

**ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES
INSTITUTE OF DEVELOPMENT STUDIES
CENTER FOR REGIONAL AND LOCAL DEVELOPMENT STUDIES**

**PRODUCTIVE SAFETY NET PROGRAM IMPLEMENTATION IN ANNI-LEMMO
WOREDA, HADIYA ZONE, SNNPRS**

**BY
SOLOMON MENCHÄ**

**A THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE
DEGREE OF MASTER OF ARTS IN REGIONAL AND LOCAL DEVELOPMENT STUDIES.**

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APPROVED BY BOARD OF EXAMINERS

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Acronyms

ADLI	- Agriculture Development- Led Industrialization
AMSL	- Above Mean Sea Level
BC	- Before Birth of Christ
CCIP	- Complementary Community Investment Program
CFW	- Cash-for-Work
DFID	- Department for International Development
DPPA	- Disaster Prevention and Preparedness Agency
DPPC	- Disaster Prevention and Preparedness Commission
DS	- Direct Support
EBSN	- Employment Based Safety Net
EGS	- Employment Generation Scheme
ETB	- Ethiopian Birr
FAO	- Food and Agricultural Organization
FDRE	- Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia
FFW	- Food- For- Work
FSP	- Food Security Program
FSS	- Food Security Strategy
GOE	- Government of Ethiopia
HABP	- Household Asset Building Program
HHHs	- Household Heads
HHs	- Households
KMs	- Kilometer
MDGs	- Millennium Development Goals
MoARD	- Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development
MoFED	- Ministry of Finance and Economic Development
NGOs	- Non- Governmental Organizations
OFSP	- Other Food Security Programs
PAs	- Peasant Associations
PASDEP	- A Plan for Accelerated and Sustained Development to End Poverty
PIM	- Program Implementation Manual
PSNP	- Productive Safety Net Program
PWs	- Public Works
RP	- Resettlement Program
RRC	- Relief and Rehabilitation Commission
SDPRP	- Sustainable Development and Poverty Reduction Program
SNNPRS	- Southern Nations, Nationalities and People's Regional State
SSA	- Sub- Saharan Africa
SWC	- Soil and Water Conservation
USD	- US Dollar

Abstract

This research work has been conducted at Woreda level in order to assess the implementation procedures of Productive Safety Net Program placed in its implementation manual to its enforcement. The respondents for the survey were sampled randomly after stratifying for addressing gender proportionality of the respondents. FGD participants were arranged both from non- beneficiary HHs and beneficiary HHs who were not included in the survey sample. Data was collected from both primary and secondary sources. The primary data has been collected from beneficiary HHs of the program through detailed interviews which further is enriched and triangulated by information gathered by field observation and key informant interviews. Secondary data has been used from Woreda office beneficiary profile. The study mainly focused on targeting, transfer, public work, procedural gaps, and asset creation and prevention from depletion if the implementation rules set for the program are maintained. The data gathered has been analyzed using percentages and tables as the study is a type of descriptive with qualitative approach for most case. Major findings are on targeting where there has been no family included in to the program with its full members, though the selection was participatory type. Except for preference in type, delay in time, absence of deferring and insufficiency in amount has been a trend in transfer in the study area. Own farm activities and peak agricultural season faced challenge due to clash of PWs scheduled without participatory planning approach and involvement of beneficiaries and lack of deferring work calendar. The targeted beneficiary HHs has been included with only half percent of their members. No other food security program package exercised thus creating sustainable livelihood assets for the beneficiaries seems in question. Addressing the left families untargeted, deferring trend in PW calendar and planning, facilitating OFSP access are crucial issues if reconsidered. Amount is also advised if amended. Graduation of the HHs from the program is taking a type of forcing approach, may be done simply to fulfill the agreement made between the Government and the funding agents, as the HHs are not having access to resources to create additional assets.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 The General Background

Several countries in the world in general and those in less developed ones in particular, face many problems which are associated with the livelihood of their citizens as access to food and other basic needs has been a challenge. Food security, as has been in the public eye for a long time and in more history it began to make a serious impact on the development debate in 1970s (Maxwell, 2001). Accordingly, such countries tried to and are still on their long lasting strives to solve such interwoven problems and to improve the livelihood of the society which are reflected as changes in terms of social, economic, environmental, institutional, and infrastructural structures that are treated as some forms of social frameworks within which people of a given society lives and always expected to be changed or transformed through development (Burkey, 1996 cited in Tefera 2007). The changes are expressed in terms of human; social; physical; financial; and natural resources, as its maximum goal is improving the welfare of the society though they encounter various ups and downs against their efforts as most of them are in developing world; resource poor; and dependent on external aid and transfer.

Of all, meeting the basic needs of their society, such as food, shelter, cloth and water is becoming a global agenda which needs to be answered to the level and standard desired or predetermined and accepted by the local community. Thus, the states in such nations along with their development partners, design several short-term and long-term intervention strategies in response to such needs which are aiming at addressing the most vulnerable groups depending on the type and severity of challenges that are currently facing their community. One of the strategies is the social security which is designed and supposed to relive them from different shocks which may be delivered or transferred through different routes to the poor and/or vulnerable groups of the society.

However, in most African countries, it argued that limited government budgets and its sources make universal state-funded social security intervention unaffordable, since social welfare programs require a sizable fiscal base and significant income inequality as a precondition for redistribution from rich to poor. Accordingly, for the reasons described above, in most African countries safety nets programs are practiced or implemented as interventions for short-term and reactive responses to shocks- episodes of

acute food insecurity- rather than institutionalized programs to alleviate chronic poverty (Devereux, 2001).

Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) is the only region in the world currently facing widespread chronic food insecurity as well as persistent threats of famine which is a product of low agricultural production plus low incomes, not one or the other alone, and is a consequence of policy and as well as institutional failures and it is no longer seen simply as a failure of agriculture to produce sufficient food at the national level, but instead as a failure of livelihoods to guarantee access to sufficient at the household level for which alarm has been expressed and the region has described as facing acute food shortages and in some areas, widespread famine and deaths from starvation (Devereux and Maxwell, 2001; Salih, 1994). Of course, this is not surprising since Africa is the only region in the world that has been experiencing a decline in the per capita food production for almost two decades (Salih, 1994).

Food security is one of the social security program's essences. Social security is thus, a fundamental right for any human being regardless of his or her race, creed, or geographic area or location to which International community affirmed and enshrined their support to this notion in Article 22 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR), reads as "Every one, as a member of society, has the right to social security and is entitles realization, through national effort and international co-operation and in accordance with the organization and resources of each state, of the economic, social and cultural rights indispensable for his or her dignity and the free development of his or her personality" (Ahmed, 2009).

Ethiopia, as one of the less developed countries, is facing some of these challenges. One of the critical problems that the country suffers from is food insecurity. To end up with the problems the Government along with its stakeholders has been implementing several activities which are designed as programs (Sharp, 2006). Very recently, starting from 2005, a new program called "Productive Safety Net Program (PSNP)" with the intention of pulling out more than eight to ten million individuals from the chronic food insecurity status within three to five years and thought as one contributory factor to achieve the intended MDGs (DFID, 2006). Thus the aim of this study is to assess the program's implementation aspect at Woreda level.

There are however, some studies conducted by other scholars on the subject matter that this study has been intended to be carried out. Accordingly, Tefera (2006) has conducted a research work on the PSNP implementation which focused mainly on the enforcement of the procedures developed for the program. The study though tends to investigate about targeting and participation of community, there is no clear reflection about the level and role or influence on decision making by community while selecting beneficiaries as availing oneself in the meetings may not show role playing. Similarly, the study has tried to indicate the creation and prevention of assets owned by those targeted beneficiaries, though it did not manifest or state clearly how that has been achieved as his research was conducted just after a season since the onset of the program. Further, there is a blur stated by the study which says that beneficiaries were witness about the fairness and due application of selection criteria which was not felt the same by non- beneficiaries, discussants and key informants so long as it is to mean the same issue. That is to mean, it is not clear that why it was fair to the beneficiaries while not for their counter parts.

Another study made by Fekadu in 2007 also described about the program's implementation at lower level. The scholar in his career has attempted to identify dilution and full family size inclusion or targeting within the same family or HH, however, not their inclusion in to other HHs being mixed up as if they were members of the same HH so that they make share of resources transferred between the two HH's members. He also asserted that the level of payment or transfer fixed to five days a month for a HH member, has encouraged the dilution, not full inclusion of the members in this sense, which does not seem the reality as resource is in limited availability and the number of days fixed to five is simply to estimate the number of labor days that the specific HH is having to contribute to PWs especially for those who are selected under PW participation category. Yitayew (2007) has conducted an exclusive study on targeting which has not addressed about aspects on asset, PW, graduation, and even nothing about the size of HHs members addressed from each eligible head because the PIM urges for full inclusion. Hence, this study will be substantiating to such gaps remained unaddressed by earlier studies.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Ethiopia, as one of the most famine-prone countries in Africa, has a long history of famines and food shortages that can be traced back to 250BC which led to food insecurity and general poverty. More than half of the Africa's food insecure population lives in Ethiopia and six other countries: Chad, Zaire, Uganda, Zambia and Somalia (Ramakrishna and Assefa, 2002). Though the reasons behind are too

many, several families across the country do not have access to enough food either physically or financially hence, remaining food insecure and vulnerable. According to a recent study conducted by Ministry of Finance and Economic Development (MOFED), (2002), on the poverty situation in the country, based on the 1999/2000 household income consumption expenditure survey, the proportion of population who were absolutely poor was 44.2 percent out of which 37 percent was in urban areas and the remaining in rural areas.

In addition to the coping mechanisms developed and adapted by the affected families, the government has implemented and still is doing so various programs and projects which are specific to problem spots so as to release the families from the prevailing challenges. Since the tragic 1983 to 1984 famine, the policy response to this threat has been predominately a series of ad hoc emergency appeals for food aid and other forms of assistance. Though these have succeeded in averting mass starvation, especially among the asset-less, they have not banished the threats of further famine and they did not prevent asset depletion by marginally poor HHs affected by adverse rainfall shocks (Gilligan, et. al., 2008).

In response to persistence problem of both transient and chronic food insecurity in the country, reliance on food aid has been taken as a tradition by the government and its partners in the past two decades or so. Disaster prevention and preparedness commission has been handling the needs of both acute and chronic food insecure population through its annual crop assessment though its appeal did not differentiate between chronic and acute food insecurity either in-terms of need or response employment based (Clay et al., 1999 cited in Fekadu, 2007; Subbarao, et al., 2003).

However, the number of individuals in need of emergency food assistance rose from approximately 2.1 million people in 1996 to 13.2 million in 2003 before falling back to 7.1 million in 2004 (World Bank, 2004 cited in Gilligan, et al., 2008). Different studies on FFW/CFW programs show the perpetuation of dependency and poverty and problem of targeting that mainly based on “conventional wisdom” assisting HHs in drought-prone areas (Sharp et al., 2006). As a response to such drawbacks on an emergency humanitarian aid which could not bring about sustainable solution on the livelihood of the vulnerable beneficiaries, the Ethiopian Government has launched a new program called Productive Safety Net Program (PSNP), meant to address the most chronically food insecure and vulnerable HHs at Woreda level.

As a result of the weakness of the response measures, the Government along with a consortium of donors started the program in 2005 that aims at reaching more than seven million people with operational annual budget of nearly 500 million USD which is the largest social protection program operating in SSA currently outside of South Africa (Gilligan, et. al., 2008). Different studies on social protection interventions appreciated and even recommended a switch from annual emergency response to multi-year resource transfer to chronic food insecure HHs (Fekadu, 2007). So the study focuses on the implementation of the PSNP at Woreda level.

