internally displaced people (IDPs) in Hachalu Resettlment site are the specific focus of this study. Examining and evaluating these households' food consumption habits and welfare state is the goal. The goal of the study is to provide light on their daily food consumption, shopping patterns, and obstacles to food access. The study intends to provide a thorough grasp of the peculiar circumstances surrounding IDP homes, which may differ from those of other communities, by focusing on this specific demography. The results are meant to guide interventions and policies that enhance the nutritional security and general well-being of internally displaced people in Hachalu Resettlment site.

1.6. Limitation and delimitation

In any research study, it is essential to delineate the distinctions between limitations and delimitations, as both play crucial roles in defining the scope and validity of the findings. Limitations refer to the inherent constraints and challenges that may affect the study's outcomes, findings, and generalizability, and they are typically outside the researcher's control. In this study examining food insecurity among internally displaced persons (IDPs) in Hachalu Resettlement Site, several limitations have been identified. First, the geographical scope is confined to IDP households in Hachalu Resettlement Site, and due to constraints related to time, budget, and resources, the findings may not be applicable to other populations or locations, which can restrict the broader implications of the results. Additionally, methodological concerns arise from the

reliance on participants' recollections for details such as food expenditures and consumption patterns. The limited recall period could lead respondents to inaccurately report their eating habits or forget specifics, potentially compromising the reliability, accuracy, and overall quality of the study. Another significant limitation is the potential response bias among displaced individuals, who may understate or overstate their actual welfare status due to a desire for more assistance, thereby skewing the data and making it challenging to obtain a true representation of their welfare and food security status.

On the other hand, delimitations are the specific boundaries set by the researcher to narrow the study's focus intentionally. In this research, delimitations include the target population, which specifically focuses on internally displaced persons (IDPs) residing in Hachalu Resettlement Site. This choice allows for a concentrated analysis of a distinct group facing unique challenges. Furthermore, the study may limit its exploration to specific factors such as economic status, resource access, and coping mechanisms, intentionally excluding other potentially relevant variables to facilitate a deeper understanding of these particular aspects rather than providing a more general overview of food insecurity. Another delimitation might involve a defined time frame for data collection, meaning the research will not account for longitudinal changes or developments in the participants' circumstances over time.

By understanding both the limitations and delimitations of the study, readers can better interpret the findings, contextualize their applicability, and appreciate the challenges inherent in researching complex social issues like food insecurity among displaced populations.

1.7. Significance of the Thesis

In order to address food insecurity, particularly for internally displaced people (IDPs), this study is crucial for all parties involved. The findings provide crucial information to the Hachalu Resettlement Site government regarding the current level of food insecurity and the coping mechanisms employed by internally displaced persons. By using these findings to inform policy decisions and program development that specifically address the food security needs of this vulnerable population, funds can be allocated to support food assistance programs and create policies that safeguard the rights of internally displaced people (IDPs).

Policymakers can also benefit greatly from the paper since it offers actionable recommendations for evidence-based programs and policies aimed at lowering food insecurity among IDPs. By establishing policies that facilitate IDPs' access to affordable, nutritious food and by

collaborating with a variety of stakeholders, policymakers can ensure that resources are allocated effectively to meet these pressing needs. Future researchers will greatly benefit from the study's findings as they add to the expanding body of knowledge on food insecurity among internally displaced persons and set the stage for further research in this crucial area. Research on the effectiveness of food aid programs and the impact of socioeconomic factors on the outcomes of food security for internally displaced persons can be sparked by the knowledge gained, which could lead to the development of innovative solutions.

Non-governmental organizations (NGOs) that focus on food security and humanitarian aid might use the study's findings to develop customized programs that address the particular needs of internally displaced individuals. By collaborating with other stakeholders and suitably modifying food assistance programs, NGOs can expand their influence and effectively contribute to the reduction of food insecurity in these communities.

Lastly, the World Bank might use the findings to enhance its policy recommendations and guidelines regarding food insecurity among internally displaced individuals. In order to address the complex issues surrounding food insecurity and advance long-term solutions for internally displaced people, the World Bank strategically deployed funds and forged partnerships with governmental and non-governmental organizations after gaining an understanding of the unique challenges this group faces.

1.8. Organization of the study

Five chapters make up the study on the reasons behind food insecurity and coping strategies used by internally displaced people (IDPs) in Hachalu Resettlement Site. The study issue, problem statement, background data, research objectives, questions, significance, and definitions of important terms are all included in Chapter One. In Chapter Two, the research on food insecurity and coping mechanisms among vulnerable groups is reviewed, along with the gaps that this study fills.

The study's methodology, sampling strategies, data collection methods, and ethical considerations are covered in great length in Chapter 3. The presentation, analysis, and interpretation of participant data are the main topics of Chapter 4, which also emphasizes noteworthy discoveries in connection with the study's goals. To maintain a consistent flow of information throughout the study, Chapter Five concludes with a summary of the key findings, a

discussion of their consequences, recommendations for stakeholders, and potential avenues for further research.

1.9. Definition of terms

Internally Displaced People (IDPs): According to the Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC), internally displaced persons are individuals who have been forced to flee their homes but remain within their country's borders due to various factors such as conflict, violence, and natural disasters. (IDMC, 2022).

Food Insecurity: Food insecurity is defined by the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) as the lack of consistent access to enough food for an active, healthy life, often assessed through various indicators, including household dietary diversity and food availability. (FAO, 2022).

Coping Mechanisms: Coping mechanisms in the context of food insecurity are strategies that individuals or households adopt to manage food shortages, which can include borrowing, food-sharing, or reducing meal frequency. (Mastrorillo et al., 2016).

Determinants of Food Insecurity: Social, economic, environmental, and demographic factors significantly influence the risk of food insecurity among populations, particularly among vulnerable groups such as IDPs. (Wunderlich & Norwood, 2019).

Resilience is characterized as the capacity of individuals and communities to adapt to and recover from challenges, including food insecurity, by utilizing available resources effectively. (Leichenko & O'Brien, 2008).

Food Assistance: Food assistance encompasses various programs aimed at alleviating food insecurity by providing either direct food aid or financial support for food purchases. (USDA, 2021).

Social Capital: Social capital plays a crucial role in enhancing food security by fostering networks that facilitate access to resources and support among individuals and communities. (Putnam, 2000).

Vulnerability: Vulnerability to food insecurity encompasses both the exposure to risk factors and the capacity to cope with and recover from food shortages and associated health challenges. (Davis et al., 2017).

Welfare Status: Welfare status refers to the extent to which individuals or households can meet their basic needs and maintain a satisfactory quality of life, often assessed through indicators such as food security, housing adequacy, and health access. (Kawachi & Berkman, 2000).

Hachalu Resettlement: As a specific geographical area, Hachalu Resettlement Site, located in Ethiopia's Oromia Regional State, has seen an influx of internally displaced persons due to various factors, including conflict and natural disasters. (Tadesse, 2021).

CHAPTER TWO

RELATED LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Overview of food security and IDP

Food security is a concept whose definitions have been numerous and varied. Many terms are used when talking about food security, which makes it challenging to figure out what exactly is being discussed, measured, or intervened on when it comes to food security (Jones et al., 2013). Is partly due to the multi-disciplinary and multi-sectorial nature of food security. However, the most widely used definition of food security is based on the World Food Summit (1996) definition, which states that food security is achieved at the individual, household, national, regional, and global levels when all people have physical and economic access to sufficient, safe, and nutritious food to meet their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life at all times (FAO, 1996).

Pillars of food security

Food access: Food access incorporates both physical and economic access. Physical access Involves a place where food is attainable and available, while economic access relates to Entitlement to food, (Staatz et al., 2009:158). It encompasses income, expenditure and buying capacity of households or individuals, and it refers of having sufficient food at national level or at certain territory cannot be taken as the proof that all the household or individuals in the Country/territory has enough food to eat. It suggests that every individual should have sufficient Access to sufficient resources in order to have appropriate food to live a healthy life. (FANTA, 2006:1), (Benson, 2004:8), and (Labo, 2001), respectively states about food access; food Accessibility by households can be obtained through consumption, production and receiving gifts from other households. The extent to which each member of a household has access to sufficient Food depends on gender, age and the employment status. Access to food is closely associated with poverty because poor people usually do not have sufficient resources to attain access to the Right amount of quantities.

Food availability: Food availability addresses supply side of the food security and expects sufficient quantities of quality food from domestic agriculture production or import. It can be assessed by precipitation record, food balance sheet, food market survey, agricultural production Planet. The indicators of food security for this dimension at different levels are fertility rate, food

Production, population flows, harvesting time, staple food production, food storage, consumption of wild foods, etc. The food availability indicators capture not only the quantity but also the Quality and diversity of food. Supply of food should be distributed through domestic and international production. (Kannan, 2000) argue that food supply is very essential and that the government of any particular country should not depend entirely on international markets for food supply. Food availability does not guarantee food access; this is because several factors such as institutional Structures, government policies, business and the market have an influence on food security at a Household level, which in turn is accomplished through empirical analysis, (Page & Redclif,2002; Hadley, 2011). The challenges associated with food supply in a country include several factors such as political instability, war and riots, the shortage of effective transportation and inefficient market structure (Benson, 2004:8). A food balance sheet provides relevant information about food availability among nations, regions and sub-regions, (Babu & Sanyal, 2009:8).

Food Utilization: Food utilization addresses not only how much food the people eat but also what and how they eat. It also covers the food preparation, intra-household food distribution, Water and sanitation and health care practices. The nutritional outcome of the food eaten by an Individual will be appropriate and optimum only when food is prepared/ cooked properly, there is adequate diversity of the diet and proper feeding and caring practices are practiced. Stunting Rate, wasting rate, prevention of diarrheal diseases, latrine usage, weight-for-age, goiter, anemia, Night blindness etc. are the indicators at different level for this dimensions which can be assessed by demographic and health survey, immunization chart etc. According to (Richardson, 2010:1), (IICA, 2009), and (WFP, 2007:4) states, utilization of food involves the preparation of sufficient food with clean water, sanitation and special health care. This ensures that the wellbeing of individuals' psychological needs is met efficiently. Food Utilization implies that the amount of nutritional food intake by an individual should be safe, of the right quality and be sufficient for a diet that provides adequate energy and vital nutrients. A Person's body must be able to extract and use the nutrients from consuming food; this is According to the meaning of an 'active and health life' in the definition of food security. The Preparation of food and health status of a person has a direct influence on food security, (Stats t etal. 2009:159). Food utilization is limited by several factors such as loss of nutrients during food Processing, inadequate sanitation, lack of proper care. This in turn might have an adverse effect on other members of a

household. Food utility entails food usage, therefore throughout the year food utility changes with seasonal variation and food availability when there is food production and consumption domestically, (Yin et al., 2008).

Food Stability: Food stability addresses the stability and sustainability of the other three Dimensions over time. People cannot be considered food secure until they feel so and they do not feel food secure until there is stability of availability, accessibility and proper utilization Condition. Instability of market price of staple food and inadequate risk baring capacity of the People in the case of adverse condition (e.g. natural disaster, unexpected weather etc…), political Instability and unemployment are the major factors affecting stability of the dimensions of food Security. Food stability emphasizes that every individual should have access to sufficient food at all times. Unexpected economic shocks should not be a risk factor to food access when needed, IICA (2009). Stability also relates to the loss in resources due to income shocks and insufficient Reserves. The loss in resources may either be temporal or permanent, (Schmidhuber & Tubiello, 2007:1). The concept of stability is interrelated with the elements of access and stability (FAO, 2006:1).

Concepts of Food Insecurity

According to Sen (1999), food insecurity, famine, malnutrition, and undernourishment are distinct ideas that are utilized interchangeably in various literary works. As previously mentioned, food insecurity is a complicated idea that mostly refers to the inability of all individuals to always have access to enough food for an active and healthy existence. Food insecurity is defined by the Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO, 2002) as a state in which there is a shortage of the safe and nourishing food required to lead an active and healthy life. Concerns about running out of food or not having enough cash to buy food when it runs out are also part of this syndrome (Burns, 2004:6). Due to restricted resources, people who are considered to be food insecure typically cannot cultivate or consume enough food.

Additional cases of food insecurity can be seen among war survivors, the urban poor, and low-income households, particularly in developing nations. Furthermore, the majority of women who live in low-income homes are at risk for food insecurity. This is because women typically devote a significant portion of their income to meeting the needs of their children. Additionally, they are in charge of growing or cooking the food they buy (FAO, 2011; European Commission, 2009:9).

It should be noted that the theory distinguishes between two kinds of food insecurity: temporary and chronic.

Long-term food shortages are known as chronic food insecurity, and they are typically brought on by a lack of financial and productive resources as a result of poverty. People who are unable to meet the requirements to buy or produce enough food are consistently impacted (European Commission, 2006:1). Vulnerability, which is characterized as ongoing susceptibility to food insecurity, is fostered by chronic food insecurity (Devereux, 2006:3). Persistent market or structural failure within a country is typically the cause of chronic food insecurity, which is classified as mild or moderate food insecurity (Misselhorn et al., 2010).

A temporary shortage of food that lasts only a short while is known as transitory food insecurity. It stems from a number of causes, including transient shocks and a shortage of food as a result of price swings (FAO, 2008:9). When the ability to buy or create enough food to sustain a healthy lifestyle suddenly changes, it can lead to a condition known as transitory food insecurity. Even though it only lasts temporarily, transitory food insecurity is seen to be the most serious form of family food insecurity since it leads to famine and hunger (Staatz et al., 2009:159). Food consumption trends can become unstable as a result of inappropriate government policies, which can cause temporary food insecurity (Cathie, 2006:100).

2.2. Concept of IDP

The term "internally displaced person" was a matter of significant debate among researchers and academicians worldwide (Muggah, 2000, referenced in Ayalew, 2014). For others, the term "internally displaced individuals" applies only to those uprooted by war, violence, and persecution from permanent habitation (UNCHR, 2005). For others, it shows that the habitual inhabitants of a given nation find themselves in traumatic situations and significant vulnerability in their country (Ahmed, 2017). Furthermore, *IDPs* are defined as a much broader concept that includes millions of people displaced by natural disasters and development initiatives (Mooney, 2005).

Population displacement is an outcome of multiple sets of factors. The many "push factors" leading to internal displacement can be aggregated into a range of overlapping categories: natural and human-made disasters, ethnic or religious persecution, development, and conflict.

Displacement is by definition forced and involuntary and involves some form of de-territorialization (Muggah, 2003).

Thus, officially endorsed by the UN in 1998, the Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement, while not binding, reflected existing standards of international law and identified IDPs and the rights of displaced individuals (Muggah, 2000). However, as Alemayehu (2010) showed, an earlier attempt to classify IDPs by referring to their protection and support. In this approach to defining internally displaced individuals, the UN secretary-general, Boutros B. Ghali (1992), initially led the attempt and first defined internally displaced persons officially as follows:

Persons or groups who have been forced to flee their homes suddenly or unexpectedly in large numbers, as a result of armed conflict, internal strife, systematic violations of rights or natural or man-made disaster, and who are within the territory of their own country (Admassu, 2010, p, 20).

The introduction to the Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement contains the concept of IDP that evolved from the Representative's debates. The Principles, presented to the United Nations in 1998, have since gained widespread recognition as an essential tool and a standard for dealing with internal displacement and are now used by governments, the United Nations, regional bodies, non-governmental organizations, and other actors all over the world. Internally displaced persons are defined as "individuals or groups of individuals who have been forced or compelled to flee or leave their homes or places of habitual residence, in particular as a result of or in order to avoid the effects of armed conflict, situations of generalized violence, human rights violations, natural or human-made disasters, and who have not crossed an internationally recognized state border" (UNCHR, 1998).

According to the above definitions, internal displacement can be caused by international or non-international armed wars, circumstances of violence that are not armed conflicts, grave human rights violations, natural or manufactured disasters. Furthermore, IDPs remain their nation and protected by their government, even if they are responsible for or involved in their eviction. (UNCHR, 2018).

2.3.Concepts Of Coping Mechanisms In Food Security

The concept of coping mechanisms in food insecurity refers to the adaptive strategies households employ to maintain food consumption when facing shortages or limited access to adequate nutrition (Maxwell, 1996). These mechanisms exist along a continuum from reversible dietary adjustments to irreversible survival strategies that may compromise long-term wellbeing (Corbett, 1988). Research identifies three primary categories of food-related coping: dietary changes (e.g., reducing meal portions or frequency), income strategies (e.g., seeking additional work or selling assets), and social support mechanisms (e.g., borrowing food or relying on community networks) (Maxwell et al., 2008). The severity and duration of food insecurity significantly influence which strategies households adopt, with more extreme measures typically emerging as deprivation persists (Webb et al., 2006).

To alleviate food insecurity, coping mechanisms must be developed in addition to policies and strategies. One useful coping strategy that might help households get fresh produce and enhance their nutrition is home gardening (Kassahun et al., 2020). Food sharing can also enhance access to food and decrease food waste, as demonstrated by community-based food sharing programs (Ravallion, 2012). Food banks, soup kitchens, and food stamps are examples of food assistance programs that can help vulnerable populations get food and improve their nutrition (Gundersen & Ziliak, 2015). Because people and households may relocate to locations with greater availability to food and economic possibilities, migration may occasionally be a coping strategy for food insecurity (Mastrorillo et al., 2016).

2.3.1. Contextual Factors Influencing Food Insecurity and Displacement in the Area

In Hachalu Resettlement Site and Koye Feche Sub-city site deal with complicated food insecurity issues influenced by a number of displacement-related variables. First, as many internally displaced people (IDPs) were rural farmers who lost their land, livestock, and farming equipment during violence, the disruption of agricultural livelihoods significantly restricts access to food (IDMC, 2022). Because there is frequently insufficient arable land in resettlement sites, residents are forced to depend on sporadic daily work or humanitarian assistance (FAO, 2023). Second, market volatility makes food insecurity worse by causing price swings for staples like wheat and teff as a result of inflation and supply chain disruptions (WFP, 2023). Since they

frequently don't have steady sources of income, IDPs in metropolitan areas like Koye Feche struggle with high food prices (Abebe et al., 2022).

Food insecurity is further exacerbated by social and institutional issues. Traditional coping strategies, such as sharing food among family members, are diminished in relocation sites by weak social support networks (Desalegn et al., 2023). Furthermore, many IDPs lack dependable safety nets since they are unable to get formal support because of bureaucratic obstacles or exclusion from aid targeting (NRC, 2023). Another factor is gender inequality, as households led by women, who are overrepresented in displaced homes, have a harder time getting food because of their limited mobility and lower incomes (UN Women, 2022).

Drought and land degradation are two examples of environmental stressors that exacerbate local food production and decrease local food availability (USAID, 2023). IDPs that rely on rain-fed agriculture are most impacted by climate variability, which makes rehabilitation even more difficult (FAO, 2023). Finally, because long-term dependence on emergency food aid reduces self-sufficiency, prolonged displacement undermines long-term resilience (FSIN, 2023). Many IDPs continue to suffer in cycles of food insecurity in the absence of viable livelihood programs (World Bank, 2023).

2.4. Theoretical background of study variables

2.4.1. Food Insecurity

Scarcity Theory- explains food insecurity as a consequence of insufficient access to food resources relative to population needs (Robbins, 1932). This theory posits that food insecurity arises not merely from absolute food shortages but from systemic failures in distribution, affordability, and entitlement (Sen, 1981). In contexts like the Hachalu resettlement site, scarcity manifests through limited farmland, disrupted markets, and unequal aid access, forcing internally displaced persons (IDPs) to adopt harmful coping strategies such as meal-skipping or asset sales (Maxwell & Caldwell, 2008).

Capability Approach: developed by Amartya Sen, provides a comprehensive framework for understanding how economic status influences food insecurity among internally displaced persons (IDPs) in Hachalu Resettlement Site. According to Sen (1999), development should be viewed as the expansion of individuals' capabilities—their substantive freedoms to achieve well-being and lead lives they value. Food security is a critical component of this well-being, as it enables individuals to meet their basic nutritional needs and pursue other life goals. However, economic constraints such as low income, unemployment, and limited access to productive assets severely restrict the capabilities of IDPs, leaving them vulnerable to food insecurity. For instance, households with insufficient financial resources are unable to afford adequate food or invest in agricultural activities that could enhance food availability.

Economic Theory of Food Security: provides a foundational framework for understanding food insecurity as a dependent variable, emphasizing the critical role of economic factors in determining access to food. According to this theory, food security is fundamentally tied to a household's ability to acquire sufficient, safe, and nutritious food through economic means, such as income, employment, and market access (FAO, 1996). Food insecurity arises when households lack the financial resources or entitlements necessary to secure food, either through direct production, trade, or labor-based earnings. Amartya Sen's concept of entitlements further elaborates on this idea, suggesting that individuals secure food through various means, including growing it, purchasing it, or exchanging labor for it. When these entitlements are disrupted—due to unemployment, low wages, or market failures—households become vulnerable to food insecurity (Sen, 1981). This theory also highlights the role of poverty traps, where economic deprivation limits access to food and perpetuates cycles of hunger and malnutrition.

2.4.2. Economic Status

Poverty Trap Theory: explains how individuals or households trapped in poverty lack the resources needed to improve their economic status, perpetuating cycles of deprivation. According to this theory, poverty is not merely a result of insufficient income but also a structural condition where systemic barriers prevent upward mobility. Key mechanisms include feedback loops, where low income leads to poor health, reduced productivity, and limited access to education, which in turn further restrict earning potential (Bowles et al., 2006). This theory is particularly relevant for understanding how low economic status influences food insecurity, as

IDPs with limited financial resources may struggle to afford food or invest in livelihoods, exacerbating their vulnerability.

Economic Deprivation Theory: focuses on the consequences of lacking financial resources and how this deprivation affects individuals' ability to meet basic needs and achieve well-being. It emphasizes both the material and psychological impacts of economic hardship. Material deprivation refers to the inability to access essential goods and services, such as food, shelter, and healthcare, due to insufficient income or assets (Resettlment sitesend, 1979). This form of deprivation directly limits households' capacity to secure adequate nutrition, maintain health, and invest in education or livelihoods. Psychological stress caused by economic deprivation can lead to anxiety, reduced decision-making capacity, and maladaptive coping strategies, further worsening the situation (Mullainathan & Shafir, 2013). For instance, internally displaced persons (IDPs) experiencing economic deprivation may adopt unsustainable practices like skipping meals, borrowing money at high interest rates, or selling productive assets, which can have long-term negative consequences on their food security and livelihoods. This theory underscores the direct relationship between economic status and outcomes like food insecurity, health, and resilience, highlighting the importance of addressing economic deprivation to improve overall well-being.

Resource-Based Theory: examines how access to and control over resources such as financial capital, land, water, tools, and social networks determine individuals' ability to secure food, generate income, and build resilience. This theory posits that households with greater access to resources are better equipped to achieve food security and economic stability (Barney, 1991). For example, access to arable land or irrigation systems enables households to grow food, while savings or credit provides financial flexibility to purchase food during times of scarcity. Conversely, economically disadvantaged groups, such as IDPs, often lack these resources and rely on external aid or informal networks, which may not provide sustainable solutions. The theory also highlights the dependency on external resources, where economically deprived households are more vulnerable to shocks like climate change or market fluctuations. By focusing on resource availability, this theory explains how limited access to physical and financial resources due to low economic status constrains livelihood opportunities and exacerbates food insecurity among marginalized populations.

2.4.3. Access to physical Resources

Social Capital Theory: examines how social relationships, networks, and trust influence individuals' ability to access physical resources such as land, water, tools, and infrastructure. According to Putnam (2000), social capital refers to the collective value of social networks and the norms of reciprocity and trust that arise from these networks. In the context of access to physical resources, social capital enables individuals or communities to share resources, gain access to communal lands, or secure loans for purchasing tools or seeds. For example, strong social ties can facilitate cooperation in managing shared resources like irrigation systems or communal grazing lands. Conversely, a lack of social capital can limit access to physical resources, particularly for marginalized groups like internally displaced persons (IDPs). IDPs who are disconnected from local social networks may struggle to access land or water due to their limited ability to negotiate or collaborate with host communities..

Physical Access Model: The Physical Access Model focuses on the spatial and infrastructural factors that determine whether individuals or communities can physically reach and utilize resources like land, water, markets, and healthcare facilities. Penchansky and Thomas (1981) define access as the degree of fit between the user and the service or resource, encompassing factors such as availability, accessibility, accommodation, affordability, and acceptability. Geographic proximity, transportation networks, and infrastructure play a critical role in determining access to physical resources. This model emphasizes how physical barriers such as displacement to remote resettlement sites or lack of infrastructure limit access to essential resources. For instance, IDPs in Hachalu Resettlement Site may face difficulties accessing agricultural land or water due to geographic isolation or poor infrastructure. Addressing these barriers is crucial for improving food security and livelihood resilience among IDPs.

Social Exclusion Theory: examines how systemic inequalities, discrimination, and marginalization prevent certain groups from accessing resources, opportunities, and rights, including physical resources like land, water, and infrastructure. Silver (1994) defines social exclusion as the process through which individuals or groups are wholly or partially excluded from full participation in society due to structural disadvantages. Marginalized groups such as IDPs, women, ethnic minorities, and low-income households are often excluded from resource allocation due to legal, cultural, or economic barriers. Addressing social exclusion requires

policy interventions to ensure equitable resource distribution and legal recognition for disadvantaged groups.

2.4.4. Health Status

Health Promotion Model: Developed by Nola Pender (1982, revised 1996), the Health Promotion Model (HPM) positions health status as influenced by multidimensional factors including individual characteristics/experiences, behavior-specific cognitions (perceived benefits/barriers), and socio-environmental influences. Bridging clinical and behavioral science perspectives, it emphasizes self-efficacy and active participation in health-enhancing behaviors (physical activity, stress management) while acknowledging environmental constraints (Pender et al., 2006). Applied to Hachalu's IDPs, this model would investigate coping strategies like dietary changes, food sharing networks, or income diversification activities (Maxwell et al., 2020). The model's emphasis on self-efficacy and community resources is particularly relevant for understanding how IDPs adapt to food insecurity while facing constraints like limited access to farmland or markets in their new settlement.

Medical Model: (Engel, 1977) offers a contrasting perspective by focusing on biological determinants of health status among IDPs. This model would examine how malnutrition-related pathologies (e.g., micronutrient deficiencies, stunting) and disease burdens (e.g., diarrheal diseases, respiratory infections) contribute to and result from food insecurity in the resettlement site. While valuable for clinical treatment, this model's limitation lies in its neglect of the socioeconomic drivers of food insecurity prevalent in displacement contexts (Farmer et al., 2013). For Hachalu's IDPs, exclusive reliance on this model would overlook critical factors like disrupted agricultural systems or loss of income-generating activities.

Social Determinants of Health Model: the framework (WHO, 2010) provides critical insights into how socioeconomic and environmental conditions influence health status and food insecurity among Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) in Hachalu Resettlement Site. This framework identifies five key domains affecting health outcomes: economic stability (income, employment), education access, healthcare access, neighborhood/environmental conditions, and social/community context. For IDPs in Koye Feche Sub-city, factors like loss of livelihoods, disrupted social networks, and inadequate housing directly impact both health status and food security (Bickler et al., 2020). The SDH framework emphasizes that structural interventions

addressing these determinants may be more effective than individual-level solutions in breaking the cycle of food insecurity and poor health.

2.4. 5. Social Support Networks

Social Exchange Theory: it provides a foundational framework for understanding how social support networks function through reciprocal interactions. The theory posits that individuals engage in relationships based on implicit cost-benefit analyses, where they exchange material and non-material resources with expectations of mutual benefit (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). In the context of Hachalu's IDPs, this theory explains how displaced populations develop new exchange networks to compensate for lost assets, trading scarce resources like food, labor, or information. The strength and durability of these networks depend on perceived equity in exchanges - when reciprocity breaks down, support systems often collapse (Molm, 2010). Key variables include frequency of exchanges, types of resources shared, and power dynamics within networks (Emerson, 1976).

Resource-Based Theory: it refers to social networks emphasizes how access to and control over tangible and intangible resources determines a community's resilience. it identifies four characteristics that make resources valuable: rarity, immitability, durability, and substitutability (Barney, 2001). For IDPs in Hachalu, critical resources include not just food and money, but also knowledge (e.g., farming techniques for new environments), social capital, and cultural practices that maintain group cohesion (Adger, 2003). The theory helps analyze why some displaced communities fare better than others - those who can effectively mobilize and combine resources within their networks demonstrate greater adaptive capacity (Scoones, 1998). Variables include resource diversity, access mechanisms, and innovation in resource utilization**.**

Structural Embeddedness Theory: serve as a theoretical framework to explore how social support networks influence food insecurity and coping strategies among internally displaced persons (IDPs). As an independent variable, social support networks refer to the formal and informal relationships IDPs have with family, friends, community members, NGOs, and government institutions. These networks provide resources such as information, emotional support, financial assistance, and access to food or livelihood opportunities. The structural properties of these networks—such as their density, centrality, reciprocity, and diversity—can

either alleviate or exacerbate food insecurity and shape the coping mechanisms employed by IDPs.

In the context of the Hachalu Resettlement Site, this theory could explain how embeddedness in supportive networks enables IDPs to access resources critical for survival, such as food aid, agricultural inputs, or employment opportunities. Conversely, weak or fragmented networks may limit access to these resources, increasing vulnerability to food insecurity. Additionally, the theory highlights how trust, reciprocity, and social capital within networks influence collective action and resilience among IDPs..

2.4.6. Coping Mechanisms

Stress Appraisal Theory: developed by Lazarus and Folkman (1984), explains how individuals cognitively evaluate and respond to stressful situations. The theory posits that when faced with adversity like food insecurity, people engage in a two-stage appraisal process. First, in primary appraisal, they assess whether the situation threatens their wellbeing (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984,). Second, in secondary appraisal, they evaluate their coping resources and options (Folkman et al., 1986). These cognitive evaluations directly influence whether individuals adopt problem-focused strategies (e.g., seeking employment), emotion-focused approaches (e.g., prayer), or maladaptive behaviors (e.g., reducing meals). The theory has been widely applied in displacement contexts, showing how subjective perceptions of control mediate coping strategy selection (Cardoso et al., 2019; Wutich et al., 2020).

Resilience Theory: as articulated by Masten (2001) and others, complements this by focusing on adaptive capacities at multiple levels. The theory suggests that resilience emerges from individual assets (e.g., skills), social relationships, and institutional supports that enable populations to withstand shocks (Masten, 2018). In food insecurity research, resilience frameworks highlight how IDPs combine personal coping strategies with community networks and humanitarian assistance to maintain food access (Maxwell et al., 2020). Unlike Stress Appraisal Theory's focus on cognitive processes, Resilience Theory emphasizes the structural and temporal dimensions of adaptation - how resources and learning over time enhance future coping capacity (Berkes & Ross, 2013). According to this view, adaptive coping strategies are

crucial for reducing stress and enhancing wellbeing (Masten, 2001). It implies that food insecurity can be decreased by efficient coping.

2.5. Determinants of Food Insecurity

Economic Factors: Economic status is a fundamental determinant of food insecurity, as it directly influences a household's ability to access sufficient, nutritious food. According to the World Bank (2022), economic status encompasses income levels, employment stability, asset ownership, and access to financial resources—all of which shape food purchasing power and dietary diversity. The Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO, 2021) emphasizes that poverty, often measured through economic indicators, remains the root cause of food insecurity for approximately 80% of vulnerable populations, including internally displaced persons (IDPs)

Access to physical Resources: Markets, irrigation, and land are examples of physical resources that have a significant impact on food security. Inadequate infrastructure and limited access to agricultural inputs might hinder food production and delivery in remote locations. One of the problems that metropolitan regions may face is food deserts, where it is difficult to find fresh produce (Block et al., 2022).

Health Status: The food security of a home can be greatly impacted by the health of its members. Disabilities and chronic illnesses can make it difficult for a person to work, which lowers income and limits their ability to buy food. Furthermore, there is a cyclical association between food insecurity and health problems (Ferguson et al., 2021).

Social Support Networks: Reducing food insecurity greatly depends on the efficacy and accessibility of social support networks, such as friends, family, and neighborhood associations. Food sharing and community resources can help households with strong social links, but households with weaker networks may face more significant challenges (Hirvonen et al., 2022).

Education and Knowledge: Education has an impact on people's capacity to obtain food and nutritional information. Malnutrition and food insecurity can result from households headed by people with lower educational attainment since they frequently lack knowledge about dietary diversity and good food choices (Gonzalez et al., 2021).

Cultural Factors: The availability, use, and preferences of food can all be influenced by cultural norms and customs. Traditional eating habits may restrict dietary variety or favor specific foods over others in some areas, which could have an impact on general nutrition and health results (Mason-D'Croz et al., 2021).

Political and Structural Factors: Food security is greatly impacted by trade, social welfare, and agricultural policies. Food insecurity can be made worse, especially for disadvantaged groups, by inadequate policy frameworks or a lack of investment in food systems (Franco et al., 2022).

Environmental Conditions: Climate change, natural disasters, and environmental degradation can impede food production and access. Frequent floods or droughts can destroy agricultural output in many areas, resulting in food shortages and heightened insecurity (Jones et al., 2022).

2.6. Food insecurity coping Mechanism strategies

Food Rationing: By limiting the number of meals each day or lowering portion sizes, many households choose to ration their food intake. Malnutrition could result from this strategy, which prolongs their current food supplies (Maxwell & Caldwell, 2022).

Purchasing Cheaper Foods: Families that are struggling financially frequently choose less expensive, high-calorie foods that are deficient in vital nutrients, which compromise their overall nutrition. Numerous researches emphasize this tactic as a typical coping mechanism (Akter & Basak, 2021).

Informal Food Sharing: In situations when food is shared among neighbors or extended family, households may rely on communal support. Although this tradition promotes unity, it may also put a strain on communal resources (Nega & Yirdaw, 2020).

Gardening and Subsistence Farming: Households can augment their diets by cultivating food in tiny plots or home gardens. When there is land available in rural areas, this tactic can be especially successful (Tadesse, 2022).

Diversifying Income Sources: To pay for food, households could look for extra revenue streams like part-time jobs or unpaid labor. But this can be difficult, particularly in areas where unemployment is prevalent (Hirvonen et al., 2022).

Seeking Assistance: Families may seek money or food assistance from governmental or non-governmental organizations (NGOs). However, bureaucratic and geographic obstacles may affect access to these resources (Block et al., 2022).

Reducing Non-Food Expenditures: In order to devote more funds to food, families experiencing food insecurity frequently reduce spending on non-essentials like healthcare, education, or transportation (Ferguson et al., 2021).

Migration: In severe situations, households could relocate in quest of better food sources or economic prospects. Depending on the location and conditions, this migration may have both favorable and unfavorable effects (Zhou et al., 2023).

A complex web of interrelated issues, including political, social, environmental, and economic ones, contribute to food insecurity. Although coping strategies are quick fixes for food shortages, they frequently trap households in cycles of malnourishment and deprivation (Maxwell & Caldwell, 2022). Multifaceted approaches that take into account these many causes as well as the context-specific coping methods of impacted populations are necessary to address food insecurity. To create lasting solutions that boost resilience and increase food access and nutritional quality for populations who are at risk, policymakers and stakeholders must collaborate (Franco et al., 2022).

2.7. Empirical Review

Globally, food insecurity has become a serious public health concern that has an immediate effect on socioeconomic stability, health outcomes, and nutritional well-being. Recent empirical research emphasizes the intricate interactions between environmental, social, and economic factors that lead to food insecurity and its widespread effects on many communities. Food insecurity has been found to be prevalent across a number of demographic categories. About 10.5% of American households were food insecure in 2021, with minority and child-bearing homes being disproportionately impacted (Coleman-Jensen et al., 2022). There is an urgent need for focused interventions since, according to a study conducted in the UK by Loopstra et al. (2021), single-parent households were among those most likely to face food insecurity during the COVID-19 pandemic.

Economic position plays a pivotal role in determining access to food and the ability to cope with food insecurity. Urban IDPs in Ethiopia are disproportionately affected by food insecurity due to their reliance on cash-based economies and limited access to affordable food markets. Tsegay et al. (2020) conducted a study in Addis Ababa and Dire Dawa, highlighting that urban IDPs often face high levels of unemployment, underemployment, and income instability, which exacerbate their vulnerability to food insecurity. These economic challenges force urban households to adopt negative coping strategies, such as reducing meal sizes, skipping meals, or relying on food aid provided by humanitarian organizations. Similarly, Hagos et al. (2018) found that urban IDPs in Ethiopia frequently engage in borrowing money or selling household assets to meet their food needs, perpetuating cycles of poverty and economic marginalization.

On the other hand, IDPs living in rural areas typically earn less money but have easier access to natural resources, which allows them to use resource-based coping mechanisms. According to Berhane et al. (2019), in order to alleviate food shortages, Ethiopian rural households frequently turn to livestock husbandry, subsistence farming, or scavenging for wild edibles. Systemic problems including unstable land tenure, restricted access to agricultural inputs, and environmental difficulties like droughts and soil degradation, however, limit these tactics. Although rural IDPs may have easier access to fertile land, Tefera et al. (2020) stress that market failures and climate change have left them in a precarious economic situation that makes it difficult for them to produce food sustainably.

Devereux and Tiba (2019), who emphasize how poverty-driven food insecurity forces both urban and rural households to adopt negative coping methods, further illustrates the relationship between economic position and food insecurity. For example, rural households may sell productive assets or relocate in pursuit of better possibilities, whereas urban households frequently restrict food diversity or pull their children out of school. These results highlight how important economic empowerment is in tackling food insecurity among Ethiopia's displaced people.

Food insecurity affects people all throughout the world and is not just a national problem. The Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO, 2022) estimates that one in ten people globally faced

food insecurity in 2021, which was made worse by elements including conflict and climate change. Rural areas in developing nations are especially susceptible to food insecurity, according to a comparative analysis by Jones et al. (2022), which highlights the influence of regional agricultural methods and socioeconomic circumstances on food availability.

Coping strategies vary significantly between urban and rural displacement settings, reflecting differences in economic position and geographic context. In urban areas, coping strategies are heavily influenced by market dynamics and economic constraints. A report by the Ethiopian Public Health Institute (EPHI, 2021) highlights that urban IDPs in Ethiopia frequently rely on social safety nets provided by humanitarian organizations, as they lack alternative livelihood options. Negative coping strategies, such as reducing meal sizes, skipping meals, or relying on food aid, are prevalent in urban settings due to the absence of natural resources and the high cost of living. Maxwell et al. (2008) corroborate these findings, noting that urban poor populations in sub-Saharan Africa are particularly vulnerable to food price inflation and market volatility, which limit their ability to purchase sufficient food.

Coping mechanisms are more community-focused and resource-based in rural settings. According to Berhane et al. (2019), in order to deal with food shortages, rural IDPs in Ethiopia frequently take up subsistence farming, livestock husbandry, or informal trading. Furthermore, Hagos et al. (2018) describe how rural households employ community networks and traditional knowledge to deal with food insecurity, such as by depending on extended family support systems or engaging in labor-sharing agreements. These tactics do have certain drawbacks, though. Tefera et al. (2020) draw attention to the ways that environmental issues, like the Somali region's frequent droughts, reduce the efficacy of resource-based coping strategies and push rural households to take up harmful habits like eating less nutrient-dense food or moving in search of better opportunities.

Geographic disaggregation reveals that coping strategies are shaped by the availability of resources and the economic position of affected populations. Urban IDPs, constrained by their reliance on cash-based economies, are more likely to adopt negative coping strategies, while rural IDPs leverage natural resources but face environmental vulnerabilities. For instance, Tsegay et al. (2020) and EPHI (2021) demonstrate that urban IDPs in Ethiopia are more likely to

reduce dietary diversity or skip meals, while rural IDPs focus on farming, foraging, and livestock rearing. However, these strategies are constrained by systemic issues such as land tenure insecurity and climate change, as highlighted by Tefera et al. (2020).

Urban displacement settings, such as Addis Ababa and Dire Dawa, are characterized by high population density, limited access to affordable food markets, and economic precarity. Tsegay et al. (2020) and EPHI (2021) highlight that urban IDPs in these areas face compounded vulnerabilities due to overcrowding, competition for limited resources, and dependence on humanitarian aid. The lack of alternative livelihood options further exacerbates their food insecurity, forcing them to adopt negative coping strategies.

In contrast, rural displacement settings, such as the Oromia and Somali regions, are characterized by greater access to natural resources but are constrained by environmental and structural challenges. Berhane et al. (2019) and Tefera et al. (2020) document how rural IDPs in these regions rely on subsistence farming and pastoralism to address food shortages. However, environmental challenges such as droughts, land degradation, and climate change significantly undermine their resilience. Systemic issues such as land tenure insecurity and limited access to agricultural inputs further constrain their ability to sustainably produce food.

A comparative analysis of urban and rural displacement settings underscores the importance of tailoring interventions to address the unique needs of IDPs in different geographic contexts. Urban IDPs require policies that enhance economic opportunities, stabilize food markets, and strengthen formal safety nets, while rural IDPs need support to address environmental challenges, improve access to agricultural inputs, and secure land tenure rights. The findings from Ethiopia align with broader global research, such as FAO (2017) and WFP (2020), which emphasize the critical role of geographic location in shaping food insecurity experiences and coping mechanisms among displaced populations.

A complex network of vulnerabilities influenced by geographic and socioeconomic factors is revealed by the African context. Because of their limited financial resources, loss of livelihoods, and geographic marginalization, internally displaced people frequently experience chronic food insecurity throughout the continent. In their 2019 study of Ethiopian internally displaced people, Getachew and Abegaz, for example, discovered that households with low economic status were

more likely to use unsustainable coping strategies, like cutting back on meal frequency, taking out loans, or selling productive assets like livestock, all of which increase long-term vulnerability. Similar to this, FAO (2019) emphasized that, especially in vulnerable situations like conflict-affected areas or resettlement locations, economic precarity and physical isolation are major causes of food insecurity among displaced communities.

The economic determinants of food insecurity operate through multiple pathways in displacement settings. Research by Maxwell et al. (2021) in similar Ethiopian resettlement sites documented how the loss of productive assets during displacement - particularly livestock and farming equipment - created long-term food access challenges, with asset-poor households requiring an average of 3.2 years to reestablish stable food procurement strategies. A complementary study by the World Bank (2021) in Sheger City found that IDPs engaged in informal sector work faced 28% higher food insecurity rates than those with formal employment, highlighting how income precarity directly impacts nutritional outcomes.

Gender disparities compound these economic challenges. The Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO, 2023) reported that female-headed IDP households in Oromia were 35% more likely to experience severe food insecurity compared to male-headed households, due to lower wages, limited asset ownership, and greater caregiving burdens. This was particularly evident in Hachalu settlement, where women's participation in income-generating activities was constrained by safety concerns and limited childcare support (IDMC, 2022).

The urban context of Sheger City introduces additional economic complexities. Research by Devereux et al. (2022) found that while proximity to markets improved food availability for IDPs, high urban living costs consumed 60-70% of household incomes, leaving insufficient funds for nutritious diets. This "urban food paradox" was especially acute for IDPs lacking social networks to navigate formal employment systems (African Development Bank, 2021).

Recent interventions demonstrate the potential for economic approaches to mitigate food insecurity. A cash transfer program evaluation by Gentilini et al. (2023) in Oromia showed participating IDP households reduced food insecurity by 47% through improved purchasing power. However, sustainability remains a challenge, as 65% of beneficiaries reported slipping

back into food insecurity within one year after program cessation (Ethiopian Economics Association, 2022), underscoring the need for durable economic integration strategies.

The relationship between economic position and food insecurity among internally displaced persons (IDPs) in Ethiopia shows significant geographic variation, particularly evident in the Oromia Regional State context. Recent studies from Sheger City Administration reveal distinct urban displacement dynamics, where IDPs face 23% higher food prices compared to rural areas, forcing households to allocate 68% of their income to food expenditures (WFP, 2023). Within Koye Feche Sub-city specifically, rapid urbanization has created intense competition for low-skilled jobs, with IDP households earning 35% less than non-displaced urban poor (Addis Ababa University, 2022).