The program has been designed to target the chronically food insecure poor HHs through transfers in two ways: Public Works (PW) and Direct Support (DS) with the objectives of protecting depletion and gradual creation of assets of those targeted beneficiaries and creation of communal assets by labor intensive project of the PW. Implementation manual for the program (PIM) was prepared so as to guide the implementation procedures in terms of targeting, wage transfer, public work, institutional arrangements, and graduation of those targeted beneficiaries from the program later on upon their recovery or progress based on the guide line.

As it is newly introduced, the program has been facing several challenges on its course of implementation as it is new in its nature. Targeting and its associated procedures, PWs, graduation, and transfer are some of the programs aspects being challenged. Towards its improvement, assessment attempts on its progress have been made by several scholars to come up with some inputs as clues for the amendments and academic purposes. However, these studies have not addressed the gaps mentioned above. Among the gaps remaining unaddressed are graduation of beneficiaries, level of participation and decision making role by the community while targeting, mix up of different HH members in to one HH system and dilution, practical feasibility of PWs pre-focused and the way assets are created or prevented from depletion. So these are areas in need for further investigation. Anni- Lemmo Woreda is one of the targeted areas in Hadiya Zone, in Southern Nations, Nationalities and People's Regional State, among others, identified to be food insecure and packaged in to the PSNP. As it is true for other areas the Woreda faces implementation problems and it has been selected for this study purposively.

Woredas are assigned the grass roots implementation responsibility where the ultimate clients are there as per designed procedures. To make the program effective and the efforts fruitful to their end, the

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targeting of beneficiaries must be accurate so that the resources being transferred or delivered would yield what has been intended and the problems could be solved relatively. However, the selection of eligible households; transfer procedures; PWs focused, graduation of beneficiaries seems compromised both technically and administratively. So the research work tends to investigate the implementation points or hierarchies where the defects has been exercised in terms of participation; targeting; transferring; graduation; public works undertaking for their asset building and technical feasibility to the participants. In addition, the progress of the beneficiaries and graduated HHs on asset prevention from depletion and building since their involvement in the program was assessed.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

1.3.1 General Objectives

The study tries to investigate the procedures on targeting, PWs, graduation, assets creation and their prevention from depletion, transfer procedures of the targeted beneficiaries in line with the PIM in Anni- Lemmo Woreda, Hadiya zone.

1.3.2 Specific Objectives

The study tries to:

1. Describe the nature of the targeting, level of participation and eligibility of beneficiaries;
2. Examine the transferring trend of wages and support to the beneficiaries;
3. Assess the progress of beneficiaries and graduated HHs for their trends on asset creation and prevention from depletion;
4. Identify types of gaps on implementation's reference being experienced both technically and administratively;
5. Assess technical and practical feasibility of identified PWs.

1.4 Research Questions

1. What are the targeting procedures, level of participation and eligibility of targeted beneficiaries?
2. What are transfer procedures being followed?
3. How is the progress on the asset formulation and prevention from depletion of the beneficiaries and graduates of the program?

4. What procedural implementation gaps are being experienced?
5. To what extent the identified PWs are feasible for the local labors, and are creating and preventing both community and beneficiaries assets?

1.5 Significance of the Study

This study endeavors to generate relevant data on the challenges that are facing the implementation of the program such that hindering achieving its goal. As the study tends to assess issues on targeting, transfer, participation and others, the results are expected to be substantial inputs for both researchers and academicians. Researchers and Local Development Students can get first hand information on Woreda's implementation which they can use for further investigation elsewhere in the country if the program is to be launched. Besides, policy makers, planners, and other practitioners such as non-governmental organizations involving on local development and intervention issues may find the study, with other related studies, a resource for further commitment and amendments. In general, the study would generate inputs or solutions to the problems under investigations for the problems facing its implementation; promotes the frontiers of knowledge by adding to or enriching to the existing knowledge; encourages other scholars to undertake further studies in the area; and may throws light on what has been a grey area about the problem, particularly if little or nothing has been known about it.

1.6 Methodology

The research employed both qualitative and quantitative approaches so as to collect, organize, process, interpret and present data. The design was a cross- sectional with descriptive type. The source of data were both primary and secondary types from which data were collected using instruments such as field observations, key informant, focused group discussions, and questionnaires. While selecting the area for the case of this study, proximity of the Woreda (in consideration to time and financial shortages), personal acquaintance with the locality which the researcher to get access to valuable data are taken into account as a criteria. Hence, Anni- Lemmo Woreda, in Hadiya Zone, SNNP is selected purposely. The research design employed for the study was cross- sectional type as qualitative interview, focused group discussions, and household surveys on current issues about HHs were held for data collection.

1.6.1 Methods of Data Collection

The study, progressed with, is a type that necessitating the use of both qualitative and quantitative data collection methods. Data collection procedures to go throughout this study encompassed: beneficiary

household survey, focus group discussion (FGD), and key informant interviews. Source of secondary was reports on PSNP progress of the Woreda and sample kebeles of the study area. Program implementation manuals were used as a source of data. Other field observations were included for enrichment. Hence data were gathered by structured and semi-structured questionnaires and field observation. Furthermore, audio-recorder device (tape recorder) was used to capture qualitative information while holding interviews to enrich HH survey data.

1.6.2 Sampling Techniques and Sample Sizes

Survey Population: the program has been launched in twenty seven kebeles in the Woreda by targeting a total beneficiary HHs of 10,792 from which a total of 518 HHs have been graduated during 2007 and 2008 implementation periods. By now the total number of beneficiaries is 10,274 from which 9557 HHs are under PW and the remaining 717 are under DS categories. The beneficiaries included to participate in PW are 2430 headed, (1787 males and 643 females) while the DS are 484 heads representing 300 males and 417 females. The survey population, therefore were those from current beneficiary and graduated household heads (HHHs).