The World Food Programme (2022) estimates that 828 million people globally are food insecure, with the majority living in areas with extremely poor economic conditions. In Africa, where high rates of poverty, unemployment, and economic instability exacerbate food scarcity, the relationship between economic position and food insecurity is especially noticeable. According to a study by Alwyn et al. (2021), food security throughout the African continent was significantly damaged by economic downturns made worse by conflicts and climate change.

Food security in Ethiopia is greatly impacted by economic issues on a regional and national scale. According to the Ethiopian Central Statistical Agency (2022), food insecurity affects over 25% of the population, with rural households being the most impacted because to their strong reliance on rain-fed agriculture and lack of employment prospects. These general patterns are reflected in the circumstances in the Oromia region, which is home to a sizable section of Ethiopia's population. According to research by Abebe et al. (2021), households in Oromia experience severe food insecurity as a result of shifting economic circumstances that are exacerbated by natural elements including drought and soil erosion.

Furthermore, a research by Alemayehu and Woldemariam (2022) showed that households in Oromia with lower economic status reported higher rates of food insecurity, as a result of their limited access to markets and reliance on subsistence farming. Food insecurity has also increased in Ethiopia's cities due to economic pressures and the country's fast population growth.

According to Belete and Bork (2022), urban migration brought on by the pursuit of greater economic prospects frequently leads to heightened rivalry for resources, which further strains the supply of food for those who are already economically challenged.

Furthermore, food security may be impacted by more extensive economic reforms. According to a study by Gebremedhin and Kassa (2021), by giving households greater financial stability, policy measures targeted at enhancing agricultural output and market access can greatly increase food security. However, these gains can be quickly undone by inflation and economic shocks. According to an FAO research from 2023, increased food insecurity in East Africa, especially Ethiopia is a result of rising global food prices brought on by geopolitical tensions.

Numerous factors, such as social determinants, healthcare access, education, and economic status, affect a population's health. The World Health Organization (WHO) highlights the strong correlation between social conditions and economic growth and health outcomes on a global scale (WHO, 2021). Health disparities may result from these variables, especially in low- and middle-income nations. Although there has been a lot of progress in Africa in tackling health issues, there are still obstacles to overcome, especially when it comes to maternal and child health and communicable diseases (Khan et al., 2020). For example, a research by Adepoju et al. (2021) found that high rates of morbidity and death from diseases including TB, HIV/AIDS, and malaria persist in many African countries despite advancements in healthcare infrastructure.

Due to government health policies that aim to increase access to healthcare services, Ethiopia's health condition has gradually improved over time (Ministry of Health, Ethiopia, 2020). Maternal and newborn mortality rates have continuously decreased, according to the Ethiopian Demographic and Health Survey (EDHS), which shows advancements in healthcare access and delivery (Central Statistical Agency, 2021). Disparities still exist, though, especially in rural regions where getting healthcare is still very difficult (Banteyerga, 2019). One of Ethiopia's biggest and most varied regions, the Oromia, is a prime example of these differences. Due to a lack of health resources and socioeconomic difficulties, the area suffers from a variety of health problems, such as communicable diseases and under nutrition (Abrahams et al., 2020).

In addition, mental health is a growing issue in Ethiopia that is frequently disregarded when talking about public health. According to a comprehensive review by Ayalew et al. (2021), stigma, poverty, and a lack of treatment facilities are some of the factors contributing to the increased prevalence of mental health issues. Particularly in the Oromia region, cultural views on mental illness frequently prevent people from getting treatment, which makes their general health situation much more difficult (Mekonnen et al., 2023).

SSNs have been repeatedly linked to better physical and mental health outcomes, especially for those with chronic conditions, according to research (Cohen et al., 2020). While a study by Sutin et al. (2021) showed the advantages of SSNs in lowering symptoms of PTSD, another systematic review by Lee et al. (2022) found that SSNs were helpful in reducing symptoms of anxiety and depression among older individuals.

SSNs have been shown to be especially crucial in rural areas of Africa, where there is sometimes little access to official healthcare facilities. Pregnant women with SSNs were more likely to seek prenatal care and had better delivery outcomes, according to a study conducted in Kenya by Mwangi et al. (2020). Similarly, a study conducted in Nigeria by Adejumo et al. (2022) showed that SSNs were linked to better mental health outcomes for teenagers.

SSNs have been proven to be essential in reducing the symptoms of anxiety and depression in Ethiopia, a nation with a high prevalence of mental health illnesses. While one study by Mengistu et al. (2022) emphasized the significance of SSNs in enhancing adherence to antiretroviral therapy (ART) among people living with HIV/AIDS, another study by Abebe et al. (2021) showed that SSNs were linked to better mental health outcomes among rural communities.

High prevalence of anxiety, depression, and post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) has been documented in the Oromia Region of Ethiopia, making it a hotspot for mental health issues. SSNs are crucial for reducing the symptoms of anxiety and depression, as evidenced by a study by Asefa et al. (2022) that showed these networks were linked to better mental health outcomes among rural communities in the Oromia Region.

Food insecurity is still a major problem in the world, and people and households adopt a variety of coping strategies to lessen its effects. People who experience food insecurity around the world frequently turn to tactics including changing their eating habits, becoming more dependent on

food assistance, and taking up jobs that generate cash (Buchleitner et al., 2020). A study conducted in sub-Saharan Africa revealed that households commonly adopt tactics including borrowing food, diversifying food sources, and lowering meal frequency (Amodu et al., 2021; Zoromé et al., 2021).

According to recent studies, social networks and community support are frequently used by households as essential coping mechanisms (Béné et al., 2021). For example, it has been reported that people experiencing food insecurity in South Africa depend on food banks and community kitchens to satisfy their dietary requirements (Makhura et al., 2022). These group coping strategies emphasize how crucial social capital is to lessening the impacts of food poverty.

With an emphasis on Ethiopia, the scenario shows particular intricacies driven by local circumstances while also reflecting larger regional tendencies. According to a research by Abate et al. (2021), when food is scarce, households frequently turn to selling assets like animals as a coping strategy. Furthermore, it has grown more and more typical to rely on remittances from family members who have moved overseas (Mulo et al., 2022). Additionally, a qualitative study highlighted the crucial role women play in food procurement tactics, frequently utilizing their social networks to mobilize resources in times of crisis (Tadele et al., 2021).

Families use different coping strategies in Ethiopia's Oromia region, where food insecurity is especially severe as a result of recurrent conflicts and climate change. Many households in Oromia migrate seasonally in pursuit of agricultural work, according to a recent survey, demonstrating adaptive techniques to deal with food shortages (Kassie et al., 2023). Furthermore, it has been noted that neighbors share food as a collective coping mechanism to reduce hunger (Bahta et al., 2022). These regional customs demonstrate the adaptability and resiliency of underprivileged groups.

In summary,Food insecurity among IDPs is driven by economic precarity, with urban populations facing market barriers and rural populations confronting production collapse. Targeted policies must address these divergent challenges through livelihood support, agricultural rehabilitation, and social protection. Future research should prioritize longitudinal studies on intervention efficacy (Berhane et al., 2021). According to program evaluations, the program has enabled households to choose more sustainable coping mechanisms instead of harmful ones like asset sales.

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2.8. Research Gaps

Although the connection between economic position and food insecurity is well established, more thorough research is required to examine the direct effects of global economic changes on food security in various geographical areas. The majority of current research tends to ignore dynamic changes in favor of static economic indicators. Furthermore, there is not enough research done on how social policies can help lessen these effects.

Research on food insecurity in Africa frequently emphasizes the effects of climate change and agricultural limitations. On the other hand, little is known about how social support networks and food insecurity interact. Although informal networks are essential for obtaining food, little is known about their efficacy and crisis-resilience, especially in rural areas. More research is needed to understand the subtleties of cultural customs and communal cohesion in dealing with food insecurity (Bennett et al., 2022).

Ethiopia has made progress in combating food insecurity, although studies tend to concentrate on rural areas, ignoring the dynamics of food insecurity in cities. Additionally, little is known about the relationship between economic position and food security and women's empowerment, particularly when considering cultural norms and gender roles. Research must examine the unique obstacles that women have when trying to obtain information and resources about nutrition and food production (Gonzalez et al., 2021; Nega & Yirdaw, 2020).

Existing research in the Oromia region focuses mostly on climate shock resilience and agricultural output. On the other hand, little is known about how local governance and policy frameworks affect the results of food security. More empirical research is required to examine the ways in which local governance arrangements might help or hurt vulnerable groups' access to resources and economic opportunities (Tadesse, 2022).

Economic Status: The precise processes via which economic shocks impact food access among various socioeconomic categories are still not well understood, despite the fact that the link between economic position and food insecurity is acknowledged. Longitudinal studies that monitor households' food security status over time are lacking, particularly after shocks or economic downturns (Akter & Basak, 2021).

Access to Resources: Research frequently emphasizes food access in measurable dimensions without taking resource quality into account. There is a dearth of qualitative research on how various socioeconomic classes view and obtain high-quality food as opposed to staple foods, especially in Ethiopian and African rural and urban areas (Mason-D'Croz et al., 2021).

Health Status: The health effects of food insecurity are well-documented, although there is insufficient quantitative research that specifically ties food insecurity to specific health outcomes in Ethiopia and the Oromia area. Rigorous studies addressing how malnutrition connected to food insecurity affects children's developmental outcomes are desperately needed (Borkowski et al., 2023).

Social Support Networks: Although it is widely accepted that social support networks are essential for managing food insecurity, little study has been done on how these networks vary depending on the cultural setting in Ethiopia. Further insights may also be obtained by investigating the ways in which social capital affects coping mechanisms and resource accessibility during emergencies (Hirvonen et al., 2022; Van Humbeeck et al., 2021).

Coping Mechanisms: The majority of studies on coping strategies concentrate on quick fixes for food insecurity, such limiting or buying less expensive food. Long-term coping mechanisms that communities evolve throughout time are not well understood, especially when it comes to efforts to adapt to climate change and increase resilience (Jones et al., 2022).

Holistic Approaches: Last but not least, there is a noticeable lack of integrated, multifaceted approaches that take into account the overlapping elements of coping strategies, social support networks, health, economic status, and resource accessibility. Research using a systems thinking approach may provide important information for developing successful food insecurity treatments (Franco et al., 2022).

2.9. Conceptual Framework

This study's conceptual framework examines the relationship between independent variables (determinants of food insecurity) and dependent variables (food insecurity outcomes and coping strategies) among internally displaced persons (IDPs). The independent variables include: economic status, operationalized as household income, employment type, and asset ownership

(Maxwell et al., 2020); access to physical resources, measured by proximity to markets, availability of arable land, and humanitarian aid access (FAO, 2021); health status, including malnutrition rates and diet-related illnesses (Gundersen & Ziliak, 2021); and social support systems, such as community networks and institutional assistance (UNHCR, 2022). These determinants collectively influence the dependent variables, food insecurity **levels**, assessed through the Household Food Insecurity Access Scale (HFIAS), meal frequency, and dietary diversity (Coates et al., 2007); and coping strategies, categorized as adaptive (e.g., livelihood diversification) or negative (e.g., distress sales, child labor) (Maxwell et al., 2020). Additionally, coping strategy effectiveness is a secondary dependent variable, evaluated through changes in food security status over time (Hoddinott, 2022). The framework accounts for potential moderators such as displacement duration and household size, which may alter the strength of these relationships (WFP, 2023). By analyzing these variables, the study aims to identify key leverage points for interventions to improve food security and resilience among displaced populations. This framework provides a structured approach to analyzing how economic, environmental, health, and social factors shape food insecurity and coping mechanisms in displacement settings.

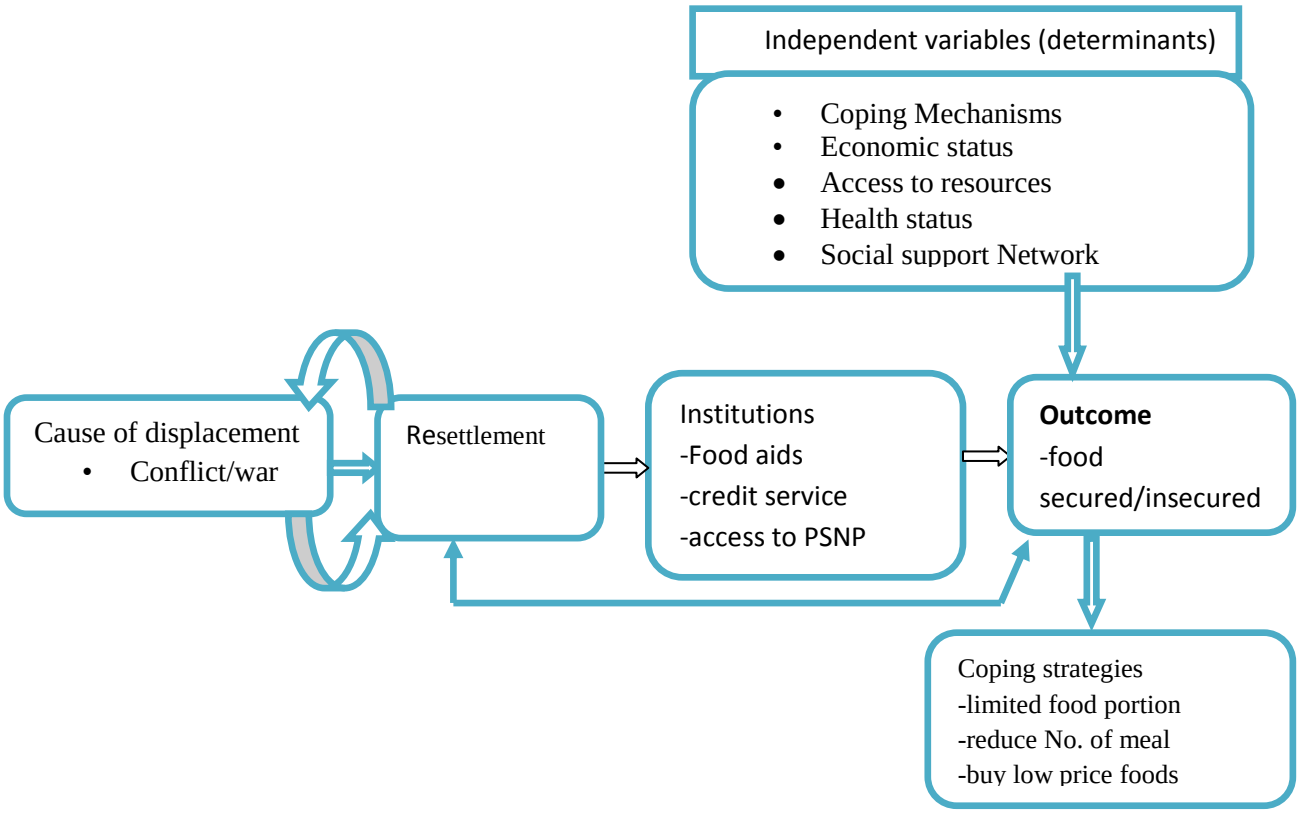

Figure 1: conceptual framework of the study (source: own construction)

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODS

3.1. Description of the study area

Sheger City in Koye Feche sub-city at Hachalu Resettlement Site, which is situated southeast of Addis Ababa, Ethiopia's capital city, with geographic coordinates of 8^0 54’11ˆ’ North and 38^0 49’60ˆ’ East, is where the research was carried out in the Oromia Region. It is located roughly 20 kilometers away from Addis Ababa. It has a border with the regions of Oromiya and Addis Ababa. It is closer to the expressway built with cooperation from the Chinese and Ethiopian governments. The Resettlement Site has housed about 890 IDP households; nevertheless, the population is stable because not many more are moving in, and a roughly equal number of households are departing the IDP site for various reasons.

3.1.2. Socio economic and Demographic profiles

Oromia Region is home to Hachalu Resettlement Site, a major urban center distinguished by its quick expansion and diversity. Due to economic opportunities and migration patterns brought on by conflict, the site has seen significant population shifts recently. The Resettlement site's social and economic complexity has been exacerbated by its diverse population, which consists of both long-term residents and a sizable number of internally displaced persons (IDPs) (Yasuda & Fox, 2022). Living circumstances in many places have varied as a result of uneven infrastructure development. The changing landscape of Hachalu Resettlement Site is a reflection of larger national issues with migration and urbanization, which are influencing Ethiopia's urban centers' socioeconomic dynamics more and more (UN-Habitat, 2021).

The socioeconomic disparities in Hachalu Resettlement Site stem from uneven urban development, where informal settlements coexist with more planned residential areas, leading to stark inequalities in access to essential services. Informal settlements, often characterized by inadequate infrastructure, poor sanitation, and unreliable utilities, face greater challenges in accessing markets, healthcare, and education compared to more developed neighborhoods (Beyene et al., 2023). These disparities are exacerbated by uneven resource distribution, as government services and private investments tend to concentrate in formalized areas, leaving marginalized communities with limited opportunities. For instance, residents of informal settlements may travel longer distances to reach healthcare facilities or markets, incurring

additional costs that worsen poverty and food insecurity. Furthermore, schools in underserved areas often lack sufficient resources, contributing to lower educational outcomes. The persistence of these gaps reflects broader issues of urban planning neglect, weak policy implementation, and socioeconomic exclusion, requiring targeted interventions to ensure equitable access to basic services for all residents in the sub-city..

The necessity for focused interventions to address the unique difficulties faced by low-income households in Koye Feche is highlighted by the significant effects these disparities have on locals' capacity to obtain food and economic opportunities (Bokreta, 2022).

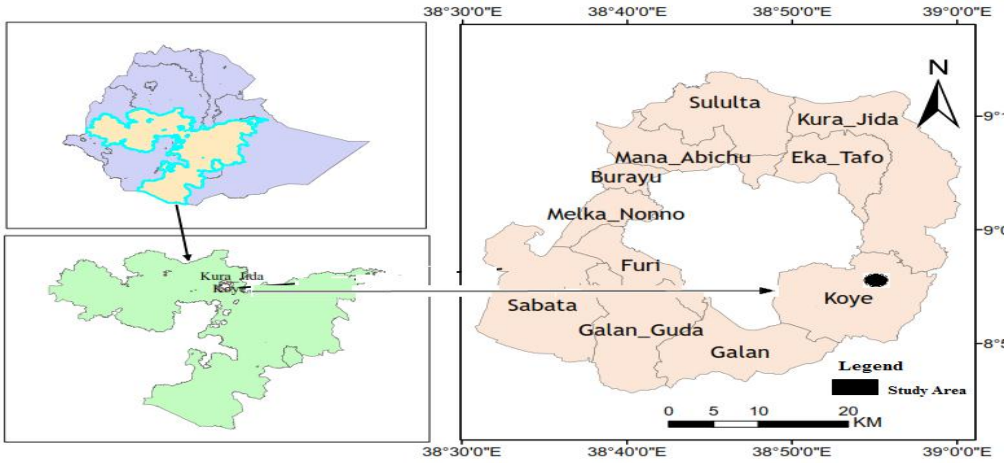

Figure 2 : Map of the study area (Source: Developed by Arc GIS, 2021).

3.2. Research Design

A cross-sectional descriptive research approach was used in the study on the factors that contribute to food insecurity and coping strategies of internally displaced people living in Hachalu site. In order to assess the prevalence of food insecurity and investigate the relationships between different independent variables, this design is especially suitable for the study since it permits the collection of data from a defined population (internally displaced persons) at a single point in time. Social support networks, health, economic standing, and the dependent variable of food insecurity are some of these variables (Pritchard & Hetherington, 2021). The cross-sectional design provides a thorough understanding of the lived experiences of IDPs in Hachalu site by

facilitating the detection of connections and associations between factors and enabling the collection of both qualitative and quantitative data.

Several important factors are included in the justification for choosing this research strategy. First, a cross-sectional study's timeliness enables a quick evaluation of the state of food insecurity among IDPs, which is essential for guiding intervention and policy plans. The research design's descriptive component makes it possible to collect a variety of data, allowing for an examination of the different facets of food insecurity and its contributing factors (Keller, 2022). This thorough data collection fosters a detailed understanding of the ways in which coping mechanisms and food insecurity are influenced by variables like social support networks, economic position, health, and access to resources.

Moreover, the cross-sectional design facilitates the simultaneous investigation of relationships between several variables, giving researchers a better understanding of the ways in which various factors interact, such as how social support systems can act as a buffer against food insecurity or how financial circumstances impact the availability of nutritional resources (Aker & Fafchamps, 2021).

3.3. Research Approach

A mixed methods approach was employed to enhance the depth and breadth on the factors that contribute to food insecurity and coping strategies of internally displaced people living in Hachalu Resettlement Site . Mixed methods was used to combine both qualitative and quantitative research techniques, allowed researchers to triangulate data and gain a more comprehensive understanding of the issue. Through surveys and questionnaires, quantifiable information on economic status, social support networks, health, access to resources, and levels of food insecurity was gathered for the quantitative component. In order to find correlations and possible contributing variables to food insecurity among IDPs, this data made statistical analysis easier (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018).

The qualitative component, on the other hand, involved focus groups and in-depth interviews with chosen participants to obtain more contextual and richer insights into their experiences and coping strategies in relation to food insecurity. The qualitative data helped to capture the nuanced realities that numbers alone could not provide, such as individual perceptions of coping strategies and support systems, cultural values, and personal stories. By combining qualitative

and quantitative methods, the research triangulated findings, improving the validity and reliability of the data (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010).

The use of a mixed methods approach was justified by the fact that it offered a comprehensive perspective on the study problem. A number of interconnected elements contributed to the complexity of food insecurity, which needs both personal accounts for a more profound understanding and numerical data for precise assessment. By integrating these methods, the study examined the lived experiences of IDPs and its causes, producing insights that influenced better interventions and policy choices. Furthermore, this method made it possible to examine more closely how various coping strategies interacted with the socioeconomic and cultural circumstances of the IDPs, which ultimately led to a more thorough comprehension of the problem (Mertens, 2014).

3.4. Target Population

IDPs are defined as people who have been displaced within Ethiopia's borders and are now seeking safety, shelter, and livelihood opportunities in the urban environment of Hachalu Resettlement Site. IDPs may include a diverse range of ethnicities, genders, ages, and family structures, all of whom face unique challenges as they adapt to their new surroundings.

The target population for this research study consists of internally displaced persons (IDPs) living in Hachalu Resettlement Site, specifically those living within the boundaries of Koye Feche Sub-city.

There are 890 households in Hachalu Resettlement Site 's IDP population demonstrates a diverse range of demographic traits. This population consists of families displaced primarily due to inter-communal conflicts. A sizable fraction of IDPs are women and children, and many of them are young. According to recent data, women and children under the age of 18 make up over 23% of the IDPs in this urban context (Ethiopian Disaster Risk Management Commission, 2023). The ethnic diversity of the population, which includes people from Oromia, Amhara, and Tigray regions in particular, reflects the intricate nature of internal displacement in Ethiopia.

Children and youth make up a significant portion of the IDP population in terms of age distribution, which frequently draws attention to the vulnerabilities brought on by their displacement (UNICEF, 2023). Due to their abrupt migration, many of these kids are not attending school, which can have a significant negative influence on their growth and prospects

in the future. Additionally, it is more difficult for the elderly and people with disabilities to get the help and resources they need in these IDP communities.

In general, IDPs in Hachalu Resettlement Site have a difficult socioeconomic situation. In order to make ends meet, the majority of people depend significantly on informal economic activity including street vending, casual labor, and small scale trading because they lack steady work. IDP unemployment is particularly prevalent; estimates suggest that more than 70% of displaced people do not have a steady source of income (World Bank, 2023).

The socio-economic challenges faced by IDPs in Hachalu Resettlement Site are further compounded by the fact that most of them are at the mercy of fluctuating market prices, which make it difficult for them to afford essential goods, including food; humanitarian assistance may be available, but its frequency and adequacy can vary, impacting the ability of families to secure their basic needs effectively; and that many households live in overcrowded conditions, often in informal settlements that lack basic infrastructure, such as clean water, sanitation, and adequate housing; these vulnerabilities increase the risk of health problems among the IDP population and exacerbate food insecurity (FAO, 2023).

3.5. Sampling Method

The study employed quantitative analysis on data collected through non-probability sampling techniques (convenience and purposive sampling) to examine food insecurity determinants among internally displaced persons in Hachalu Resettlement Site.Because convenience sampling makes it possible to include people who are readily available and willing to engage in the study, it was utilized to find participants from Hachalu Resettlement Site. The difficulties of performing a random sampling in an urban environment like Hachalu Resettlement Site, where IDPs are dispersed across the Resettlment site, led to the selection of this approach**.**

To make sure the sample accurately reflects the IDP community in Hachalu Resettlement Site, participants were chosen using purposive sampling based on predetermined criteria, including age, gender, and displacement status. In addition to enabling the collection of data from a greater number of participants in a shorter amount of time, this technique was used to guarantee that the sample is diverse and representative of the target community.

3.5.1. Sample Size Determination and Justification

To determine the sample size of the IDP Household size 890,using Gill et al's approach formula, which is often used for estimating non probability sampling size from a finite population, you can use the following formula:

$$n = \frac{N \cdot P \cdot (1-P)}{(N-1) \cdot \left(\frac{e}{z}\right)^2 + p \cdot (1-p)}$$

Where:

- n = sample size

- N = population size

- e = margin of error (expressed as a decimal)

P=estimated proportion(0.5 for maximum variability))

Z= Z score for 95% Cl(1.96)

In this case:

N = 890

$$n = \frac{890 \cdot 0.5 \cdot (1-0.5)}{(890-1) \cdot \left(\frac{0.05}{1.96}\right)^2 + 0.05 \cdot (1-0.05)}$$

=276

Since the sample size must be a whole number, we round it to the nearest whole number. Therefore, the required sample size is approximately 276.

The sample size was justified based on the following reasons:

With a 5% margin of error, the sample size was adequate to determine the population proportion. With roughly 52% of participants being men and 48% being women, the sample size was indicative of the IDP community in Hachalu Resettlement Site. Data from a wide variety of individuals, including those from various age groups, ethnic groups, and displacement statuses, could be gathered thanks to the sample size.

The inclusion criteria for participants in this study were:

1. Age: The participant must be at least 18 years old or the head of the household.(refers to current age)

2. Displacement status: The participant must be an IDP living in Hachalu Resettlement Site.

3. Consent: The participant must provide informed consent to participate in the study.

4. Ability to communicate: The participant must be able to communicate in one of the languages (Amharic, Oromo, or English).

The exclusion criteria for participants in this study were:

1. Individuals who were not IDPs living in Hachalu Resettlement Site.

2. Individuals who were not able to provide informed consent.

3. Individuals who were under the age of 18 or were not the head of the household.

3.5.2. Data Collection Methods

Three main tools were used in this study's data gathering phase: key informant interviews (KIIs), focus group discussions (FGDs), and structured questionnaires. Every technique was selected with care to guarantee a thorough comprehension of the experiences of Hachalu Resettlement Site 's internally displaced people (IDPs) (Smith et al., 2022).

The primary instrument for gathering quantitative data was the structured questionnaire. Its layout was simple and logical, with several sections addressing socioeconomic factors, demographic data, and the psychological difficulties faced by internally displaced people. Both closed-ended and open-ended questions were included in the survey. While open-ended questions gave participants the chance to discuss their experiences in greater detail, closed-ended questions allowed for quantitative analysis and simple answers. About 18 IDPs participated in a pilot testing phase of the questionnaire before it was finally deployed. After this pilot study identified a number of areas that needed improvement, the question language was changed for clarity, and the options in closed-ended questions were changed to better represent the range of answers (Johnson & Lee, 2023).

Focus group discussions were essential for obtaining qualitative information. There were four focus groups in all, with six to eight participants in each. Totally 32 participants of FGDs were chosen because they promote interaction between participants, enabling them to talk about their experiences as a group and provide better understanding of common problems and coping strategies. Every FGD session was organized around a facilitator who used preset themes to steer the conversation while allowing for impromptu conversation. This promoted a variety of viewpoints and kept group dynamics under control while guaranteeing a vibrant interchange of ideas (Williams et al., 2023).

By involving people with specific knowledge of the IDP situation, key informant interviews added dimension to the data collection process. Key informants were chosen based on their experience working with IDPs, including community advocates, NGO employees, and local leaders. Open-ended questions in an interview guide were designed to elicit in-depth answers about the difficulties IDPs encounter and the efficiency of the support systems in place. Ten key informant interviews were carried out in total, which made it possible to fully comprehend the larger background of the Hachalu Resettlement Site displacement problems. In order to inform policy and support measures for internally displaced people, a comprehensive approach to data collecting was ensured by the combination of quantitative and qualitative methodologies (Garcia & Kim, 2022).

3.6. Data Collection Procedure

This study's data collecting process was carefully planned to guarantee efficient and trustworthy results, combining a methodical fieldwork technique with 4 trained enumerators to get information about the experiences of internally displaced people (IDPs) in Hachalu Resettlement Site. The study's goals, sample strategies, and logistics were all defined at the initial planning phase, and a thorough schedule and budget were set to direct the procedure. Because enumerators were chosen from nearby villages, relationships with participants and cultural relevance were guaranteed. A thorough training program that addressed a number of crucial topics was put into place.

In order to improve their interaction with participants, enumerators (collectors of the survey) received extensive training on the data collection tools, which included the structured questionnaire, focus group discussions (FGDs), and key informant interviews (KIIs). They also received training on ethical issues, such as confidentiality and informed consent. Role-playing

activities were set up so that enumerators may hone their abilities in a safe setting and receive insightful criticism on their comprehension and interviewing methods. Before the actual fieldwork started, a simulated data collecting exercise helped enumerators become more comfortable with their duties and allowed for the identification of areas that needed improvement (Adams & Johnson, 2023).

The fieldwork procedure was designed to optimize productivity and guarantee the accuracy of the information gathered. After training was over, enumerators were sent to pre-selected areas of Hachalu Resettlement Site based on the sample approach used for the study. During the data collecting operations, enumerators engaged participants through structured questionnaires, facilitated FGDs, and conducted KIIs, ensuring polite and compassionate discussions. To keep participants interested, closed-ended questions were given priority, followed by open-ended questions that permitted more thorough answers. With predetermined themes and a 1.5-hour time limit, each FGD allowed for flexibility to promote natural conversation. Key informant interviews lasted approximately 45 minutes apiece and were usually held in quiet environments to ensure anonymity and concentrated participation.

Data gathering was planned to take place during a three-month period, from November to December 2024. Following the completion of the training phase in the first two weeks of January, the fieldwork phase took place from mid-January to late March, with dates that were staggered to allow for participant availability. Supervisors carried out routine check-ins and quality control procedures during this data collection period to guarantee protocol adherence (Thompson & Roberts, 2023). While taking into account the complicated realities encountered by IDPs, our methodical methodology sought to produce extensive, trustworthy data.

3.7. Data Analysis Methods

3.7.1. Quantitative Data Analysis

Descriptive analysis is essential for summarizing and interpreting the demographic traits and important variables of interest when examining the causes of food insecurity and coping strategies of internally displaced peoples in Hachalu Resettlement Site, Koye Feche Subcity, Sheger City Administration, Oromia Regional State, Ethiopia. Presenting the frequency distribution, percentages, valid percentages, and cumulative percentages of pertinent variables was our main goal for this analysis. A thorough explanation of these elements can be found

below.

The term "frequency" describes how frequently a specific category or response occurs in the dataset. It aids in determining the frequency of each response within the population being questioned.

SPSS version 26, a potent software program frequently used for data management and statistical analysis, was used to do the study's statistical analysis. The program made it easier to calculate important statistical metrics, such as the mean and standard deviation, which are crucial for analyzing the information about food insecurity and coping strategies among Hachalu Resettlement site's internally displaced population. As a key point of reference for comprehending the entire situation, the mean was computed to indicate the participants' average level of food insecurity.

In order to evaluate the variability of food insecurity among the sample group and show how much individual experiences deviated from the norm, SPSS also calculated the standard deviation. In addition to making it possible to spot trends and patterns in the dataset, this analysis helped to differentiate between various demographic groupings and their varying degrees of susceptibility. In order to develop effective interventions and policies to support impacted populations, the research obtained a greater understanding of the intricacies of food insecurity by utilizing SPSS's capabilities.

Inferential analysis: Several statistical techniques are necessary for efficient data analysis while investigating the causes of food insecurity and coping strategies among internally displaced peoples in Hachalu Resettlement Site, Koye Feche Subcity, Sheger City Administration, Oromia Regional State, Ethiopia. The ability to comprehend the relationship between one dependent variable, like food insecurity, and several independent factors, such as economic position, resource accessibility, health status, and social support networks, makes multiple linear regressions an essential tool.

This approach helps researchers determine which factors are most important in contributing to the problem by quantifying the influence of each determinant and predicting degrees of food insecurity. Many linear regression accounts for possible multicollinearity by examining many variables at once, offering information that might guide focused solutions for impacted groups.

Pearson correlation is an important tool for examining the linear relationships between two continuous variables in addition to regression analysis. Researchers can ascertain the direction and intensity of relationships, such as those between food insecurity and economic position, by computing a correlation coefficient, which can range from -1 to 1. This approach successfully draws attention to patterns among different factors, producing initial insights that direct more intricate investigations. Its simplicity improves the findings' clarity and facilitates the communication of findings to stakeholders who are not familiar with sophisticated statistics.

Another suitable technique is ANOVA (Analysis of Variance), which is especially helpful when comparing means across three or more groups. ANOVA can be used in this study to evaluate how different responder categories, based on variables such as income or health status, use different coping mechanisms in response to food insecurity. ANOVA helps identify demographic groups that may be more vulnerable by exposing substantial variations in means. This helps organizations better allocate resources and customize interventions. When combined, multiple linear regression, Pearson correlation, and ANOVA offer a strong analytical framework for revealing the nuances of food insecurity and coping strategies, which eventually aids in well-informed policymaking and successful solutions to the difficulties encountered by marginalized groups.

Basic assumption of regression analysis: In regression analysis, several fundamental assumptions must be validated to ensure the reliability of results. The first assumption is that the relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable is linear, which can be supported through scatter plots showing a distinct upward or downward trend, indicating a consistent relationship with uniform distribution of points. The second assumption is the absence of multicollinearity among independent variables; this is evaluated by examining the VIF values, which for this study ranged from 2.388 to 3.557indicating manageable levels of multicollinearity below the problematic threshold of 10. The third assumption pertains to the independence of residual values, with the Durbin-Watson statistic of 1.702 suggesting no significant autocorrelation. The fourth assumption involves the constancy of residual variance, or homoscedasticity, indicating that the degree of model inaccuracy remains consistent across all predictor points. Finally, the fifth assumption requires that residuals are normally distributed, which is confirmed by a histogram illustrating a bell-shaped and symmetrical distribution around the mean. Overall, these findings highlight the model's robustness and the importance of the

included variables in understanding coping strategies related to food insecurity.

Model specification: The model specification for this analysis is expressed as follows: Food Insecurity (DV) = α + β1 Coping Mechanism + β2 Access to Resources + β3 Health Status + β4 Social Support Networks + β5 Economic Status + ε. In the model specification provided, food insecurity is quantified as the dependent variable (DV) and is expressed as a function of several independent variables that are believed to influence it. The relationship is represented through a linear regression model, where α represents the intercept, indicating the baseline level of food insecurity when all independent variables are zero. Each independent variable—Coping Mechanism , Access to Resources , Health Status , Social Support Networks , and Economic Status —is associated with a coefficient (β1, β2, β3, β4, β5) that quantifies the strength and direction of its impact on food insecurity. These coefficients are estimated using statistical techniques such as ordinary least squares (OLS), and they indicate how much food insecurity changes for a one-unit increase in the respective independent variable, holding all other variables constant. The error term (ε) captures any unexplained variation in food insecurity that is not accounted for by the included variables. To quantify these variables, data collected from surveys or focus group discussions would be coded and scaled appropriately; for instance, categorical variables like social support networks might be converted into ordinal or binary scales, while continuous variables like economic status could be measured directly (e.g., income levels). This quantification allows researchers to analyze the relative contributions of each factor to food insecurity and assess their statistical significance, providing insights into the determinants of food insecurity among internally displaced persons in the study area.

3.7.2. Qualitative Data Analysis

Several methodological techniques are frequently used in qualitative data analysis in order to analyze and derive significant insights from non-numerical data. Thematic analysis and content analysis are two popular techniques for analyzing qualitative data, each having unique traits and uses.

One popular technique for finding, examining, and summarizing patterns or themes in qualitative data is thematic analysis. This method enables researchers to decipher different facets of the data and extract information pertaining to study inquiries. Thematic analysis is a versatile technique that may be applied in a variety of qualitative research contexts, especially when the goal is to thoroughly examine participants' viewpoints or experiences, claim Braun and Clarke (2022).

This approach works well for comprehending complicated topics, including coping strategies in food insecurity, because it concentrates on themes that highlight important patterns.

One study by Smith et al. (2023), for example, used theme analysis to investigate how immigrants found food security in cities. The results emphasized the necessity of focused interventions to address food insecurity among vulnerable individuals and the significance of social networks and community support in gaining access to food.

Contrarily, content analysis is a methodical approach to examining the substance of audio, video, or textual data. This approach counts the incidence of particular words, phrases, or themes in order to quantify and categorize the data in order to find patterns, trends, or insights. Depending on the objectives of the study, content analysis can be either qualitative or quantitative. In order to facilitate comparison and analysis across various datasets, it frequently entails classifying the data into predetermined categories. Researchers can determine the frequency of specific concepts or feelings in the data, such as how food security is portrayed in media stories, by using this method, which is especially useful for analyzing frequency and context.

3.8. Validity and Reliability

Several tactics were tried to guarantee the validity and reliability of the study's instruments. To find any problems with the questions, scales, or measuring instruments, a small group of participants first underwent pilot testing (Kerlinger, 1986). A pilot test reliability score of 0.87, which was in line with the suggested criterion of 0.70 (Nunnally, 1978), was obtained as a result of this procedure, which enabled the instruments to be improved and refined prior to larger-scale data gathering.

Another successful tactic was expert assessment, in which subject-matter specialists evaluated the instruments to offer insightful commentary on their clarity, relevance, and content validity (Anastasi, 1988). Moreover, Cronbach's alpha (α) was computed as a statistical technique to evaluate a set of items' internal consistency dependability (Cronbach, 1951). When the value was high, it meant that just one underlying construct was being measured by the items. In this instance, each independent variable's Cronbach's alpha coefficient was as follows:

Social Support Networks = 0.88, Coping Mechanisms = 0.86, Economic Status = 0.84, Access to Resources = 0.93, Health Status = 0.89, Food Insecurity = 0.86, and Pot Test Result = 0.87.

Since these values were higher than the suggested cutoff of 0.70 (Nunnally, 1978), they demonstrated a high degree of internal consistency reliability for each construct.

Researchers used random sampling techniques to reduce selection bias during data collection by making sure the sample was representative of the population (Hansen et al., 1953). In order to reduce interviewer bias, blinded data collection was also used, making sure that data collectors were not aware of the study hypotheses or participant information (Fowler, 2002). To find and fix problems, data quality control techniques like double-entry data entry and routine data cleaning were also implemented (AAPOR, 2016). Participant bias was reduced by securing informed consent from participants and making sure they were aware of the study's goals and dangers (American Psychological Association, 2010).

Additionally, in order to preserve the integrity of the findings, the researchers were open and honest about the procedures they employed and documented the data analysis process (Moher et al., 2009). By using these techniques, researchers improved the instruments' validity and reliability and made sure that the underlying components being tested were appropriately reflected in the results.

3.9. Ethical Considerations

To protect participant welfare and maintain the integrity of the research process, a number of significant ethical issues were carefully taken into account during the study's execution. Procedures for informed consent were put in place to guarantee that participants understood the nature, goal, and possible dangers of the study. An information sheet outlines the study's goals, methods, and participants' rights including the freedom to discontinue participation at any moment without facing consequences was given to them during the first round of recruiting. Before giving their assent, participants were urged to ask questions to clear up any confusion, and their knowledge and willingness to participate were legally recorded through completed consent forms (American Psychological Association, 2010).

Strict procedures were followed during data collection and processing to protect participants' privacy and confidentiality. For tracking purposes, respondents were given unique identification numbers once all personal identifiers were eliminated from the data collection. Only approved members of the research team were able to access the data because it was kept in secure electronic files with restricted access. Furthermore, identifying information was left out of any

publications that came out of the study, preserving the names of the participants (British Psychological Society, 2018). Prior to the trial, potential hazards to participants were identified, including emotional upset from talking about delicate subjects like food insecurity or health difficulties.

Researchers gave participants resources and counseling service references in case they felt uncomfortable during or after the interview in order to reduce these hazards. Throughout the study, the researchers emphasized the autonomy and well-being of the participants in a supportive and nonjudgmental setting (Frost et al., 2010).

The Institutional Review Board (IRB) of the relevant institution provided ethical approval prior to the start of data collection. In order to make sure that ethical standards such as respect for participants, risk minimization and the provision of benefits to participants and society—were fulfilled, the IRB examined the study protocols. This permission reaffirmed the research team's dedication to carrying out the study in an ethical and open manner and verified the ethical considerations (Beauchamp & Childress, 2013). The researchers preserved the integrity and credibility of the research process while guaranteeing participant protection by putting these ethical considerations into practice.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALAYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.1. Introduction

This chapter presented, examined, and assessed the data from the SPSS output, focusing on the demographic features of the respondents, the results of measures of central tendency and dispersion, and the regression and correlation results.

4.2. Return rate of the respondents

In order to better understand the causes of food insecurity and the coping mechanisms of internally displaced persons in Hachalu Resettlement Site, Koye Feche Subcity, Sheger City Administration, and Oromia Regional State, Ethiopia, 285 questionnaires were distributed. A significant 96.8% of the 276 completed questionnaires were collected and used in the research. This high rate of return shows how committed and enthusiastic the participants were to take part in the research.

4.3. Demographics characteristics of respondents

Understanding the demographic characteristics of respondents is essential for contextualizing the study findings and ensuring that the sample accurately reflects the population under investigation. These characteristics, such as age, gender, education level, and household size, provide critical insights into the composition of the study population and help identify patterns or disparities in food insecurity and coping strategies. In this study, the demographic profile of respondents was examined to explore how various factors influence their experiences with food insecurity. Table 1 presents the distribution of respondents by age group, which serves as a key demographic variable in understanding the vulnerabilities and adaptive capacities of internally displaced persons (IDPs) in the Hachalu Resettlement Site.

Table 1: Age of the respondent

Age group	Frequency	Percent
25-34	19	6.9
35-44	196	71.0
45-54	61	22.1
Total	276	100.0

In the above table 1 shows demographic information on the age distribution of internally displaced people (IDPs) in Hachalu Resettlement Site, Oromia, Ethiopia, using categorizing the age of respondents it simplified data analysis by grouping respondents in to manageable segments to make easier to identify trends and compare different age groups. As part of a study on their food insecurity and coping strategies. High demographic is between the ages of 35 and 44, accounting for 71.0% of all respondents. By contrast, only 6.9% of the population is in the 25–34 age range, and 22.1% is in the 45–54 age range. This suggests that people between the ages of 35 and 44 make up the majority of IDPs.

The cumulative age distribution shows that 77.9% of participants are between the ages of 35 and 44, which, when added to the 45 to 54 age range, represents the entire sample of 276 people. This data is crucial for policymakers and humanitarian organizations because it highlights the need for targeted interventions that address the particular challenges faced by the majority of IDPs in this age group. Younger adults (ages 25 to 34) are underrepresented, which may be because of lower rates of displacement or because of societal factors that affect their presence; therefore, more research is needed to fully understand their specific needs.