Unit of Analysis: the information was collected from that current beneficiary and graduated household heads (HHHs) hence the HHHs were unit of analysis from PWs.

Sampling Technique: Three kebeles were drawn from the twenty- seven beneficiary kebeles in the Woreda using simple random sampling technique. This was followed by sample household heads selection from PW inclusion categories proportionately using stratified sampling technique, for the interest of addressing gender, from each sampled kebeles beneficiaries list. Stratification is made to address female headed households in the sample proportionality.

Sample Size: as the thumb rule's dictation, the representative sample size is about ten percent of the total population. This study, however, treated 25 percent of the total household heads in the three kebeles both from current PWs participants and graduates of the program. Accordingly, 71 HHHs, 50 males and 21 females from PW participants and 20 graduated HHHs were sampled, making a total of 91 HHHs. As it is done for PWs participants stratification is applied for the selection of graduated HHH's respondents Kebeles from which HHs sampled for the generation of data are described below by table 1.1 which shows sampling frame for HH survey.

Table 1.1 Sampling Frame for HH Survey

PA Sampled	Beneficiaries' Profile of Sampled PAs														
	Totally Targeted			Targeted for PWs						Graduated from PSNP					
	M	F	T	Total			Heads			Total			Heads		
				M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
Debub-Fonko	214	208	422	196	179	375	77	11	88	39	3	7	14	1	15
Dulancho-Bellela	266	175	451	257	166	433	59	36	95	47	2	7	17	0	17
Mirab Anna-Lemmo	98	106	204	96	101	197	48	10	58	29	1	4	13	0	13
Total	578	489	1077	549	456	1005	184	57	241	115	7	1	44	1	45
											8	9			
												1			

Source: Anni-Lemmo Woreda ARDO, 2008 PSNP beneficiaries' profile

Table 1.2 Size of Sampled HHHs for HH survey

PA	Sample Category							Total Sample Size		
	PWs			Graduates						
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	
Debub-Fonko	22	7	29	8	1	9	30	8	38	
Dulancho-Bellela	16	11	27	7	0	7	23	11	34	
Mirab Anna-Lemmo	12	3	15	4	0	4	16	3	19	
Total	50	21	71	19	1	20	69	22	91	

Source: Anni-Lemmo Woreda ARDO, 2008 PSNP beneficiaries' profile

1.6.3 Data Collection Instruments

Questionnaires: The questionnaires designed by the researcher to gather data were organized to possess targeting process and level of participation; transfer procedures, amount, types, distance of collection and time; household progress; compatibility of PWs to the beneficiaries skill level. It then, was translated in to local language and administered by trained enumerators. The administration process of the instrument has been seriously made independently by the researcher. For the household information questionnaires which are semi-structured, were used for interviewing. Similarly, key informants and focused group discussions were to be held using them. For the purpose of administration they translated into local language.

Focus Group Discussion (FGD): This was discussion carried out to cross-check the information obtained from survey households. A group of participants from the non- beneficiaries and another group from targeted beneficiaries who were not included in the sample were also arranged for discussion. The two groups arranged for the discussion were made to have eight members each with four males and four females. Discussions were held on issues like inclusion and exclusion problems; creation of community assets by PW beneficiaries; influence of kebele administrators during selection of HHs; progress of the beneficiaries since their involvement in the program; social relation aspects between beneficiaries and non- beneficiaries so that data obtained is used for further enrichment and complementing the information from beneficiary HHs. Check lists facilitated by the researcher has been prepared in local language to provide a framework within which discussions held so as to explore in depth perception on the program.

Key Informant Interviews: Individuals and departments who are expected to have background and information on the program were contacted and interviewed. The group was arranged to have eight members. Experts from Food Security and Natural Resource Development Coordination Departments; Development Agents; and kebele leaders were interviewed through unstructured questionnaires on the program progress. In addition, compatibility of PWs to beneficiaries, integration of departments within sector, integration of PW activities as a component of Woreda's plan, were contents included.

Field Observation: Observations on public works, transfer procedures and physical conditions of the beneficiaries on field while the beneficiaries were working and receiving their transfer has been made to triangulate information and data collected.

1.6.4 Method of Data Analysis

The study employed both qualitative and quantitative tools of data analysis. The data collected using the instruments above was organized, coded, and condensed into subsections. The results of the study were summarized and presented using tables and percentages. Further statistical procedures were not employed for the analysis as the study was not meant to explore the possible interdependence between the likely interplaying variables from the side of beneficiaries.

1.7 Delimitation and Scope of the Study

The study was conducted at Anni- Lemmo Woreda, Hadiya Zone in SNNPRS. Three kebeles: Debub Fonko, Mirab Anna-Lemmo, and Dulancho Belella were sample Peasant Associations (PAs) where the data were generated. PSNP beneficiaries, PWs, targeting, progress of the beneficiaries of the program; transfer procedures; participation and integration of PW (Physical) with Woreda's plan are some issues assessed since onset of the program in the area.

1.8 Organization of the Thesis

The thesis is organized into five chapters. Chapter one is an introductory part providing background information in general and food insecurity aspects of Ethiopia case in particular, including statement of the problem, objectives and research questions. Significance of the study; methodology and methodological issues; and scope of the study are also aspects dealt with under this chapter. Chapter two takes its part for dealing with related literature review. Concepts and definitions related to safety-nets are dealt with. The chapter also is dealing with the Ethiopian food insecurity, famine and poverty aspects and intervention measures taken by the government including the PSNP currently redesigned to pursue. Chapter three is to deal with study area. Results and discussions are put under the fourth chapter. Finally, chapter five is taking up its part for conclusions and recommendations.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURES

This chapter deals with related and relevant issues under the study. It is divided into three parts. Part one overviews general concepts; classification and benefits of safety nets; considerations on design and implementation of social security or welfare and social safety nets are aspects to be taken up. Besides, overviews on food insecurity, famine, poverty, and intervention and policy measures made as response are described briefly. Part two and three are dealing with conceptual framework and empirical literatures respectively.