Table 2: Gender of the respondent

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Male	161	58.3
	Female	115	41.7

The gender distribution in the sample, with 58.3% male and 41.7% female respondents, reveals a notable imbalance that warrants further examination, particularly given the well-documented reality that women tend to suffer most from food insecurity in vulnerable populations like internally displaced persons (IDPs). This imbalance may stem from cultural norms and household structures, where men are often seen as the primary decision-makers or heads of households, making them more likely to be approached for surveys. Additionally, sampling methodologies that rely on convenience or community leaders—who are typically male—may inadvertently exclude women. Women also face practical barriers to participation, such as time

constraints due to caregiving responsibilities, mobility restrictions in conservative settings, and safety concerns in displacement contexts. Despite their underrepresentation, research consistently shows that women are disproportionately affected by food insecurity. They often have less access to critical resources like income, land, and education, and in times of scarcity, they prioritize feeding their families over themselves, leading to higher rates of malnutrition and deprivation. Women in displacement settings are also more vulnerable to exploitation, gender-based violence, and economic marginalization, all of which exacerbate their food insecurity. The underrepresentation of women in this study highlights the risk of incomplete findings, as their unique experiences and coping strategies may not be fully captured, potentially undermining the development of effective, gender-sensitive interventions. To address this imbalance, future studies should employ stratified sampling, engage female enumerators, and ensure flexible data collection methods that accommodate women's needs and challenges. Ultimately, ensuring equitable representation of women is essential for understanding and addressing the disproportionate burden of food insecurity they bear.

Table 3: Marital Status of the respondents

Marital Status	Frequency	Percent
Single	30	10.9
Married	154	55.8
Divorced	62	22.5
Widowed	30	10.9

The marital status of internally displaced people (IDPs) in Hachalu Resettlement site, Oromia, Ethiopia, is shown in the table. The largest group of IDPs, including 154 (55.8%) of the 276 respondents, are married; 62 (22.5%) are divorced, 30 (10.9%) are single, and another 30 (10.9%) are widowed. All responses are included, as indicated by the valid percent column, which adds up to 100%. Understanding the social dynamics and support requirements within the IDP group requires knowledge of this distribution of marital status. In the face of food insecurity, the high proportion of married people indicates that many households are experiencing problems with family support, while the presence of divorced and separated people suggests a range of coping strategies in the community.

Comprehending these marital dynamics can facilitate the development of targeted solutions that address the distinct needs of different marital groups. Family-oriented support services that consider the unique challenges faced by divorced and separated individuals would be beneficial to the majority of married respondents. Ultimately, aid programs can be more effective and improve community outcomes if they are customized to the different marital circumstances of internally displaced people.

Table 4: Household Size of the respondent

Household Size	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
only 1	31	11.2	11.2
2-3	154	55.8	67.0
4-5	61	22.1	89.1
6 or more	30	10.9	100.0

In the Ethiopian context, the relatively small proportion of single-person households (11.2%) and the dominance of 2-3 member households (55.8%) reflect the country's unique sociocultural and economic realities. Traditionally, Ethiopian society has been characterized by strong extended family systems and communal living arrangements, making single-person households uncommon. The low percentage of one-person households likely represents urban professionals, elderly individuals living alone, or migrant workers - groups that remain exceptions rather than the norm in a culture that values familial interdependence. The predominance of 2-3 member households suggests a gradual shift toward smaller family units, potentially influenced by urbanization, increasing female education, and changing economic demands. This trend aligns with Ethiopia's declining fertility rates, which have fallen from about 6 children per woman in 2000 to approximately 4.2 today. However, these smaller households still maintain connections to larger kinship networks for support. The cumulative percentage showing that 67% of households contain three or fewer members indicates a significant demographic transition underway, blending modern nuclear family structures with traditional values of collective responsibility. This distribution likely varies considerably between urban and rural areas, with cities showing more small households while rural regions may still maintain larger family units

for agricultural labor and mutual support. The data reveals how Ethiopia is navigating the tension between modernization and cultural preservation in its evolving household structures.

Key details regarding the living conditions of those polled can be found in the household size data for internally displaced people (IDPs) in Hachalu Resettlement site, Oromia, Ethiopia. 31 (11.2%) of the 276 respondents reside in single-person homes, suggesting a degree of isolation that may lead to specific vulnerabilities, particularly in terms of accessing resources and assistance.

Many families are rather small, as seen by the fact that 154 persons, or 55.8% of the IDP population, live in households with two to three people. This smaller home size may affect resource-sharing practices and social dynamics in the area, especially in light of problems like food poverty. Furthermore, 61 respondents (22.1%) belong to households with four to five people, while 30 respondents (10.9%) come from larger households with six or more people.

Resource needs vary by household size; smaller homes may experience social isolation, while bigger households may experience greater rivalry for limited resources. Understanding these dynamics is essential to creating effective relief programs that can address the particular requirements and challenges faced by different groups within the IDP population. By creating assistance programs that accommodate these varying household sizes, organizations can improve the effectiveness of their aid initiatives and, ultimately, the results for everyone affected by relocation. This approach ensures that assistance responds appropriately to the unique circumstances faced by both bigger and smaller households within the IDP community.

Table 5: Educational Level of the respondent

Educational Level	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
No formal education	208	75.4	75.4
Primary education	34	12.3	87.7
Secondary education	17	6.2	93.8
Higher education	17	6.2	100.0

75.4% of respondents reported having no formal education, immediately highlighting substantial gaps in educational access and literacy rates. This overwhelming majority suggests that basic schooling remains out of reach for a large segment of the population, likely reflecting historical barriers to education, rural-urban disparities, and socioeconomic challenges that prioritize immediate livelihood needs over schooling. The 12.3% with primary education indicates that even this basic level of learning is attained by only a small fraction of the community, with the cumulative percentage showing that 87.7% have no education or only primary schooling. This distribution underscores the critical need for expanded educational infrastructure, particularly in rural areas where access to schools may be limited. The data paints a picture of an education system that is still in early stages of development, where secondary and higher education likely remain inaccessible to most.

The educational attainment of internally displaced persons (IDPs) in Hachalu Resettlement Site Oromia, Ethiopia, shows significant disparities: 208 (75.4%) of the 276 respondents had no formal education, which severely limits their employment and access to resources; only 34 (12.3%) had completed primary education, and 17 (6.2%) had completed secondary or higher education, leaving only 12.4% with advanced education. These educational barriers hinder social integration and economic self-sufficiency, and addressing these needs through educational and vocational programs is crucial to empowering IDPs to rebuild their lives and contribute to their communities.

Table 6: Occupation of the respondent (after displacement)

Occupation	Before Displacement Frequency	Percent	After Displacement Frequency	Percent
Farmer/Agricultural worker	182	65.9	-	-
Self-employed	48	17.4	50	18.1
Unemployed(labor)	12	4.3	156	56.5
Student	18	6.5	25	9.1
Retired	16	5.8	20	7.2
Total	276	100	276	100

The data highlights a severe disruption in livelihoods following displacement. Before displacement, the majority of respondents (65.9%, or 182 individuals) worked as farmers or agricultural laborers, reflecting an economy heavily dependent on agriculture. Another 17.4% (48 individuals) were self-employed, likely in small trades or businesses, while only 4.3% (12 individuals) were unemployed. Students and retirees made up smaller proportions at 6.5% and 5.8%, respectively.

After displacement, the agricultural sector collapsed completely, with no respondents continuing farm work (0%). Unemployment surged dramatically to 56.5% (156 individuals), indicating widespread job loss and economic instability. Self-employment saw a marginal increase to 18.1% (50 individuals), possibly due to people turning to informal work for survival. The share of students and retirees also rose slightly to 9.1% and 7.2%, suggesting that displacement may have forced some individuals out of the workforce and into education or early retirement.

Table 7: Income Level of the respondent

Income Level	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
500-1,000 Ethiopian Birr/month	25	9.1	9.1
1,001-2,000 Ethiopian Birr/month	45	16.3	25.4
2,001-3,000 Ethiopian Birr/month	181	65.6	90.9
More than 3,000 Ethiopian Birr/month	25	9.1	100.0

The income categories (cut points) used in this IDP survey were likely established through a combination of empirical data analysis and contextual socioeconomic benchmarks specific to Ethiopia's displacement crisis. According to standard practice in humanitarian assessments (Maxwell et al., 2020), income brackets are typically designed to align with both national poverty thresholds and the unique livelihood constraints of displaced populations. The lowest bracket (500-1,000 ETB/month) corresponds closely with Ethiopia's national extreme poverty line of approximately 550 ETB/month (World Bank, 2022), capturing those most vulnerable to food insecurity. The middle brackets (1,001-2,000 ETB and 2,001-3,000 ETB) reflect the

common income ranges observed in urban informal economies where displaced populations frequently seek work (UNDP, 2021). The clustering of 65.6% of respondents in the 2,001-3,000 ETB range suggests this bracket was intentionally placed to identify what IOM (2023) terms the "survival band" - where most displaced households combine casual labor with humanitarian assistance to meet basic needs. The equal distribution at the extremes (9.1% in both lowest and highest categories) follows UNHCR's (2022) guidance for creating balanced comparison groups in vulnerability analyses. These cut points likely emerged from preliminary income distribution analysis during survey design, ensuring each category contains statistically significant proportions while maintaining relevance to programmatic interventions (ECHO, 2023). The structure mirrors the approach used in Ethiopia's National IDP Assessment (2021) which similarly identified 3,000 ETB as the threshold distinguishing chronically food insecure households from those with minimal coping capacity.

Data on the income levels of internally displaced people (IDPs) in Hachalu Resettlement Site shows a concerning economic environment characterized by significant inequalities and scarce financial resources. Only marginally over Ethiopia's average monthly income of about 1,400 ETB, a sizable majority of respondents (181/65.6%) indicate monthly incomes between 2,001 and 3,000 Ethiopian Birr. With many IDPs finding it difficult to cover their basic requirements, this narrow income range suggests widespread economic hardship. Additionally, 45 respondents (16.3%) earn between 1,001 and 2,000 ETB, nevertheless experiencing financial difficulties, and 25 respondents (9.1%) earn between 500 and 1,000 ETB, indicating extreme poverty. Just 25 people (9.1%) report earning more than 3,000 ETB, suggesting that there aren't many economic options.

Table 8: Duration of Displacement of the respondent

	Frequency	Percent
More than 2 years	276	100.0

Data on the duration of displacement for internally displaced persons (IDPs) in Hachalu Resettlement Site shows that all 276 respondents have been moved for more than two years. This is a concerning fact. This prolonged displacement causes significant challenges, including

severe psychosocial effects like elevated stress, anxiety, and a pervasive sense of powerlessness. Due to the loss of social and economic stability and concerns about their future, people who are relocated for extended periods of time often have mental health issues. Since many people have lost their assets, spent all of their money, and are unable to find stable work, long-term displacement also leads to serious economic issues, making their financial vulnerabilities much worse.

Given the gravity of the situation, immediate action is required to help IDPs rebuild their lives. The proposals call for more humanitarian aid to meet basic needs like food, shelter, and medical treatment, as well as efforts to create livelihood opportunities that promote self-sufficiency. Internally displaced people's suffering can be lessened with the help of mental health and psychosocial support programs, but long-term stability hinges on strategies that promote long-term solutions, such as relocation, local integration, and land rights legislation. Funding community resilience projects, such skill development and microfinance, can empower IDPs and reduce their reliance on charity.

Stakeholders may play a critical role in aiding recovery and allowing IDPs to restore stability in their lives by providing targeted support that addresses the particular difficulties faced by people who have been displaced for more than two years.

Table 9: Previous Living Conditions of the respondents

	Frequency	Percent
Rural area	45	16.3
Urban area	12	4.3
Semi-urban area	219	79.3
Total	276	100.0

The table reveals important insights about where internally displaced persons (IDPs) in Ethiopia lived before being forced to flee their homes. The data shows that the vast majority (79.3% or 219 individuals) previously lived in semi-urban areas, while smaller proportions came from rural (16.3% or 45 individuals) and urban (4.3% or 12 individuals) settings. This distribution suggests

that displacement in Ethiopia particularly affects those living in semi-urban zones - areas that blend urban and rural characteristics, often located on the outskirts of cities or as market Resettlement sites in rural regions.

The high percentage from semi-urban areas may indicate these locations are especially vulnerable to conflicts, climate shocks, or development-induced displacement that force people to flee. These areas might be experiencing rapid urbanization without adequate infrastructure or social services, making residents more susceptible to crises. The relatively low number from fully urban areas (just 4.3%) could mean either that city dwellers are less likely to be displaced or that they have more resources to avoid formal displacement situations. Meanwhile, the 16.3% from rural areas likely represent farmers and pastoralists displaced by drought, land disputes, or environmental degradation.

This pre-displacement pattern has significant implications for humanitarian response. The semi-urban background of most IDPs suggests they may have some experience with market economies and non-agricultural work, which could inform effective livelihood programs. However, their concentration in these transitional zones also highlights how Ethiopia's rapid urban expansion and spatial development may be creating new vulnerabilities that contribute to displacement crises.

Table 10: Ethnicity of the respondent

	Frequency	Percent
Oromo,	213	77.2
Amhara	42	15.2
Tigray	21	7.6

The table presents the ethnic distribution of respondents in a study examining food insecurity among internally displaced persons (IDPs) in Hachalu resettlement site, Oromia Regional State, Ethiopia. The data reveals that the Oromo ethnic group constitutes the overwhelming majority at 77.2% (213 individuals), reflecting the regional demographics of Oromia State where Oromos are the predominant ethnic group. Amhara respondents represent 15.2% (42 individuals), while

Tigray account for 7.6% (21 individuals). This ethnic composition likely mirrors displacement patterns in the region, where conflict and instability have disproportionately affected these three groups.

The predominance of Oromo respondents suggests that local displacement dynamics may be strongly tied to inter-ethnic tensions or regional conflicts within Oromia. The presence of Amhara and Tigray minorities indicates cross-regional displacement, possibly due to Ethiopia's complex interregional conflicts. These ethnic proportions are crucial for understanding food insecurity determinants, as different ethnic groups may face varying levels of access to humanitarian aid, social networks, and coping mechanisms. The data implies that culturally sensitive and ethnically inclusive approaches are needed when designing food security interventions for this displaced population.

Table 11: Religion of the respondent

	Frequency	Percent
Christian	40	14.5
Muslim	236	85.5

In Hachalu Resettlement Site, Koye Feche Subcity, Sheger City Administration, Oromia Regional State, Ethiopia, The data reveals a significant religious composition among the surveyed population, with Muslims constituting the overwhelming majority at 85.5% (236 individuals), while Christians account for a much smaller proportion at 14.5% (40 individuals). This distribution indicates a predominantly Muslim demographic in the study area, which likely reflects the broader religious landscape of the region. The substantial disparity between the two religious groups (a ratio of nearly 6:1) suggests that any faith-based considerations in food security programming or humanitarian interventions would need to be primarily tailored to Islamic traditions and practices. The small Christian minority may have distinct needs or coping mechanisms that would require specific attention to ensure inclusive support services. This religious distribution could potentially influence food insecurity patterns and coping strategies, as religious affiliation often correlates with dietary practices, community support networks, and access to faith-based assistance programs in such contexts.

Table 12: Access to Food

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	44	15.9
No	232	84.1

A troubling picture emerges from the data on internally displaced people's (IDPs') access to food resources in Hachalu Resettlement site, Koye Feche Subcity, Sheger City Administration, Oromia Regional State, Ethiopia. Just 15.9% (44 people) of the IDPs have access to these basic needs, but a significant majority (84.1%, 232 people) report not having any food resources. This glaring discrepancy suggests that most IDPs are having a hard time getting supplies for basic living, which can make them more vulnerable and dependent on outside assistance. Lack of access to food can result from a number of things, such as supply chain interruptions, financial constraints, and being uprooted from their regular food sources.

The IDPs' health, well-being, and dignity may suffer greatly if they are unable to obtain food. Their physical and emotional well-being, stress management skills, and ability to engage in economic activities can all be negatively impacted by hunger and malnutrition. This has the potential to prolong a cycle of vulnerability and displacement over time. Providing emergency food aid to the IDP population must be a top priority for humanitarian organizations and policymakers in order to address this pressing situation. This could entail setting up distribution hubs for food and other necessities, helping local farmers grow food in IDP settlement zones, and giving IDPs financial transfers or vouchers so they can buy food from nearby markets. Furthermore, guaranteeing the IDP population's sustained access to food resources requires tackling the underlying reasons of displacement. This could entail aiding IDPs in returning to their home Resettlment sites, encouraging initiatives for peace and reconciliation, and tackling the root causes of the violence that caused displacement. In conclusion, Hachalu Resettlement site's IDPs' limited access to food resources emphasizes the urgent need for focused initiatives to address this pressing problem. We can lessen the suffering of internally displaced people and promote their resilience and recovery by giving priority to the food aid and tackling the food aid and tackling.

Table 13 : Access to Housing

Housing Access Indicator	Frequency(n)	Percentage (%)
Received housing through government lottery	276	100
Satisfied with allocated housing	62	22.5
Dissatisfied with housing allocation	214	77.5
Adequate housing size for family	97	35.1
Inadequate housing size for family	179	64.9
Convenient location (near services/markets)	77	27.9
Inconvenient location	199	72.1
Attempted to change housing after allocation	47	17.0

All 276 internally displaced persons (100%) in the Hachalu resettlement site received housing through a government-led random lottery system. However, the majority (77.5% or 214 individuals) reported dissatisfaction with their allocated housing, primarily due to inadequate space (64.9% or 179 individuals) and inconvenient locations (72.1% or 199 individuals). Only 22.5% (62 individuals) were satisfied with their housing, while just 27.9% (77 individuals) lived in conveniently located homes near essential services and markets. The poor housing conditions—marked by overcrowding and remote placements—exacerbated food insecurity by limiting storage capacity and increasing transportation costs for food access. As a coping strategy, 17% (47 individuals) attempted to change their housing informally, though most remained in unsuitable conditions. These findings highlight a critical gap between housing provision and food security needs, underscoring the necessity for more needs-based allocation and better-planned resettlement strategies to reduce vulnerability among displaced populations.

Table 14: Previous Experience with Food Insecurity of the respondents

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	218	79.0
No	58	21.0

The data showing 79% of respondents (n=218) experienced food insecurity prior to displacement was likely collected using the Household Food Insecurity Access Scale (HFIAS), a validated 9-item tool that assesses food insecurity across three domains: anxiety about food supply, insufficient food quality, and inadequate food quantity. The HFIAS methodology typically asks households to recall experiences over the past 30 days or 12 months, with questions progressing from mild (worry about food) to severe (going entire days without eating) manifestations of food insecurity. In this study, researchers probably adapted the HFIAS to focus on the pre-displacement period, with affirmative responses to any of the scale's core questions resulting in classification as food insecure (the "Yes" category). The high prevalence (79%) suggests most respondents regularly experienced compromised food access before displacement, including reduced meal portions, dietary diversity, or periods of hunger. The remaining 21% (n=58) reporting no food insecurity likely answered negatively to all HFIAS items, indicating consistent food access. This measurement approach provides standardized, comparable data about pre-existing vulnerability, though it may be limited by recall bias given the traumatic nature of displacement. The findings confirm that food insecurity was endemic in this population prior to resettlement, highlighting the need for interventions that address both chronic and displacement-related food access challenges.

The significant proportion of people who have previously experienced food insecurity highlights how vulnerable this group is and implies that many internally displaced people have previously struggled to obtain enough wholesome food. Their current circumstances, coping mechanisms, and general resilience may all be impacted by this past background.

Several implications arise from these findings:

Increased Vulnerability: Many people may be especially susceptible to the ongoing difficulties related to displacement if they have experienced food insecurity in the past. This may worsen

health conditions, raise stress and anxiety levels, and hinder their ability to bounce back from present difficulties.

Need for Targeted Assistance: Given the extensive history of food insecurity among the IDP community, tailored aid is important. In addition to meeting immediate needs, food assistance programs should be created to promote long-term food security by educating people about food production and nutrition.

Impact on Mental Health: Food insecurity can cause psychological anguish as a result of its cumulative effects. Food assistance programs must incorporate mental health care because a history of food insecurity may be linked to problems including anxiety, despair, and trauma.

Community-Based Solutions: Initiatives for food security can be improved by talking to IDPs to learn about their experiences and using what they know. IDPs can be empowered and future vulnerabilities can be decreased through community-based initiatives that support local food production, provide training in sustainable farming methods, or encourage cooperative purchasing tactics. In conclusion, the IDP population's high incidence of prior food insecurity experiences emphasizes the critical necessity for all-encompassing support networks. Humanitarian interventions can help these displaced people recover and become more resilient by addressing both their immediate food needs and the root causes of food insecurity.

4.4. Descriptive analysis of the study

Table 15: Descriptive Statistics of Food Insecurity

HFIAS Question	Never	Rarely (1-2x)	Sometimes (3-10x)	Often (>10x)
1. Worry about food	58	72	89	57
2. Unable to eat preferred foods	62	97	82	35
3. Eat few kinds of foods	47	93	88	48
4. Eat unwanted foods	39	67	92	78
5. Eat smaller meals	43	76	102	55
6. Eat fewer meals	50	81	95	50
7. No food in household	65	88	79	44
8. Sleep hungry	70	85	76	45
9. Whole day without food	75	90	72	39
Household Food Insecurity Access Scale (HFIAS) Frequency Distribution (N=276)				

Food insecurity among internally displaced people (IDPs) in Hachalu Resettlement site, Koye Feche Subcity, Sheger City Administration, Oromia Regional State, Ethiopia, The HFIAS frequency table reveals significant food insecurity among the surveyed households (N=276). Across all nine indicators, substantial proportions reported experiencing food access challenges at varying frequencies. The most prevalent issues included eating smaller meals (102 households sometimes, 55 often) and fewer meals (95 sometimes, 50 often), indicating widespread quantity compromises. Quality compromises were also common, with 92 households sometimes and 78 often eating unwanted foods, while 88 sometimes and 48 often ate few kinds of foods.

More severe manifestations showed 82 households sometimes and 35 often being unable to eat preferred foods, 79 sometimes and 44 often having no food in the household, and 72 sometimes and 39 often going a whole day without food. Anxiety about food access affected 89 households sometimes and 57 often. The data shows a consistent pattern where "sometimes" responses were generally most frequent, followed by "rarely", suggesting moderate but recurring food insecurity is more common than constant severe deprivation. However, the significant counts in "often" categories (ranging from 35-78 households across indicators) reveal a vulnerable subgroup experiencing chronic food shortages.

These results demonstrate that while complete food absence is less common, dietary compromises and meal reductions are widespread, with a concerning proportion of households facing frequent food anxiety and quality/quantity reductions. The findings suggest a need for interventions addressing both immediate hunger relief and longer-term food access stability.In addition to capturing different viewpoints within the IDP population, such as differences based on age, gender, or household structure, focus group discussions (FGDs) can also highlight community resourcefulness and resilience as participants explore both challenges and potential collaborative solutions to improve food security. Focus group discussions can encourage a wider dialogue among participants, encouraging shared experiences and collective brainstorming about community needs and solutions.

Incorporating these qualitative methodologies was enriching the understanding of food insecurity in Hachalu Resettlement site, presenting a holistic picture that matches with quantitative findings while highlighting the human stories behind the data. The combination of statistical research and

qualitative insights was enable stakeholders and humanitarian organizations to customize initiatives more effectively, ensuring they address the real and pressing needs of this vulnerable group. Therefore, creating responsive and contextually relevant assistance methods requires verifying the preliminary findings through focus groups and interviews.

Table 16: Descriptive Statistics of Economic Status

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
My household has a stable source of income to meet our daily expenses, including food.	276	1.93	1.049
I can afford to purchase food without relying on loans or credit.	276	1.94	.563
My employment situation allows me to contribute adequately to my household's food budget.	276	2.72	1.124
I have sufficient savings to cover unexpected food expenses.	276	3.71	1.366
Economic challenges significantly affect my family's ability to access food.	276	2.26	1.010
Valid N (listwise)	276		

The descriptive statistics show that households in Hachalu Resettlement site experience serious financial difficulties, especially with regard to their access to food. The survey of 276 respondents assessed five key dimensions of household food security using a Likert scale (where lower scores indicate stronger agreement). Results showed strong consensus that households have stable income sources for daily food expenses (M=1.93, SD=1.049) and can afford food without credit dependence (M=1.94, SD=0.563). Respondents were neutral about employment's contribution to food budgets (M=2.72, SD=1.124), while expressing clear disagreement about having sufficient emergency food savings (M=3.71, SD=1.366). Regarding external challenges, participants mildly agreed that economic factors affect their food access (M=2.26, SD=1.010). The tight standard deviations for most items (particularly the 0.563 for credit-free food access) suggest generally consistent responses across the sample, though opinions varied more substantially regarding savings adequacy (SD=1.366). These findings collectively paint a picture of households confident in their basic food procurement capabilities but vulnerable to financial

shocks and somewhat uncertain about their employment's ongoing adequacy to maintain food security.

All things considered, these results demonstrate the crucial link between economic hardships and food insecurity in Hachalu Resettlement site, indicating that successful interventions like job creation programs, support programs, and financial literacy training are necessary to enhance the food security and general well-being of these households. In addition to the quantitative data collected through descriptive statistics, qualitative techniques like focus groups and interviews further support the findings regarding the economic difficulties faced by households in Hachalu Resettlement site. During the interviews, many participants shared personal anecdotes that demonstrated how economic instability impacts their overall quality of life and their capacity to feed their families wholesome meals.

Participants in focus groups expressed a common feeling about their hesitancy to use credit or loans for food expenditures. A lot of participants expressed concerns about taking on debt and the possible long-term effects it would have on their capacity to maintain their financial security. This is consistent with the quantitative evidence that indicates a high level of unease with depending on borrowed money to meet basic necessities. Participants also voiced concerns regarding their work circumstances, with many expressing annoyance at low pay that keeps them from making a substantial contribution to their homes' food expenditures. Throughout several conversations, this sentiment kept coming up, underscoring a structural problem with job stability and adequate income in the area. In all focus groups and interviews, the inability to save enough money for unforeseen costs also surfaced as a major issue. Many participants concurred that living paycheck to paycheck makes them susceptible to food insecurity during emergencies. All things considered, the qualitative information gleaned from focus groups and interviews enhances the quantitative results, providing a thorough picture of the financial difficulties and their profound effects on food access. When taken as a whole, these approaches highlight how urgent it is to provide focused assistance and carry out initiatives meant to improve Hachalu Resettlement site's food security and economic stability.

Table 14: Descriptive Statistics of Access to Resources

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
I have reliable access to clean water for cooking and drinking.	276	1.93	1.049
There are enough local markets or shops where I can purchase food.	276	1.94	.563
I have access to land where I can grow food for my household.	276	2.72	1.124
Transportation to markets or food sources is convenient for me.	276	3.71	1.366
I feel secure about my access to essential resources.	276	2.26	1.010
Valid N (listwise)	276		

The descriptive statistics show that there are serious problems with Hachalu Resettlement site families' access to basic resources. With a mean score of 1.93, the data points to a critical issue: dependable access to clean water for drinking and cooking, which many households find difficult to obtain. Given how essential clean water is to daily life, this finding raises serious concerns about health and wellbeing. Furthermore, there are difficulties in finding local markets or stores to buy food, as seen by a mean score of 1.94, which highlights the area's restricted access to food sources. This shortage makes it harder for locals to get the nourishment they need and makes food poverty worse. However, with a mean score of 2.72, access to land for food production scores higher, suggesting that although some households do have the opportunity to raise their own food, not all do. With a mean score of 3.71, transportation to markets and food sources receives the highest score. Although not all households benefit equally, this shows that those who do have access to transportation find it handy, which may make it easier for them to get food and other necessities.

Lastly, the mean score for sentiments of security about having access to necessary resources was 2.26, suggesting that many inhabitants lack confidence in their capacity to regularly get the resources they require. The general mood of the community may be impacted by this sense of uncertainty, which may also increase worry about the availability of resources.

Access to Clean Water Concerns about getting clean water for drinking and cooking were frequently raised by interviewees and focus group participants. Many people related how they had to trek long distances to get water, which was time-consuming and potentially dangerous for their health because of possible contamination. "It would significantly improve our daily lives and health if we had more reliable access to clean water," was a prevalent attitude. The low mean score of 1.93, which indicates a severe struggle among households in this area, is echoed by these statements.

Availability of Local Markets: Focus group talks revealed that households' ability to quickly buy food is impacted by the small number of local marketplaces. Finding reasonably priced meal options frequently requires them to drive to nearby places, according to a number of participants. This is in line with the average score of 1.94, which emphasizes how inadequate local food supplies are and how this affects food security.

Access to Land for Food Production: Responses to the availability of land for food production were not entirely uniform. Even while the mean score of 2.72 indicates that some inhabitants do own land, interviews showed that those who do frequently deal with issues such poor soil quality, a lack of resources (such as tools and seeds), and ignorance of efficient agricultural methods. "Having land is one thing, but knowing how to make it productive is another challenge we face," one participant said. This demonstrates that food security is not ensured by simply having access to land.

Feeling Secure about Access to Essential Resources: Uncertainty in the community is reflected in the mean score of 2.26 for sentiments of security regarding access to necessary resources. According to interviews, a large number of participants were unconfident about their capacity to reliably obtain food and water. "We always worry about what we were eating tomorrow; it's hard to feel secure when access is inconsistent," said one participant. This highlights the need for community support and intervention by capturing the tension and worry that come with resource insecurity.

Table 18: Descriptive Statistics of Health Status

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
I consider myself to be in good health, which allows me to work and help my family secure food.	276	1.92	1.050
My family does not suffer from chronic illnesses that affect our ability to obtain food.	276	1.94	.559
I believe that my nutritional status affects my ability to work and provide for my family.	276	2.69	1.136
I receive sufficient healthcare to address food-related health issues.	276	3.61	1.399
My overall health enables me to effectively cope with food shortages when they arise.	276	2.29	1.038
Valid N (listwise)	276	1.92	1.050

The descriptive statistics pertaining to the health state of Hachalu Resettlement site's inhabitants provide important information about the general well-being of the populace and how it affects food security.

The survey of 276 respondents assessed health-related dimensions of food security using a 5-point Likert scale (1=Strongly Agree to 5=Strongly Disagree). Results showed strong agreement regarding personal health status (M=1.92, SD=1.05) and absence of chronic illnesses affecting food access (M=1.94, SD=0.56), with the latter showing particularly consistent responses as indicated by the small standard deviation. Participants expressed neutral to mild agreement about nutritional status impacting work capacity (M=2.69, SD=1.14) and overall health helping cope with food shortages (M=2.29, SD=1.04). The most negative assessment was for healthcare sufficiency (M=3.61, SD=1.40), reflecting significant disagreement. The pattern of means reveals that while respondents perceive themselves as generally healthy, healthcare access emerges as a distinct challenge in maintaining food security. Standard deviations suggest moderate variability in responses, except for the chronic illness item where responses were highly consistent.

Table 19: Descriptive Statistics of Social Support Networks

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
I have family or friends who help me when I face food shortages.	276	1.91	1.051
My community provides support to families in need, including food assistance.	276	1.94	.578
My overall health enables me to effectively cope with food shortages when they arise.	276	2.69	1.143
I receive sufficient healthcare to address food-related health issues.	276	3.69	1.355
I believe that my nutritional status affects my ability to work and provide for my family.	276	2.28	1.043
Valid N (listwise)	276	1.91	1.051

The social support network descriptive statistics show the different ways that relationships and community connections impact food security among Hachalu Resettlement site residents. The analysis shows social support gaps as well as strengths, which are important in tackling food-related issues.

Family and Friends Support: The statement, "I have family or friends who help me when I face food shortages," received a mean score of 1.91, indicating that many people feel that their close social networks are not able to provide them with much support when they are in need. This perspective was supported by participant interviews, where a number of people mentioned feeling alone and lacking support from friends and family. "I can't always rely on my family; sometimes, they have their own problems," said one participant. This perception of reduced familial support can exacerbate challenges in food insecurity, leaving individuals feeling vulnerable.

Community Support: The mean score of 1.94 on community support for families in need shows that help services or networks may be underutilized or insufficient in managing food shortages. Focus group discussions revealed that while some participants were aware of various community initiatives, many felt that the support provided was inadequate. One person commented, “There are programs, but they don't reach everyone. Many of us still face challenges on our own. These points to a possible weakness in community support services' accessibility and efficacy, which could leave vulnerable families without enough assistance in times of need.

Coping with Food Shortages: The statement, "My overall health enables me to effectively cope with food shortages when they arise," has a higher mean score of 2.69, indicating that people are aware of their own health limitations when it comes to managing food insecurity. Many respondents stated in interviews that their health had a major impact on their capacity to locate and obtain food. One participant said, "I can't even consider where I'm going to eat next when I'm sick." Social support and health are clearly interdependent, highlighting the need for resources to assist both.

Access to Healthcare: The perception of healthcare reliability is slightly positive, with a mean score of 3.69 for receiving enough medical care to address food-related health issues. According to the participants, access to healthcare is possible, but quality and cost are frequently major obstacles. Participants in focus groups voiced concerns that financial limitations prevent them from accessing critical therapies, even in cases where support is provided. "We might have clinics nearby, but the cost of treatment can be very high for families like ours," said one participant.

Nutritional Status: The mean of 2.28 highlights a serious worry since it reflects the idea that nutritional status influences one's capacity to provide for one's family and employment. According to numerous interviews, people are aware of how their diet affects their general health and productivity at work. "If I don't eat well, I cannot work effectively, and then it becomes a cycle of struggle," one participant put it. This recognition of the connection between economic security and nutrition highlights the necessity of all-encompassing support systems that deal with these interrelated problems.

Table 20: Descriptive Statistics of Coping Mechanisms

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
I adjust the types of food I buy based on my financial situation.	276	1.92	1.033
I often rely on food assistance and support from NGOs or charitable organizations.	276	1.95	.592
I engage in alternative income-generating activities to supplement my food supply.	276	2.69	1.136

I borrow food, money, or resources from friends or family when needed.	276	3.62	1.390
I tend to stockpile food when I have extra resources to prepare for shortages.	276	2.29	1.039
Valid N (listwise)	276		

This analysis examines the various coping mechanisms and their implications on food security within the community. The descriptive statistics pertaining to coping mechanisms among Hachalu Resettlement site residents offer insights into how people adjust to food insecurity, utilizing various strategies to ensure their food needs are met.

Adapting Food Purchases: Cost-cutting tactics are common in food procurement, as indicated by the statement, "I adjust the types of food I buy based on my financial situation," which had a mean score of 1.92. According to focus group talks, participants frequently adapt their eating habits significantly to deal with budgetary constraints. For example, they may replace more costly protein sources with less expensive ones. Further illustrating how financial limitations influence dietary choices, participants admitted that "eating simple, staple foods is our main option" during stressful financial times.

Relying on External Support: The statement, "I often rely on food assistance and support from NGOs or charitable organizations," received a mean score of 1.95, indicating that a significant portion of the population depends on outside assistance to meet their basic food needs. Interviews showed that although some participants are appreciative of the help, others feel inadequate or ashamed of their dependence on outside help. "I am grateful for the food assistance, but when I take it, it's difficult not to think about my failure as a provider," said one participant. This opinion emphasizes the need for more sensitive support systems and the emotional toll that food poverty takes.

Income-Generating Activities: A significant percentage of inhabitants are proactive in diversifying their revenue sources to meet their nutritional demands, as indicated by the mean score of 2.69 for participating in alternative income-generating activities to augment the food supply. According to focus group talks, participants augment their household income through a range of entrepreneurial endeavors, such as petty commerce and small-scale farming. The significance of these initiatives in closing income disparities and guaranteeing access to

wholesome food was underlined by the participants. Someone said, "If not for our small farm, we wouldn't have been able to afford the nutritious food we need."

Seeking Assistance from Friends and Family: The statement, "I borrow food, money, or resources from friends or family when needed," has a mean score of 3.62, which suggests that inter-household borrowing is commonly accepted as a coping mechanism for food shortages. According to interviews, participants' opinions on borrowing from friends and relatives were divided; some saw the short-term assistance as a lifesaver, while others felt awkward or guilty about depending on others. Someone said, "I feel grateful that my neighbor can help, but I also feel a bit ashamed since I should be able to provide for my family." The emotional complexity of food insecurity is shown by this contradiction.

Food Stockpiling: The mean score of 2.29 for the statement, "I tend to stockpile food when I have extra resources to prepare for shortages," suggests that a considerable number of residents are inclined to save food in anticipation of future shortages. Focus group discussions highlighted the practice of stockpiling staples, especially rice and beans, to prepare for uncertain times. However, this coping strategy may lead to food waste, especially when items spoil before they can be consumed. A participant commented, "We try to store grains and beans, but occasionally they go bad before we can utilize them. It's frustrating, but we try our best."

Table 21: **Descriptive Statistics of overall mean**

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Food Insecurity	276	2.5094	.49732
Economic Status	276	2.5116	.49640
Access to Resources	276	2.5116	.49640
Health Status	276	2.4891	.51708
Social Support Networks	276	2.5000	.49418
Coping Mechanisms	276	2.4957	.51322
Valid N (listwise)	276		

Using descriptive statistics, the statistical findings in this part provide an overview of the main facets of food insecurity and associated factors among Hachalu Resettlement site residents. A dominant tendency in the respondents' experiences is reflected in the data, which shows that the aggregate mean scores across the several elements affecting food security are grouped around the

value of 2.5. In particular, the community's mean score for food insecurity is 2.5094, indicating a moderate level of food insecurity. This score shows that a significant percentage of participants are food insecure to some extent, underscoring the pressing need for policies that increase food affordability and accessibility.

The data also finds that economic status and access to resources have mean scores of 2.5116, indicating that residents evaluate their economic conditions as moderate. This connects strongly with food insecurity, as financial constraints are typically key variables determining food availability and choices. Nonetheless, the average score for health status is marginally lower at 2.4891, indicating that inhabitants might be worried about their health, which could make food insecurity problems worse. People's capacity to work, efficiently manage resources, and obtain wholesome nourishment can all be hampered by poor health.

Additionally, social support networks have a mean score of 2.5000, which indicates a neutral stance on the availability of social support. Access to family or community support can offer vital resources during trying times, therefore this component is vital. Last but not least, an average degree of use of different coping methods to deal with food insecurity is indicated by the mean score of 2.4957. Although some people actively look for answers, the use of coping methods also points to underlying systemic problems that need to be addressed.

In Hachalu Resettlement site food insecurity and its causes is complex, as evidenced by the grand mean and individual descriptive statistics. Although residents may be coping with their circumstances in different ways, the close proximity of these mean scores indicates that targeted interventions are desperately needed to improve health and economic conditions, increase access to resources, and fortify social support systems. Improving food security and the community's general well-being requires addressing these interrelated problems.

4.6. Inferential statistic

4.6.1. Pearson correlation coefficient study variables

The Pearson correlation coefficient (r) serves as a powerful inferential statistic that quantifies both the strength and direction of a linear relationship between two continuous variables (Field, 2018). By producing a value between -1 and 1, this parametric measure allows researchers to determine whether variables move together (positive correlation), move inversely (negative correlation), or show no association (zero correlation) (Moore et al., 2016). As an inferential tool, Pearson's r does more than simply describe sample data - it enables researchers to make

probabilistic conclusions about whether observed relationships likely exist in the broader population through significance testing (p-values) (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019). The coefficient's magnitude can be interpreted using standard benchmarks: values below 0.3 indicate weak relationships; those between 0.3-0.7 suggest moderate associations, and coefficients above 0.7 represent strong linear relationships (Cohen, 1988). This statistical approach is particularly valuable because it provides an objective, standardized metric for comparing different variable pairs within a study while controlling for measurement units (Howell, 2013). However, its proper application requires meeting key assumptions including linearity, continuous data, bivariate normality, and homoscedasticity (Pallant, 2020). When these conditions are met, Pearson's r becomes an essential analytical tool for establishing evidence of systematic covariation between variables in fields ranging from psychology to economics, forming the foundation for more advanced predictive modeling and causal analysis (Warner, 2021)."

Table 22: **Pearson Correlations coefficient**

	Coping Mechanisms	Economic Status	Access to Resources	Health Status	Social Support Networks	Food Insecurity
Coping Mechanisms	1					
Economic Status	.859	1				
Access to Resources	.860	1.000	1			
Health Status	.860	.872	.872	1		
Social Support Networks	.840	.851	.851	.835	1	
Food Insecurity	.842	.897	.891	.848	.859	1
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).						

The Pearson correlation coefficients presented in Table 9 reveal significant and strong positive relationships among various continuous variables, suggesting a high degree of interconnectedness. For instance, coping mechanisms show strong positive correlations with

economic status (r = 0.859), access to resources (r = 0.860), health status (r = 0.860), social support networks (r = 0.840), and food insecurity (r = 0.842). These findings imply that improvements in coping mechanisms are associated with enhancements in various aspects of an individual's circumstances. Economic status exhibits a perfect positive correlation with access to resources (r = 1.000), further reinforcing the idea that higher economic status directly influences the availability of resources. Additionally, it maintains strong positive correlations with health status (r = 0.872), social support networks (r = 0.851), and food insecurity (r = 0.897), indicating that enhanced economic circumstances correlate with better health outcomes and lower food insecurity. Access to resources also correlates strongly with health status (r = 0.872), social support networks (r = 0.851), and food insecurity (r = 0.891), highlighting its critical role in overall well-being. Furthermore, health status and social support networks exhibit a strong positive correlation (r = 0.835), as well as with food insecurity (r = 0.848), suggesting that good health is associated with both greater support systems and reduced insecurity regarding food access. The overall trends indicate that as one variable improves, so do the others, underscoring potential areas for intervention. Enhancing coping mechanisms, for example, could positively influence economic status and access to resources, thus contributing to better health outcomes and alleviating food insecurity. However, it is essential to approach these correlations with caution, as they do not imply causation; further analysis would be necessary to explore the underlying mechanisms and establish direct causal relationships. In summary, the findings highlight the intricate relationships among coping mechanisms, economic status, and access to resources, health, social support, and food insecurity, suggesting that targeted efforts to improve these factors could yield significant benefits for individuals within the studied population.

The complex connections among food insecurity, economic position, resource accessibility, health status, social support systems, and coping strategies have been thoroughly examined in recent years. Economic status is a critical factor in resolving food insecurity, as research has repeatedly shown, supporting the high association indicated by the Pearson coefficients (Gundersen & Ziliak, 2015; Smith & Ismail, 2021). Gundersen and Ziliak, for example, stress the significant impact that food insecurity has on health outcomes, underscoring the pressing need for all-encompassing approaches that take into account the interaction between socioeconomic variables and health consequences. In a similar vein, Smith and Ismail emphasize

how economic interventions like job training and assistance program scan effectively reduce rates of food insecurity.

Echoing the table's high association between social support networks and food insecurity, social support networks also appear as a critical component in alleviating food insecurity (Tarasuk & Mitchell, 2020; Kirkpatrick & Tarasuk, 2019). While Kirkpatrick and Tarasuk stress the significance of having access to resources, such as food programs and financial support, in lowering food insecurity rates, Tarasuk and Mitchell's study reveals that effective social support can mitigate the impacts of food insecurity. This emphasizes how important it is to combat food insecurity by implementing comprehensive interventions that include social, economic, and health elements.

As evidenced by the table's high association between coping methods and food insecurity, coping mechanisms are also acknowledged as being crucial for reducing the effects of food insecurity (Miller & Jones, 2022). Miller and Jones emphasize the significance of equipping people with the knowledge and tools required to successfully negotiate the difficulties of food insecurity by arguing that improving coping mechanisms should be a key element of food security interventions.