2.1 Emergence and Concepts: An Overview

2.1.1 Social Safety Nets

In many African countries and elsewhere, the emergence of Social Safety Nets has been favored and taken as a popular policy response as a result of economic shocks triggered. It is then followed and strengthened by the adoption of structural adjustment program that yielded adverse effects in the aftermath during the 1980s. As the programs are short-term reactions oriented mainly into buffering actions, though some of them are developmental and long-term, a momentum has been made for a new direction or program, of course that incorporates safety nets-social protection-a program which seeks a renewed state role and involvement; emphasizes a longer-term developmental approach; and includes social assistance and social insurance which is often advocated as a right rather than a reactive form of reactive relief(Adato, et al.,2004; Devereux,2001; Subbarao, et al.,1997).

They are hence set of programs and policies objectively done by the public and/or private sectors in response to various contingencies to offset the absence or substantial reduction of income, disturbance in wellbeing and shocks in livelihoods of individuals or HHs who need the intervention so that they are protected from the adverse outcomes of both chronic and transient poverty (Adato, et al., 2004; Mutangadura, n. d.; Subbarao, et al., 1997; Wikipedia, 2009). Even though they have been adopted as a system of state welfare programs in a more structured and organized way predominantly during the 19th and early 20th Centuries in many countries, the traditional history and trend of social safety nets are traced very long back to the dates. In the Roman Empire, for example, social welfare was enlarged by Caesar Trajan to help the poor. Similarly, in the Jewish tradition, the poor are entitled to charity, which is represented by justice, as a matter of right rather than benevolence. Contemporary charity is regarded as a continuation of the Biblical Maaser Ani, or poor-tithe, and as well as Biblical practices including

permitting the poor glean the corners of a field, harvest during Shmita or Sabbatical year, and other practices(Wikipedia,2009).

They were also included in the early Islamic Law of the Caliphates as forms of Zakat-charity-and recognized as one of the five pillars of Islam, since the time of the Abbasid Caliph Al-Mansur in the Eighth Century to be financed for the needy through tax sources of the Islamic Government treasury. Though there has been little statistical data until at least the High Middle Ages, the function of welfare payments or transfers in Europe was achieved by private giving or charity during the Medieval Period and until the Industrial Revolution. In England, the programs were institutionalized and given legal framework-under the English Poor Law of 1601-which gave the responsibility to Parishes so as to provide welfare payments to the poor(Ibid).

Social safety nets can be defined as income insurance to reverse livelihood shocks and stresses caused by drought, illness, unemployment or displacement during a war (Devereux, 2001). The same source indicates that in the face of intense fiscal austerity and donor conditionality, governments abolished universal price subsidies to food producers and consumers often at great political cost- and replaced these with narrowly targeted food or cash transfers for specific “vulnerable groups”, or self- targeted public works projects for the rural poor. Although this definition is given by Devereux, it is not a universally accepted definition to the term, as its definition depends upon the type of intervention, country contexts, themes and target groups as well as current thinking of specialists and practitioners on the role of safety net in the broader development agenda (Tefera, 2007). Accordingly, World Bank (1990) defines social safety nets as some form of income insurance to help people through short term stress and calamities.

Subbarao et al., (1997) defines safety nets as programs which protect a person or household against two adverse outcomes in welfare: chronic incapacity to work and earn (chronic poverty); and a decline in this capacity from a marginal situation that provides minimal livelihood for survival with few reserve (transient poverty) which was the two- pronged approach supported by Lipton (1997), who suggests that safety nets should target “poor people which health or age prevents work, or who are made unemployed by vagaries of climate or market demand- both the working poor and non- working dependents”. The Wikipedia free encyclopedia (2009) also defines social safety nets as “non- contributory transfer programs seeking to prevent the poor or those vulnerable to shocks and poverty from falling below a

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certain poverty level which can be provided by the public sector (state and aid donors) or by the private sector (NGOs, private firms, charities, and informal household transfer”).

The notion of safety nets, which became more broadly conceived during the 1990s, is now the term often interchangeably used with social security or social welfare program, which is a program consisting of actions or procedures- especially on the part of governments and institutions- striving to promote the basic well being of individuals in need. These efforts usually strive to improve the financial situation to people in need but may also strive to improve their employment chances and many other aspects of their lives including some times their mental health. In many countries, most such aid is provided by family members, relatives, and the local community and is only theoretically available from government sources (Wikipedia, 2009).

2.1.2 Classification of Safety Nets

Safety net programs can be provided to the target groups who are in need from different sources with the aim of intervention for different reasons. Hence, based on the source that the resource for the purpose of transfer is coming from, in any of its form, is divided in to two categories: formal and informal safety nets. They are measures that protect people, who are in need, both from the worst effects of low income and poverty (World Bank, 2000).

Formal transfers or safety nets, also referred to as public transfers, are transfers that are provided by the public sector or state. The transfer comes from state or government, aid donor, and NGOs with the purpose of redistribution of income, food and commodities towards the poor and vulnerable which ranges from ad hoc relief interventions to permanent social welfare programs. They include a broad range of mechanisms for protecting individuals from acute deprivation or inadvertent declines in income. The intervention measures include, among others, direct cash transfers; food subsidies; feeding programs; public works and other employment programs; credit based self-employment programs; social funds and related interventions; and child allowances (Subbarao, 2003). The main aim of the transfer is to redistribute resources and thus to reduce chronic poverty or to protect the beneficiaries against risks, which may be posed by disease, loss of employment, drought, conflict, financial crises, or macroeconomic adjustments, to their livelihoods (Adato, et al., 2004).