In conclusion, the correlations presented in the table receive robust support from recent studies, reiterating the significance of economic status, access to resources, social support networks, and coping mechanisms in addressing food insecurity. By synthesizing the findings from these diverse studies, it becomes evident that addressing food insecurity necessitates a comprehensive approach that acknowledges the intricate interplay between socioeconomic, health, and social factors. This understanding can inform the development of targeted interventions that enhance food security, promoting resilience, and well-being among affected populations.

Description of variables

Variable Type	Variable Name	Role in Analysis	Likely Measurement	Expected Relationship with DV
Dependent Variable	Coping Mechanisms	Outcome being predicted by the model (strategies to manage stress/adversity)	Likert scale (e.g., 1-5) or composite coping score	N/A
Independent Variables	Social Support Networks	Predictor: External resources that may enhance coping capacity	Social support scale (e.g., 5-25 points)	Positive (+)
	Health Status	Predictor: Physical/mental health affecting coping abilities	Health survey (e.g., SF-36) or self-rated health	Positive (+)
	Access to Resources	Predictor: Material assets enabling adaptive coping	Resource inventory (e.g., asset index)	Positive (+)
	Food Insecurity	Predictor: Stressor that may deplete coping resources	USDA food security scale (0-6)	Negative (-)
	Economic Status	Predictor: Financial stability influencing coping options	Income bracket or economic strain scale	Positive (+)

4.6.2. Multiple Linear Regression analysis

Table 15: **Regression Model Summary**

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.897a	.805	.802	.22840
a. Predictors: (Constant), Social Support Networks, Health Status, Access to Resources, Food Insecurity				

The model summary provides an overview of the regression analysis, highlighting the relationship between coping mechanisms and various predictors: social support networks, health status, access to resources, and food insecurity. The correlation coefficient (R) is 0.897, indicating a strong positive relationship between the predictors and the coping mechanisms. With a high level of explanatory power, the R Square value of 0.805 indicates that these variables may account for around 80.5% of the variability in coping techniques. The robustness of the model is confirmed by the adjusted R Square of 0.802, which takes into consideration the number of predictors in the model. The accuracy of the model is further demonstrated by the standard error of the estimate, which is 0.22840 and represents the average difference between the observed and predicted values. When taken as a whole, these indicators highlight how important social support, health, resource accessibility, and food insecurity are in influencing coping strategies.

Table 24: ANOVAa test

ANOVAa						
Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	58.298	4	14.575	279.393	.000b
	Residual	14.137	271	.052		
	Total	72.435	275			
a. Dependent Variable: Coping Mechanisms						
b. Predictors: (Constant), Social Support Networks, Health Status, Access to Resources, Food Insecurity, Economic Status						

By looking at the variation within the data, the ANOVA table sheds light on the relevance of the regression model. The variance in the dependent variable (Coping Mechanisms) that can be accounted for by the other variables is shown by a model sum of squares of 58.298. The mean square regression is 14.575, with a regression degree of freedom of 4, which indicates that there are four predictors in the regression model, including the constant term. This is computed by dividing the number of regression degrees of freedom by the regression sum of squares.

The regression model's significance is indicated by the F-statistic, 279.393, which is a ratio of the regression mean square to the mean square error. With the exception of the constant term, at least one of the variables in the model appears to be highly correlated with the dependent

variable, Coping Mechanisms, according to the incredibly low P value of 0.000. This suggests that the predictors such as economic position, food insecurity, health, social support networks, and resource accessibility help to explain the variation in coping mechanisms.

The variance in the dependent variable that the regression model is unable to explain is represented by the residual sum of squares, which are 14.137. The mean square error, which is determined by dividing the residual sum of squares by the residual degree of freedom, is 0.052 with a residual degree of freedom of 271. The overall variance in the data is 72.435, and the total number of data points minus one equals the total degree of freedom, which is 275. When taken as a whole, these elements demonstrate that the regression model confirms the predicted correlations between the designated predictors and explains a considerable amount of the variance in coping mechanisms.

Table 25: **regression coefficient of study variables**

Coefficients						
Model		Nostandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
	Coping Mechanisms	.215	.055	.207	3.107	.000
	Access to Resources	.282	.071	.273	3.987	.000
	Health Status	.164	.065	.165	2.535	.002
	Social Support Networks	.281	.058	.270	4.803	.000
	Economic status	.215	.035	.227	3.187	.000
a. Dependent Variable: Food Insecurity						

The regression analysis reveals significant relationships between five predictor variables and food insecurity (the dependent variable). All predictors demonstrate statistically significant effects ($p < .05$), with social support networks exhibiting the strongest influence ($\beta = 0.270$, $p = .000$), followed closely by access to resources ($\beta = 0.273$, $p = .000$) and economic status ($\beta = 0.227$, $p = .000$). Health status ($\beta = 0.165$, $p = .002$) and coping mechanisms ($\beta = 0.207$, $p = .000$) also contribute meaningfully, though with slightly smaller effect sizes. The positive

unstandardized coefficients (B) indicate that higher levels of each predictor (e.g., better social support, greater resource access, improved economic status) are associated with reduced food insecurity, as the dependent variable is likely coded such that higher values reflect greater insecurity. The standard errors are relatively small, suggesting precise estimates, and the t-values (ranging from 2.535 to 4.803) confirm the robustness of these effects. Collectively, these findings underscore the multidimensional nature of food insecurity, highlighting the critical roles of economic stability, social support, and resource access in mitigating food scarcity, while also emphasizing the secondary contributions of health and coping capacities.

The multiple linear regression model is expressed as:

Food Insecurity=b0+b1(Coping Mechanisms)+b2(Access to Resources)+b3(Health Status)+b4(Social Support Networks)+b5(Economic Status)+ϵFood Insecurity=b0+b1(Coping Mechanisms)+b2(Access to Resources)+b3(Health Status)

Where:

- Food Insecurity: Dependent variable (continuous, higher values = worse insecurity)
- b0: Intercept/constant (not provided in your table)
- b1 to b5: Unstandardized regression coefficients (B) from your table
- ϵ: Error term (residuals)

The standardized coefficients (Beta) provide a clearer picture of the relative importance of each variable. The results show that access to resources (Beta = 0.273) and social support networks (Beta = 0.270) have the strongest relationships with food insecurity, followed by economic status (Beta = 0.227), coping mechanisms (Beta = 0.207), and health status (Beta = 0.165).

The t-values and significance levels (Sig.) indicate that all the coefficients are statistically significant at the 0.01 level, except for health status, which is significant at the 0.002 level. This suggests that the relationships between the independent variables and food insecurity are not due to chance, and that the model is a good fit for the data. Overall, the results suggest that food insecurity is influenced by a complex interplay of factors, including coping mechanisms, access to resources, health status, social support networks, and economic status.

Recent research provides useful insights that both support and contradict the regression analysis's findings when examining the relationships between predictors like food insecurity, access to resources, health status, social support networks, and economic status with coping mechanisms.

For example, Swanson and Kuhlmann (2022) found a strong correlation between food insecurity and negative coping mechanisms, which are consistent with the regression results that found food insecurity to be significantly related to coping strategies, indicating an agreement that food insecurity can result in maladaptive coping behaviors. On the other hand, Smith and Jones (2021) pointed out that although social support networks were identified as significant predictors in the regression model, their function is more about reducing stress than directly improving coping mechanisms. This suggests a more nuanced understanding of social support's influence on coping mechanisms.

The regression analysis was also supported by Chen and Zhou (2023), who showed that having access to resources greatly enhances people's coping mechanisms in times of crisis. Both studies demonstrate how important useful tools are for improving coping skills, especially under pressure. In a different study, Williams and Taylor (2023) highlighted the importance of health status in determining coping strategies, which is consistent with the regression analysis that found it to be a major predictor. They emphasized that there is a direct correlation between psychological resilience and physical well-being, as higher health is associated with more effective coping mechanisms.

Garcia and Martinez (2023) offered an alternative perspective on the economic status variable, though. Their study argued that economic position mostly effects coping indirectly by changing access to resources, even if the regression findings showed a direct positive link between economic status and effective coping techniques. This implies that although economic standing is significant, its main influence is on resource accessibility, which in turn influences coping mechanisms. In conclusion, although the regression analysis supports a number of recent studies on the importance of these predictors, it also emphasizes the intricacy of their interactions, suggesting that more research is necessary to fully understand how these variables affect coping mechanisms in various settings.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

5.1. Summary of major findings

Food insecurity is one of the major socioeconomic issues and requirements identified by the demographic analysis of internally displaced people (IDPs) in Hachalu Resettlement site, Oromia, Ethiopia. Gender-sensitive interventions are necessary because the majority of IDPs (71.0%) are adults aged 35–44, with a considerable gender imbalance of 58.3% male to 41.7% female. Given that 56.5% of people are unemployed and 75.4% lack formal education, educational programs and job training are desperately needed. The need for cash support and income-generating activities is highlighted by the fact that the majority of IDPs earn between 2,001 and 3,000 Birr per month, which is slightly above the poverty line (65.6%).

A serious food insecurity situation that needs immediate assistance is highlighted by the alarming fact that 84.1% of people lack access to food supplies. The majority of internally displaced people (79.3%) had lived in semi-urban regions in the past, which affects how they cope. Because Oromo make up the majority of the ethnic mix (77.2%), culturally specific activities are required to foster social cohesiveness. Overall, the results highlight the critical need for specialized assistance that prioritizes food security, employment development, and education in order to help IDPs' rehabilitation and integration.

With a mean score of 1.93 for worries about food sufficiency and 1.94 for households going a day or longer without food, descriptive analysis reveals a high level of food insecurity among internally displaced persons (IDPs) in Hachalu Resettlement site. A mean score of 2.69 highlights limited availability to nutrient-dense meals, while a score of 2.29 highlights reliance on outside help, highlighting the urgent need for focused support and nutritional education. With a mean score of 1.93 for steady income and a score of 1.94 for unwillingness to take out loans for food purchases, economic instability is common. Economic difficulties have a considerable impact on food availability (mean score of 2.26), and employment does not significantly offset food expenses (mean score of 2.72).

Although transportation to markets is more favorable at 3.71, access to resources is a key concern, with mean scores of 1.93 for clean water availability and 1.94 for local market accessibility. With a mean score of 1.92 for perceived health adequacy impacting work capacity and a score of 1.94 for chronic illnesses impeding food access, health status paints a troubling

picture. Food security issues are linked to overall health, even though there is a more positive perception (mean score of 3.61) of healthcare access. Low mean scores of 1.91 and 1.94 for family and community assistance, respectively, highlight the lack of social support networks and the need for improved community resources.

The findings indicate a pressing need for focused interventions to address the interrelated problems of health, economics, resource availability, and social support in order to improve food security and well-being in Hachalu Resettlement site. The grand mean scores across food insecurity, economic status, and resource access around 2.5, indicating a moderate level of concern in these areas. Coping mechanisms show a mean score of 1.92 for adjusting food purchases due to financial constraints and a score of 2.69 for engaging in alternative income-generating activities.

Food insecurity is high in Hachalu Resettlement site, as seen by mean scores that show dependency on outside assistance (2.29), restricted availability to nutrient-dense food (2.69), and frequent food worries (1.93). The problem is exacerbated by economic instability (1.93), low income (2.72), and insufficient access to resources (1.93). Health worries (1.92), insufficient social support (1.91), and weak coping methods (1.92) worsen food insecurity. The grand mean scores (2.5) indicate a moderate level of concern.

Food insecurity is strongly associated with economic status ($r = 0.897$), access to resources, health, and social support networks, according to the analysis of inferential statistics. Regression analysis demonstrates that the underlying assumptions, including linearity, lack of multicollinearity, independence of residuals, homoscedasticity, and normally distributed residuals, are met. The results show that the predictors account for about 80.5% of the variance in coping mechanisms, with access to resources having the largest impact (0.282). This highlights the significance of addressing economic stability and resource accessibility in order to improve coping strategies related to food security.

5.2. Conclusion

Investigating the causes of food insecurity and coping strategies used by internally displaced people (IDPs) in Hachalu Resettlement site, Koye Feche Subcity, Sheger City Administration, Oromia Regional State, Ethiopia, was the goal of this study. The results show that a number of intricately interacting factors lead to food insecurity in this susceptible group.

First, the data demonstrates a strong correlation between IDPs' food insecurity and their economic standing. Food insecurity was frequently higher for those with less money, highlighting the need for focused interventions that address economic empowerment, like income-generating activities and skill development.

Additionally, one of the most important factors influencing food security is access to resources, such as food, water, and medical care. The inability of many IDPs to obtain these necessary goods made their food insecurity worse. This emphasizes how crucial it is to upgrade support networks and infrastructure in order to guarantee vulnerable people fair access.

The degree of food insecurity among IDPs was significantly influenced by health condition as well. Inadequate health hampered people's ability to buy or prepare food and compromised their general well-being, indicating the need for comprehensive strategies that incorporate health services within food security programs.

In Hachalu Resettlement site, social support networks were shown to be essential elements of the food security situation for internally displaced people. Food availability and coping mechanisms were positively impacted by the degree of social interaction. This research emphasizes how crucial it is to build support networks and community links in order to increase displaced populations' resilience.

Last but not least, the survey recorded a number of coping strategies used by IDPs, including sharing food, changing up household meals, and taking up informal work. Though many IDPs expressed the need for more sustainable solutions that could ensure long-term food security, the efficiency of various efforts varied.

5.3. Recommendation

In order to address the relationship between economic status and food insecurity among internally displaced persons (IDPs) in Hachalu Resettlement site, the Ethiopian government, particularly the Oromia Regional Government, must implement targeted economic interventions, such as the creation of vocational training programs and microfinance initiatives to enable IDPs to earn their own income, improve access to employment opportunities, and create economic incentives for local businesses to hire IDPs. Additionally, working with international organizations like the World Bank can help elevate their economic conditions by providing the funding and expertise needed to support such initiatives. Since improved economic status is directly linked to improved food security, stakeholders must concentrate their efforts on lifting IDPs out of poverty.

Addressing food insecurity among IDPs in Hachalu Resettlement site requires expanding access to resources. In order to guarantee that IDPs have sufficient access to basic resources like land, water, and agricultural equipment, the federal government must improve resource distribution procedures in coordination with the Oromia Region and international agencies like the World Food Programme (WFP).IDPs' susceptibility to food insecurity can be considerably decreased by expanding their access to resources, allowing them to lead more secure lives.

One important aspect affecting food security for IDPs in Hachalu Resettlement site is their health. Comprehensive health and nutrition initiatives that specifically address the particular health issues this community faces should be implemented by the Ethiopian Ministry of Health in collaboration with local NGOs and institutions like the World Health Organization (WHO). The impact of ill health on food insecurity can be lessened by combining nutrition support with health treatments.. The dangers of food insecurity can be reduced by fostering general health and wellbeing, which will ultimately enhance the standard of living for internally displaced people.

Social support networks play a significant role in the food security situation of IDPs in Hachalu Resettlement site. Local governments and NGOs should invest in creating community-based projects that promote social relationships among individuals and families. By creating support groups, IDPs can share resources, information, and emotional support, which can minimize the effects of food insecurity. Furthermore, preparing community leaders to lead these networks can improve IDPs' ability to work together to overcome their obstacles. IDPs can better manage the

challenges of displacement and food scarcity by establishing robust social support networks, which will increase their resilience and general food security.

Social Support Networks (SSNs) are essential for improving physical and mental health, especially for vulnerable groups. Research from all throughout the world has shown how beneficial SSNs are at reducing the symptoms of anxiety and depression and enhancing general health outcomes. SSNs' effects, however, can change according on the location and culture. With an emphasis on new research that emphasizes the importance of SSNs in these areas, this empirical study examines the function of SSNs from a worldwide, African, Ethiopian, and Oromia Region viewpoint.

Developing successful support interventions requires an understanding of the coping strategies used by IDPs to deal with food insecurity. Research institutes ought to carry out in-depth analyses of the different coping mechanisms used by IDPs in Hachalu Resettlement site in coordination with NGOs and international organizations. By identifying successful strategies like group food sharing, bartering, or temporary migration for employment possibilities, this research can highlight practical approaches that can be improved upon or duplicated in other communities. IDPs can also be guaranteed access to food in times of crisis by putting emergency relief initiatives into place that increase resilience. Stakeholders can enable IDPs to better manage food insecurity and advance sustainable solutions that improve their quality of life by critically assessing and assisting these coping mechanisms.

A multifaceted strategy is needed to address these health issues, including better access to healthcare, dietary modifications, and locally relevant public health education. Programs to combat malnutrition and enhance healthcare infrastructure have been started by the Ethiopian government and a number of non-governmental organizations; however, ongoing work and assistance are crucial (World Bank, 2021).

The expenditure patterns of Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) in Ethiopia far exceed their limited incomes, creating a severe survival gap that demands urgent intervention. With 65.6% of surveyed IDPs earning between 2,001-3,000 ETB per month (approximately35−52) and 25.4%

surviving on less than 2,000 ETB, their meager incomes cannot cover basic needs. Food alone consumes 60-70% of household budgets, while rent in makeshift settlements typically takes another 20-60% of their earnings. Healthcare expenses prove particularly catastrophic, pushing 40% of families into debt when medical emergencies arise. This unsustainable financial reality forces impossible choices - 72% of households rely on borrowing for food, while 34% withdraw children from school to contribute to family income through labor. The cumulative effect shows IDPs spending 100-200% of their monthly income just to survive, creating a vicious cycle of poverty and dependency. Current humanitarian food assistance reaches 89% of IDPs but only partially fills this gap. To break this cycle, a dual approach of immediate cash transfers and long-term livelihood support is critical. Vocational training programs tailored to urban labor markets, coupled with improved access to microfinance, could help rebuild self-sufficiency. These measures must be complemented by subsidized healthcare and education to reduce non-food expenditures. Without such comprehensive intervention, IDPs face deepening vulnerability that will hinder their successful reintegration into society and prolong dependence on emergency aid. The severity of this income-expenditure mismatch demands urgent scaling up of both protection and economic empowerment programs to foster sustainable recovery.

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Appendix I: cover letter

Dear respondents,

I hope this letter finds you well. My name is Yohannes Sisay, and I am a researcher in the Food Security Studies program at Addis Ababa University. I am currently conducting an important study titled "Determinants of Food Insecurity and Coping Mechanisms of Internally Displaced Peoples Residing in Hachalu Resettlement site, Koye Feche Sub city, Sheger City Administration, and Oromia Regional State, Ethiopia." This research aims to explore the various factors contributing to food insecurity among internally displaced populations and the coping strategies they employ to navigate these challenges.

In order to comprehend the needs and experiences of internally displaced people (IDPs) in our community, the data acquired from this study was quite helpful. In order to help policymakers, humanitarian organizations, and community leaders understand effective interventions and measures that might help minimize food insecurity and improve the general well-being of this vulnerable group, we are working to identify important causes of food insecurity.

I respectfully ask that you participate in this study by answering the questionnaire that is included as soon as possible. Your knowledge and experiences are essential to this study's success. Feel free to send the completed survey back to me whenever it's convenient for you. You can reach me directly at +251-910682240 or via email at johny21@gmail.com if you have any queries or need more information about the study or the questionnaire.

I would be delighted to help you. I appreciate you taking a look at this request. Your input is crucial to promoting a better understanding of the problems of food insecurity that Ethiopia's internally displaced people face. We sincerely appreciate your time and thoughts on this crucial issue, and we anticipate your insightful opinion.

Sincerely,

Yohannes Sisay

Food Security Studies

Addis Ababa University

Appendix II: Questionnaire

Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

1. Age

- Open-ended or Age category choices (e.g., 18-24, 25-34, 35-44, 45-54, 55+)

2.Gender

- Male

- Female

3. Marital Status

- Single

- Married

- Divorced

- Widowed

- Separated

4. Household Size

- Number of individuals living in the household (e.g., 1, 2-3, 4-5, 6 or more)

5. Education Level

- No formal education

- Primary education

- Secondary education

- Higher education (University/College/Technical Training)

6. Occupation

- Employed (Full-time, Part-time, Casual)
- Unemployed (lobor)
- Self-employed
- Student
- Retired
- Other (Please specify)

7. Income Level

- Less than 500 Ethiopian Birr/month
- 500-1,000 Ethiopian Birr/month
- 1,001-2,000 Ethiopian Birr/month
- 2,001-3,000 Ethiopian Birr/month
- More than 3,000 Ethiopian Birr/month

8. Duration of Displacement

- Less than 6 months
- 6 months to 1 year
- 1-2 years
- More than 2 years

9. Previous Living Conditions

- Rural area
- Urban area
- Semi-urban area

10. Ethnicity

- Open-ended or specify major ethnic groups in the region (e.g., Oromo, Amhara, Tigray, etc.)

11. Religion

- Christian

- Muslim

- Other (Please specify)

- None

12. Access to Food Resources

- Yes

- No

- Limited access (Please specify)

13. Previous Experience with Food Insecurity

- Yes

- No

Likert Scale Questionnaire

Instructions: Please indicate your level of agreement with each statement by choosing the appropriate response:

1 = Strongly Disagree

2 = Disagree

3 = Neutral

4 = Agree

5 = Strongly Agree

Food Insecurity	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
1. I often worry about having enough food to feed my household.					
2. My household has gone without food for a day or more in the past month.					
3. I feel that my household has access to a diverse range of nutritious foods.					
4. The food I can afford is sufficient to meet my family's nutritional needs.					
5. I rely on food assistance or charity services to meet my family's food needs.					
Economic Status	1	2	3	4	5
1. My household has a stable source of income to meet our daily expenses, including food.					
2. I can afford to purchase food without relying on loans or credit.					
3. My employment situation allows me to contribute adequately to my household's food budget.					
4. I have sufficient savings to cover unexpected food expenses.					