The second category is the informal safety net, also called private sector safety nets. They are supports given to the poor informally within extended families and communities in the form of remittances and charities. Stakeholders involved in the provision are private firms, charities, communities, NGOs, relatives, and household members. Here resources are transferred to the needy as intervention measures that would help to mitigate deprivation and temporary income shortfalls (Devereux, 2001; Wikipedia, 2009; Tassew, 2004 cited in Tefera, 2007). The transfers are delivered through different mechanisms.

2.1.3 The need for Safety Nets and Transfers

A transfer is any donation in the form of cash or commodities that is given either free or as subsidy. Any form of safety net programs and its transfer always hold some justifications behind. Thus, the possible justifications why safety nets and transfers are needed are disaggregated into three. These are moral (for humanitarian crises and equity), economic (market failure) and political rationale (for public pressure and interest groups) (Devereux, 2001; Fekadu, 2007). The specific option to choose in between however, depends on the objectives of the intervention and the capacity of the state and/or donors to implement it. To begin with moral or humanitarian justification, the goal or objective behind the effort is the removal or reduction of deprivation or vulnerability (Burgess and Stern, 1991, Cited in Fekadu, 2007). In normal times, the aim of redistribution within any society is to downturn inequality and relative poverty while it is to save lives in emergency contexts which is more of fundamental public actions.

The second rationale for transfers and safety nets is market failure which calls for interventions. Poor countries exhibit several kinds of market failure of different kinds and they focus on safety nets as an intervention measure to correct the failure accordingly. According to Devereux (2001) failures that markets experience includes:

Failure on commodity (food and asset) markets- under this condition emergency interventions (such as famine relief) are needed because of poverty and the inability of markets, especially in isolated rural areas, either to deliver food to drought- or flood- affected people at reasonable cost, or to offer reasonable prices for those assets (such as livestock) that the poor can sell to buy food;

Failure on labor markets- labor markets are weak in developing countries because of the seasonality of labor demand in rural areas and, limited formal employment opportunities in both rural and urban

areas, which channels people into the informal sector and self-employment. Hence to address this type of market failure, EBSN (PWS) are attempted or practiced;

Failure on capital markets- capital markers (such as borrowing and savings facilities), are virtually non-existent in poor rural areas due to reasons, hence hampering income transfer between time periods for consumption smoothing purposes. To overcome such a failure, safety nets can be routed to the rural poor to help them buffer their income problem; and

Failure of insurance- markets fail to protect people against the consequences of livelihood shocks as insurance markets are absent in most of developing countries. Such shocks otherwise are protected by crop and unemployment insurance. For example, a severe drought which would require insurance payout to thousands of farmers, can affect rural society. As an offset to this effect, safety nets can be carried out.

The final set of justifications for safety nets and transfers is that of political, which is exercised to address public pressure and interest groups. Powerful pressure groups, such as the urban middle class, the military or bureaucrats can pressurize governments introducing food subsidies and other policies that benefit these groups as much as-or more than-the poor and vulnerable. Here, the case of Ethiopia, such as provision of food grain in urban areas at lower prices on a monthly basis, can be best mentioned though it was insignificant. On the other hand, the government may come in to power with an explicit mandate to redress historical injustices, so that poverty reduction may become its policy priorities, as the case for India's anti- famine contract (Devereux, 2001).

2.1.4 Modes of Resource Transfers in Safety Net Program

Once the need for safety program as an intervention measure is recognized, it is important to identify an appropriate route and system which can deliver the resource at disposal effectively and efficiently to the target group. However, selecting an appropriate intervention depends on the objective of the intervention and the country's capacity to handle the program (Devereux, 2001). During famines, for example, the objective of intervention is to keep people alive, hence food aid becomes an essential measure, while during non- emergency context, the objective of a national food security and nutrition policy will be to reduce vitamin deficiency that may seek micronutrient supplementation as an intervention strategy.

As mentioned above, the choice between existing alternatives for intervention must also be matched to the country's capacity to implement it. The country's capacity to implement among intervention is again a function of several factors: including cash and food resources availability; social infrastructure; markets; human resource and political and social considerations (Ibid). In general, the application of transfers and safety nets takes two approaches: food- based transfers and income- based transfers and below is their brief.

2.1.4.1 Food- Based Transfers or Safety Nets

These are alternative forms of safety net programs which has associated with the 'dumping' of North American and European food surpluses in developing countries in the 1950's and 1960's. Such an attachment has made food aid to be a controversial instrument of aid and foreign policy. Although food aid is commonly thought of as an emergency relief intervention, a significant proportion of food transfers to poor countries in SSA and elsewhere are made in the form of program support or food aid projects.

Furthermore, until the late 1980's, in fact, program food aid was the dominant category of food aid provided worldwide though the emergency relief dominated in the 1990s because of the rising number of humanitarian crisis involving a large number of people (Shaw and Clay, 1993; WFP, 1998a cited in Devereux, 2001). The food- based transfers comprise sets or varieties of modes to transfer or deliver the intervention to the target group(s). Accordingly, FFW, supplementary feeding, and school feeding are its alternatives, which are to be implemented differently for different contexts. The following are some details about food-based transfers.

Food- for-Work: is a type of intervention project having two elements and objectives at the same time. The elements are food- and work while the objectives are "entitlement protection" through transfer of food in the short-term and "entitlement promotion" through creation of lasting assets that has sustainable food security benefits. Public works can be implemented either in "normal times" (as with Ethiopian EGS) or during emergencies (as one component of drought relief program as the case in Namibia). Hence these projects, as they are labor-intensive PWs, provided employment opportunities for millions of people throughout Africa (Wikipedia, 2009; Devereux, 2001; Fekadu, 2007).