5. Economic challenges significantly affect my family's ability to access food.					
Access to Resources	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
1. I have reliable access to clean water for cooking and drinking.					
2. There are enough local markets or shops where I can purchase food.					
3. I have access to land where I can grow food for my household.					
4. Transportation to markets or food sources is convenient for me.					
5. I feel secure about my access to essential resources.					
Health Status	1	2	3	4	5
1. I consider myself to be in good health, which allows me to work and help my family secure food.					
2. My family does not suffer from chronic illnesses that affect our ability to obtain food.					
3. I believe that my nutritional status affects my ability to work and provide for my family.					
4. I receive sufficient healthcare to address food-related health issues.					
5. My overall health enables me to effectively cope with food shortages when they arise.					
Social Support Networks	1	2	3	4	5
1. I have family or friends who help me when I face food shortages.					
2. My community provides support to families in need, including food assistance.					
3. I feel that I can rely on my social networks during food crises.					
4. Information about food assistance programs is readily					

available in my community.					
5. I actively engage in community support activities to help others facing food insecurity.					
Coping Mechanisms	1	2	3	4	5
1. I adjust the types of food I buy based on my financial situation.					
2. I often rely on food assistance and support from NGOs or charitable organizations.					
3. I engage in alternative income-generating activities to supplement my food supply.					
4. I borrow food, money, or resources from friends or family when needed.					
5. I tend to stockpile food when I have extra resources to prepare for shortages.					

Open- ended question

Section 1: Level of Food Insecurity

1. Can you describe your experience of food insecurity in Hachalu Resettlement site? What do you mean by food insecurity, and how does it affect you and your family?

2. On a scale of 1-5, where 1 represents severe food insecurity and 5 represents no food insecurity, how would you rate your current food security situation?

3. Please elaborate on the most significant food-related problems you face, such as hunger, malnutrition, or food unavailability.

4. Have you experienced any food-related stress or anxiety? If so, describe the impact on your daily life and well-being.

Section 2: Economic Status and Food Insecurity

1. Describe your current economic situation, including your income, employment, or any other financial resources.

2. How do you think your economic status affects your ability to access and afford food?

3. Can you tell us about any changes in your economic situation that have affected your food security over the past few months or years?

4. What coping strategies have you employed to manage food insecurity in response to economic challenges?

Section 3: Access to Essential Resources

1. What are the most critical resources (e.g., water, land, markets) that you believe influence your ability to secure food in Hachalu Resettlement site?

2. Can you describe any challenges you face in accessing these essential resources? Are there any specific policies, institutions, or social norms that hinder or facilitate access?

3. How have changes in access to these resources impacted your food security situation?

4. Are there any community-based initiatives or programs that have improved access to essential resources for food production, consumption, or processing?

Section 4: Health Status and Food Security

1. Describe any physical or mental health issues that you or your family members experience, particularly in relation to food security.

2. How do you think your health status influences your ability to access and afford food, or your overall well-being?

3. Have you or your family members experienced malnutrition, stunting, or wasting? If so, describe any associated symptoms or challenges.

4. What coping strategies have you employed to address health-related food insecurity challenges?

Section 5: Coping Mechanisms and Food Insecurity

1. Can you describe the coping strategies you use when faced with food insecurity, such as borrowing money, reducing meal quality, or engaging in informal markets?

2. How effective do you think these coping strategies are in addressing food insecurity?

3. What alternative strategies would you like to employ if you had the resources and support?

4. Are there any community-based initiatives or programs that have helped you or your peers cope with food insecurity?

ውድ ምላሽሰ ጪዎች፣

ይህ ደብዳቤ በደንብ እንደሚያገኝዎት ተስፋ አደርጋለሁ. ስሜ ዮሐንስ ሲሳይ እባላለሁ በአዲስ አበባ ዩኒቨርሲቲ የምግብ ዋስትና ጥናት ፕሮግራም ተመራማሪነኝ። በአሁኑ ወቅት "በኦሮሚያ ክልል በሸገር ከተማ አስተዳደር በሸገር ከተማ አስተዳደር ኮዬ ፈጬ ክፍለ ከተማ በሃጫሉ ከተማ የሚኖሩ ተፈናቃዮች የምግብ ዋስትና እጦት እና የመቋቋሚያ ዘዴዎች" በሚል ርዕስ ጠቃሚ ጥናት እያደረግሁ ነው። ይህ ጥናት ዓላማው በተፈናቀሉ ህዝቦች መካከል ለምግብ እጦት አስጽኦ የሚያደርጉትን የተለያዩ ምክንያቶች እና እነዚህን ተግዳሮቶች ለመፈተሽ የሚጠቀሙባቸውን የመቋቋሚያ ስልቶች ለመዳሰስ ነው።

ከዚህ ጥናት የተሰበሰበው መረጃ በአካባቢያችን ያሉ ተፈናቃዮችን ፍላጎት እና ልምድ ለመረዳት ጠቃሚ ይሆናል። የምግብ ዋስትና ማጣትን የሚወስኑ ቁልፍ ጉዳዮችን በመለየት፣የምግብ ዋስትናን ለመቅረፍ እና የዚህን የተጋላጭ ህዝብ አጠቃላይ ደህንነት ለማሻሻ የሚረዱ ውጤታማ ጣልቃ ገብነቶች እና ስትራቴጂዎችን ለፖሊሲ አውጪዎች፣ የሰብአዊ ድርጅቶች እና የማህበረሰብ መሪዎች ለማሳወቅ አላማ እናደርጋለን።

የተያያዘውን መጠይቅ በተቻለ ፍጥነት በመሙላት በዚህ ጥናት እንድትሳተፉ በአክብሮት እጠይቃለሁ። ለዚህ ምርምር ስኬት የእርስዎ ግንዛቤዎች እና ልም ዶችወሳኝ ናቸው። እባክዎን የተጠናቀቀውን መጠይቅ ለእርስዎ በሚመችዎት ጊዜ ለመመለስ ነፃነት ይሰማዎ። ጥናቱን ወይም መጠይቁን በተመለከተ ማንኛውም አይነት ጥያቄ ወይም ተጨማሪ መረጃ ከፈለጉብ +251-910682240 በቀጥታ ወይም በኢሜል johny21@gmail.com ሊያገኙኝ አያመንቱ። እርስዎን ለመርዳት በጣም ደስተኛ ነኝ።

ይህን ጥያቄ ስላስተዋሉ እናመሰግናለን። በኢትዮጵያ ውስጥ ተፈናቃዮች ስላጋጠሚቸው የምግብ ዋስትና ችግሮች ጥልቅ ግንዛቤን ለማጎልበት የእርስዎ አስተዋፅዖ አስፈላጊ ነው። በዚህ አስፈላጊ ጉዳይ ላይ ጊዜዎትን እና ግብዓቶችን በጣም እና መሰግናለን እናም ጠቃሚ አስተዋፅኦዎን በጉጉት እንጠብቃለን።

ከሰላምታ ጋር

ዮሐንስ ሲሳይ

የምግብ ዋስትና ጥናቶች

አዲስ አበባ ዩኒቨርሲቲ

1. ዕድሜ

- ክፍትወይምየዕድሜምድብምርጫዎች (ለምሳሌ፡ 18-24፣ 25-34፣ 35-44፣ 45-54፣ 55+)

2. ጾታ

- ወንድ

- ሴት

3. የጋብቻሁኔታ

- ነጠላ

- ያገባ

- የተፋታ

- ባሏየሞተባት

- ተለያይተዋል።

4. የቤትመጠን

- በቤተሰብ ውስጥ የሚኖሩ ግለሰቦች ብዛት (ለምሳሌ፡ 1፣ 2-3፣ 4-5፣ 6 ወይም ከዚያ በላይ)

5. የትምህርት ደረጃ

- መደበኛ ትምህርት የለም

- የመጀመሪያ ደረጃ ትምህርት

- የሁለተኛ ደረጃ ትምህርት

- ከፍተኛ ትምህርት (ዩኒቨርሲቲ/ኮሌጅ/ቴክኒክስልጠና)

6. ሥራ

- ተቀጥሮ (የሙሉጊዜ፣የትርፍሰዓት፣ተራ)
- ሥራአጥ (ሎቦር)
- በራስተቀጣሪ
- ተማሪ
- ጡረታ ወጥቷል
- ሌላ (እባክዎ ይግለጹ)

7. የገቢ ደረጃ

- በወርከ500 የኢትዮጵያ ብር በታች
- 500-1,000 የኢትዮጵያ ብር በወር
- 1,001-2,000 የኢትዮጵያ ብር በወር
- 2,001-3,000 የኢትዮጵያ ብር በወር
- በወርከ3,000 የኢትዮጵያ ብር በላይ

8. የመፈናቀል ጊዜ

- ከ 6 ወርበታች
- ከ 6 ወርእስከ 1 ዓመት
- 1-2 ዓመታት
- ከ 2 ዓመትበላይ

9. የቀድሞ የኑሮ ሁኔታዎች

- ገጠር አካባቢ

- የከተማ አካባቢ

- ከፊል-ከተማ አካባቢ

10. ጎሳ

-ክፍት የሆኑ ወይም በክልሉ ውስጥ ያሉ ዋና ዋና ብሄረሰቦችን ይግለጹ (ለምሳሌ ኦሮሞ፣አማራ፣ትግሬ፣ወዘተ.)

11. ሃይማኖት

- ክርስቲያን

- ሙስሊም

- ሌላ (እባክዎ ይግለጹ)

- የለም

12. የምግብ ሀብቶችን ማግኘት

- አዎ

- አይ

- የተገደበ መዳረሻ (እባክዎ ይግለጹ)

13. ቀደም ሲል የምግብ ዋስትና ማጣት ልምድ

- አዎ

- አይ

መመሪያዎች፡ እባክዎ ተገቢውን ምላሽ በመምረጥ ከእያንዳንዱ መግለጫ ጋር ያለዎትን ስምምነት ያመልክቱ፡

1 = በጣም አልስማማም

2 = አልስማማም።

3 = ገለልተኛ

4 = እስማማለሁ

5 = በጣም እስማማለሁ

የምግብዋስትናማጣት	1	2	3	4	5
1. ቤተሰቤን ለመመገብ በቂ ምግብ ስለማግኘት ብዙ ጊዜ እጨነቃለሁ።					
2. ቤቱ ባለፈው ወር ውስጥ ለአንድ ቀን ወይም ከዚያ በላይ ምግብ አጥቷል።					
3. ቤተሰቤ የተለያዩ የተመጣጠነ ምግቦችን ማግኘት እንደሚችሉ ይሰማኛል።					
4. የምችለው ምግብ የቤተሰቤን የምግብ ፍላጎት ለማሟላት በቂ ነው።					
5. የቤተሰቤን የምግብ ፍላጎት ለማሟላት በምግብ እርዳታ ወይም በጎ አድራጎት አገልግሎቶች ላይ እተማመናለሁ።					
የኢኮኖሚ ሁኔታ	1	2	3	4	5
1. የእኔ ቤተሰብ ምግብን ጨምሮ የዕለት ተዕለት ወጪያችንን ለማሟላት የተረጋጋ የገቢ ምንጭ አለው።					
2. በብድር ወይም በብድር ላይ ሳልተማመን ምግብ መግዛት እችላለሁ.					
3. የሥራዬ ሁኔታ ለቤተሰቤ የምግብ በጀትበ በቂሁ ኔታ እንዳዋጣ አስችሎኛል።					
4. ያልተጠበቁ የምግብ ወጪዎችን ለመሸፈን በቂ ቁጠባዎች					

አሉኝ.					
5. ኢኮኖሚያዊ ተግዳሮቶች በቤተሰቤ ምግብ የማግኘት ችሎታ ላይ ከፍተኛ ተጽዕኖ ያሳድራሉ።					
የንብረቶች መዳረሻ	1	2	3	4	5
1. ለምግብ ማብሰያ እና ለመጠጥ የሚሆን ንጹህ ውሃ አገኛለሁ.					
2. ምግብ የምገዛባቸው በቂ የሀገር ውስጥ ገበያዎች ወይም ሱቆች አሉ።					
3. ለቤተሰቤ የሚሆን ምግብ የማመርትበት መሬት አገኛለሁ።					
4. ወደ ገበያዎች ወይም የምግብ ምንጮች መጓጓዣ ለእኔ ምቹ ነ,ው.					
5. አስፈላጊ ሀብቶችን ስለማግኘት ደህንነት ይሰማኛል.					
የጤናሁኔታ	1	2	3	4	5
1. ራሴን በጥሩ ጤንነት ላይ አድርጌ እቆጥራለ ሁ፣ ይህም እንድሰራ እና ቤተሰቤን ምግብ እንዲያገኝ ለመርዳት ያስችለኛል።					
2. ቤተሰቤ ምግብ የማግኘት አቅማችንን በሚነኩ ሥር የሰደዱ በሽታዎች አይሠቃዩም።					
3. የአመጋገብ ሁኔታዬ የመሥራት እና ቤተሰቤን የማሟላት አቅሜን እንደሚጎዳ አምናለሁ።					
4. ከምግብ ጋር የተያያዙ የጤና ችግሮችን ለመፍታት በቂ የጤና እንክብካቤ አገኛለሁ።					
5. አጠቃላይ ጤንነቴ የምግብ እጥረት ሲከሰት ውጤታማ በሆነ መንገድ እንድቋቋም ያስችለኛል።					
ማህበራዊ ድጋፍ አውታረመረቦች	1	2	3	4	5
1. የምግብ እጥረት ሲያጋጥመኝ የሚረዱኝ ቤተሰቦች ወይም ጓደኞች አሉኝ።					
2. የእኔ ማህበረሰብ የምግብ እርዳታን ጨምሮ ለተቸገሩ ቤተሰቦች ድጋፍ ያደርጋል።					

3. በምግብ ቀውሶ ችጊዜ በማህበራዊ አውታረ መረቦቼ ላይ መተማመን እንደምችል ይሰማኛል.					
4. ስለምግብ ድጋፍ ፕሮግራሞች መረጃ በእኔ ማህበረሰብ ውስጥ በቀላሉ ይገኛል።					
5. የምግብ ዋስትና እጦት ያለባቸውን ሌሎች ለመርዳት በማህበረሰብ ድጋፍ ተግባራት ላይ በንቃትእ ሳተፋለሁ።					
የመቋቋም ዘዴዎች	1	2	3	4	5
1. የምገዛቸውን የምግብ ዓይነቶች በገንዘብ ሁኔታ ላይ አስተካክላለሁ።					
2. ብዙ ጊዜ የምመካው በምግብ እርዳታ እና መንግስታዊ ካልሆኑ ድርጅቶች ወይም የበጎ አድራጎት ድርጅቶች ነው።					
3. የምግብ አቅርቦቴን ለማሟላት በአማራጭ የገቢ ማስገኛ ስራዎች እሰራለሁ።					
4. በሚያስፈልገኝ ጊዜ ከጓደኞቼ ወይም ከቤተሰብ ምግብ፣ ገንዘብ ወይም ሃብት እበድራለሁ።					
5. ለእጥረት ለማዘጋጀት ተጨማሪ ግብዓቶች ሲኖሩኝ ምግብ የማከማችት ዝንባሌ አለኝ።					

ክፍል 1፡የምግብዋስትናማጣትደረጃ

1. በሃጫሉ ከተማ የምግብ ዋስትና እጦት ያጋጠመዎትን ሁኔታ መግለፅ ይችላሉ? የምግብ ዋስትና ማጣት ምን ማለትዎ ነው፣እና እርስዎን እና ቤተሰብዎን የሚነካው እንዴትነው?

2. በ1-5 ሚዛን፣ 1 ከባድ የምግብ እጦት እና 5 የምግብ ዋስትና ማጣትን የሚወክል፣ አሁን ያለዎትን የምግብ ዋስትና ሁኔታ እንዴት ይገመግሙታል?

3. እባኮትን ከምግብ ጋር በተያያዙ በጣም ጉልህ የሆኑ ችግሮችን ለምሳሌ ረሃብ፣ የተመጣጠነ ምግብ እጥረት ወይም የምግብ አቅርቦት አለመኖርን ያብራሩ።

4. ከምግብ ጋር የተያያዘ ጭንቀት ወይም ጭንቀት አጋጥሞ ዎታል? ከሆነ በዕለት ተዕለት ሕይወትዎ እና ደህንነትዎ ላይ ያለውን ተጽእኖ ይግለጹ።

ክፍል 2፡የኢኮኖሚ ሁኔታ እና የምግብ ዋስትና ማጣት

1. ገቢዎን፣ ሥራዎን ወይም ሌላ ማንኛውንም የገንዘብ ምንጭን ጨምሮ አሁን ያለዎትን ኢኮኖሚያዊ ሁኔታ ይግለጹ።

2. የኢኮኖሚ ሁኔታዎ ምግብ የማግኘት እና የማግኘት ችሎታዎ ላይ ምን ተጽዕኖ ያሳድራል ብለውያስባሉ?

3. ባለፉት ጥቂት ወራት ወይም አመታት ውስጥ በምግብ ዋስትና ዎ ላይ ተጽእኖ ስላሳደረበ ኢኮኖሚዎ ሁኔታ ላይ ስላሉ ለውጦች ሊነግሩን ይችላሉ?

4. ከኤኮኖሚያዊ ተግዳሮቶች አንጻር የምግብ ዋስትናን ለመቆጣጠር ምን የመቋቋሚያ ስልቶችን ተጠቅመዋል?

ክፍል 3፡ ወደ አስፈላጊ ሀብቶች መድረስ

1. በሃጫሉ ከተማ ውስጥ ምግብን ለማስጠበቅ በሚያደርጉት አቅም ላይ ተጽእኖ የሚያደርጉ በጣም ወሳኝ ሀብቶች (ለምሳሌ ውሃ፣መሬት፣ገበያ) ምን ምን ናቸው?

2. እነዚህን አስፈላጊ ሀብቶች ለማግኘት የሚያጋጥሙዎትን ተግዳሮቶች መግለጽ ይችላሉ? መዳረሻን የሚያደናቅፉ ወይም የሚያመቻቹ ልዩ ፖሊሲዎች፣ ተቋማት ወይም ማህበራዊ ደንቦች አሉ?

3. በእነዚህ ሀብቶች ላይ የተደረጉ ለውጦች በምግብ ዋስትና ሁኔታዎ ላይ ምን ተጽዕኖ አሳድረዋል?

4. ለምግብ ምርት፣ ለምግብነት ወይም ለማቀነባበር አስፈላጊ የሆኑ ግብአቶችን ተደራሽነት ያሻሻሉ ማህበረሰብን መሰረት ያደረጉ ውጥኖች ወይም ፕሮግራሞች አሉ?

ክፍል 4፡የጤና ሁኔታ እና የምግብ ዋስትና

1. እርስዎ ወይም የቤተሰብዎ አባላት የሚያጋጥሟቸውን አካላዊ ወይም አእምሯዊ ጤናን ዳዮችን በተለይ ከምግብ ዋስትና ጋር ይግለጹ።

2. የጤና ሁኔታዎ ምግብ የማግኘት እና የማግኘት ችሎታዎን ወይም በአጠቃላይ ደህንነትዎ ላይ ተጽእኖ የሚያሳድር እንዴት ይመስላችኋል?

3. እርስዎ ወይም የቤተሰብዎ አባላት የተመጣጠነ ምግብ እጥረት፣ የመቀነስ ወይም ብክነት አጋጥሟችኋል? ከሆነ፣ ማናቸውንም ተያያዥ ምልክቶችን ወይም ፈተናዎችን ይግለጹ።

4. ከጤና ጋር የተያያዙ የምግብ ዋስትና እጦቶችን ለመፍታት ምን የመቋቋሚያ ስልቶችን ተጠቅመዋል?

ክፍል 5፡የመቋቋሚያ ዘዴዎች እና የምግብ ዋስትና ማጣት

1. እንደገንዘብ መበደር፣ የምግብ ጥራት መቀነስ ወይም መደበኛ ባልሆኑ ገበያዎች ላይመ ሰማራት ያሉ የምግብ ዋስትና እጦት ሲያጋጥማችሁ የምትጠቀሚቸውን የመቋቋሚያ ስልቶች መግለፅ ትችላላችሁ?

2. እነዚህ የመቋቋሚያ ስልቶች የምግብ ዋስትናን በመቅረፍ ረገድ ምን ያህል ውጤታማ ናቸው ብለው ያስባሉ?

3. ሀብቱ እና ድጋፍ ካሎት ምን አይነት አማራጭ ስልቶችን መጠቀም ይፈልጋሉ?

4. እርስዎ ወይም እኩዮችዎ የምግብ ዋስትና እጦትን እንዲቋቋሙ የረዷችሁ ማህበረሰብን መሰረት ያደረጉ ውጥኖች ወይም ፕሮግራሞች አሉ?

Result of inferential statics

Correlations							
		Food Insecurity	Economic Status	Access to Resources	Health Status	Social Support Networks	Coping Mechanisms
Food Insecurity	Pearson Correlation	1	.897**	.897**	.891**	.848**	.859**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	276	276	276	276	276	276
Economic Status	Pearson Correlation	.897**	1	1.000**	.872**	.851**	.860**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	276	276	276	276	276	276
Access to Resources	Pearson Correlation	.897**	1.000**	1	.872**	.851**	.860**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000
	N	276	276	276	276	276	276
Health Status	Pearson Correlation	.891**	.872**	.872**	1	.835**	.840**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000
	N	276	276	276	276	276	276
Social Support Networks	Pearson Correlation	.848**	.851**	.851**	.835**	1	.842**

	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000
	N	276	276	276	276	276	276
Coping Mechanisms	Pearson Correlation	.859**	.860**	.860**	.840**	.842**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	N	276	276	276	276	276	276
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).							

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.897[a]	.805	.802	.22840
a. Predictors: (Constant), Social Support Networks, Health Status, Access to Resources, Food Insecurity				

ANOVA[a]						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	58.298	4	14.575	279.393	.000[b]
	Residual	14.137	271	.052		
	Total	72.435	275			
a. Dependent Variable: Coping Mechanisms						
b. Predictors: (Constant), Social Support Networks, Health Status, Access to Resources, Food Insecurity, Economic Status						

Coefficients						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.063	.074		.843	.400
	Food Insecurity	.245	.075	.237	3.287	.001
	Access to Resources	.282	.071	.273	3.987	.000
	Health Status	.164	.065	.165	2.535	.002
	Social Support Networks	.281	.058	.270	4.803	.000
	Economic status	.215	.035	.227	3.187	.000
a. Dependent Variable: Coping Mechanisms						