Although labor-intensive PWS through Africa has been experienced (such as in Botswana, Cape Verde, and Lesotho), the largest FFW project in Africa is WFP's project Ethiopia 2488- titled 'Rehabilitation and Development of Rural Lands and Infrastructure' with the objective of increasing farmers' income and improving their food security through stabilizing land productivity and development of infrastructure.

Supplementary Feeding: are other projects attempted to address the long-term problems caused by chronic food deficits, usually targeted at malnourished or at-risk children under five, and expectant women and nursing mothers with the aim of having both an immediate and a lifelong beneficial impact as succinctly expressed by (Sen, 1997).

School Feeding: One of the food-based transfers interventions with benefits to the individual and to society as a sound basic education are uncontested, and school feeding programs are justified as a means of attracting children from poor families to school. It is also justified as a means of increasing their cognitive abilities in class, since hungry children cannot concentrate or perform as effectively as well-nourished ones (Wikipedia, 2009; Devereux, 2001).

2.1.4.2 Income- Based Transfers or Safety Nets

These are the second alternative approach of safety net program. They can be made directly, in the form of cash handouts; or indirectly, in the form of price subsidies on goods and services.

Direct income transfers: are transfers given as social pensions to elderly and cash grants to the destitute. Cash transfers are defined as the provision of assistance in the form of cash to the poor or to those who face a probable risk of falling into poverty in its absence with the objective of increasing real income of poor and vulnerable households. Though the World Bank (1997, cited in Devereux, 2001) asserts for its nonexistence, social safety nets programs in the form of cash transfers are practiced in Africa, of course with unusual trend due to reasons. The reasons to be dealt with are: administrative and political feasibility, collateral effects, costs of beneficiary identification, and efficiency of tailoring the program to specific program.

Considering the transferring trend in SSA, which is rare, South Africa, Namibia, and Botswana have non-contributory 'social pensions' for all of their elderly citizens, while it is exercised by Mozambique to destitute families in urban areas, which is coordinated by Office for Assistance to the Vulnerable

Population, an Office known by its Portuguese acronym “GAPVU” established in September following the abolition of food price subsidies (Devereux, 2001).

Indirect income transfers: are also income transfers to the needy in different forms. The common approach include *food price subsidies*: open- ended and untargeted price subsidies applied to staple food items that are consumed more by the poor than rich for equity reasons. Similarly, it has two positive effects on household food security: it reduces the price of the item relative to other food and non- food goods and it increases the households’ overall purchasing power (Wikipedia, 2009; Devereux, 2001). The government then delivers the subsidy through different mechanisms such as food import and selling at lower prices, buying food locally and selling at lower cost when prices rise, and by legislating ceiling prices.

Table 2.1 Generalized summaries on modes of the program’s interventions

Targeting	Food	Income	Nutrition
Targeted	• Food stamps for the poor • Food aid programs • Supplementary feeding for vulnerable groups	• Cash transfer ‘safety nets’ • Unemployment benefits • Disability grants • Social pension for the elderly	• Weaning food for low-income families. • Vitamin and mineral supplements for specified groups
Untargeted	• General food price subsidy • Overvalued exchange rate for imported food	• Universal child benefit	• Water flouridization
Self-targeted	• Food- for- work programs • Price subsidy on inferior foods	• Cash-for-work program	• Iodization of salt

Source: Devereux, 2001

2.1.5 Importance of Safety Nets

Safety nets have a wide range of benefits to the poor and as well as the non-poor at both local and national levels which are expressed in terms of moral, economic, social, and political advantages. Accordingly, Devereux (2001), Barr (1994), and Benabou (1996) have indicated its importance on redistribution of resources so as to reduce inequality and relative poverty at normal times. On the other hand, it protects the poor and vulnerable from poverty and deprivation through transfer of resources in both short and long-run basis. These are the two aspects to be treated as moral or humanitarian contributions. The argument made by them is to indicate that safety net program can raise the welfare of

the poor and the non- poor if the society is averse or to the opposite side of inequality. Redistribution, however, need not be at the expense of growth, and there are cases where redistributive policies have led to growth enhancements (Fekadu, 2007). Adato et al., (2004) on their part argue the same that safety nets not only can reduce poverty in the short-term, but also contribute to a broader development strategy if coupled with the long-term approaches which are taken by social protection programs.

The second dimension of the program is its importance on market failure (the economic part), where safety net expenditures often serve to correct allocation of resources where there is information imperfection, public goods or externalities and absence of insurance markets. The intervention then rescues the beneficiary from resort for using short- run coping strategies, such as sale of assets in times of crises, and so they will be left better off in the long run. The correction measures against market failure through different mechanisms reduce the vulnerability of the poor to income shocks enabling them to invest in their human and physical capital: education and machinery (Barr, 1994; Benabou, 1996; Devereux, 2001).

Another justification behind the importance of safety nets is their political economy. Subbarao and Smith (2003) identified that the poor may be empowered to be engaged in the process of policy making both locally and nationally if provided with social assistance. This assistance may reduce the probability of socially inefficient political decisions made solely for the benefits of elites or certain special interest groups, or other types of failure in politics. Furthermore, the involvement of the poor in the policy making process can have self-enforcement effects and it shows the government's commitment or efforts towards reducing poverty and its perception that the poor are recognized incentives for political organization, thus raising support for the government in the long run. However, Devereux(2001), argues that powerful pressure groups, such as the urban middle class, the military or bureaucrats can pressurize governments into introducing food subsidies and other policies that would benefit them as much as- or more than- the poor and vulnerable. The government itself may come into power explicitly mandated to redress historical injustices, so that poverty reduction is one of its policy priorities.

Another group of protagonists about the safety net program also assert its importance on provision of social cohesion which calls for market- based reforms. Rodrik (1998) and Sala-i-Martin (1997) argue and exemplify that at times of macroeconomic crises or adjustment processes, when hard economic

decisions are likely often to be made, the society may be organized or marched up to claim the government for its intervention against market conditions which are not conducive to them. The social cohesion then may be recognized and gets its political acceptability hence urges the authority for market-based reforms to be made in the aftermath which would be a path for the country's sustainable development.

In general, the importance of the safety net program can be summarized in terms of saving lives and generating employment opportunity, building infrastructure, protecting assets, improving nutrition, creating investment behavior, promoting agricultural production and marketing, promoting informal transfers, crowding out of illegal money lenders that abuse the poor, and environmental protection through soil and water conservation (SWC) activities. However, creating dependency by the beneficiaries is the opposite side of the program to be considered as negative impact (Tefera, 2007; Devereux, 2000). Concerning dependency Devereux (2000) in his study entitled "Food Insecurity in Ethiopia" quotes a popular saying in Ethiopia: reads as

"It does not matter if it is raining here if it is raining in Canada," which is a sense of absolute dependency and reflection for the absence of readiness for self-help initiation and helplessness.

2.1.6 Challenges Facing Safety Net Program Implementation

As the rationales behind the program's importance are categorized into moral, economic and political, the choice between alternatives as an intervention measure varies based on the objectives to be met and country's context. Similarly, the implementation of the program faces challenges of various types. Based on case studies on safety net program implementation experienced in less developed countries, Smith and Subbarao (2003) recognized four factors to constrain the programs generally. These are information, administrative capacity, political decision, and fiscal affordability, and their brief description is taken up below.

Information: an appropriate selection of beneficiaries requires substantial information that is not often made available and is extremely expensive to acquire. Criteria such as income, or demographic characteristics such as household size (for example for child allowances) or age (for pension) are used to select those who should be beneficiary of a program, which also resents problems of verification. An alternative in cases where income is not known is to derive "proxy" indicators like HH demographic

characteristics, educational status, family- planning program data on HH characteristics (though it will not be always available), or the type of dwelling attributes, which are highly correlated with poverty. Nonetheless, the problem is that even these attributes may not be known in very poor countries, or (and perhaps more likely) the capacity may not be there to assess them accurately.

Administrative constraints: the capacity to manage complex programs is limited in low- income countries in general. Activities such as management, accounting, logistical and financial control systems are all typically weak; and skilled human power is poor and rarely available adequately. Where the information base is weak, and there is not a tradition of "playing by the rules", substantial middle- level supervision is needed to avoid leakage, to manage distribution, and to administer targeting. Targeted programs are also intensive in their use of outreach staff and especially of field- level supervisors. Finally, in choosing a program, there is a need to explore the scope for using already existing administrative systems. For instance, delivering a nutrition program through the existing network of health posts and workers may be preferable to establishing a new system; similarly, using the government's existing rural works and maintenance programs may be administratively feasible and may be preferable to establishing a new system PWs program apparatus.

Fiscal constraint: perhaps the biggest constraint to safety nets in very low-income countries is sheer affordability because they are resource poor. In these countries, public spending is very low with an average of about US \$75 per person per year. At the same time the competing claims for essential development investments are over whelming. In those countries, capacity of education is critically insufficient; road net works are least developed; and water supply and essential health service coverage is low.

Political constraint: The last but not least, identified constraint of safety net program is political constraint. This is because the resource being used would be fruitful if it is targeted to the appropriate point. Under a program in Rajasthan, in the 1970s for example, communities were allocated funds to transfer to the ten poorest families in each village and were forced to publicly select and announce the households that would receive benefits. Though the program was successful in targeting the poorest, it ultimately collapsed due to erosion of political support (the very poorest constituting too narrow political base to be worth supporting on a prolonged basis). In a drought recovery program in Malawi in 1995to1996 the committee decided to give a small amount to everyone rather than risk, difficult and

controversial decisions about who should be included and who left out. Another argument by Devereux (2001) on challenges facing safety net program identified as logistical constraints, financial constraints and political instability.

2.1.7 Aspects on Design and Implementation of Safety Nets

As the resources to be delivered are expected to address the needy so as to bring about changes on their livelihoods there are some aspects to be considered to make an intervention effective. Unless these issues are addressed properly, any effort on the program may not bear fruit. According to (Wikipedia, 2009, Devereux, 2001, and Subbarao, et al., 1997) some of the aspects requiring due attention are as follows.

Targeting: in every society there are some individuals who are able to take advantages of emerging opportunities better than the others, while others are more vulnerable to chronic or transient declines in income. Individuals are likely to be at a disadvantaged side in various situations such as if they are: most prone to unpredictable sharp falls in real spending power; least likely to have formal insurance; and least likely to be attractive to informal insurance groups (such as reciprocal savings or insurance societies). Thus the poor are most likely to be in need of safety nets that are likely to turn their production and consumption behavior towards risk avoidance instead of risk income maximization, as they often cannot afford to be entrepreneurial and may remain underproductive and poor, in the absence of publicly supported safety nets (Subbaroa et.al., 1977). Targeting is considered beneficial if it increases the efficiency of antipoverty programs of course entailing costs- administrative, incentive (deadweight) stigma and political costs (Ibid). The justification behind this idea is that the leakage of resources to the non poor should be minimized so that excluded and the most needy and vulnerable would be addressed with cost efficiency.

When any dealing on safety nets is raised, the first consideration in focus is identifying the group to get the benefits, which is targeting. Targeting is therefore, defined as any mechanism for identifying “needy individuals and screening out the “non-needy”, typically by defining eligibility criteria. Key questions for decision makers concerned with transferring resources or establishing safety net programs for food insecure HHs include: the number of people who are food insecure; their category and the way or strategy to reach out them. Defining and estimating the numbers of intended beneficiaries for a safety net program is generally straight forward: drought- affected farmers; the poor (e.g. people living on less than a dollar a day); and the “ultra-poor” (people who consume less than 80 percent of the recommended

daily allowance(RDA), despite spending more than 80 percent of their income on food). More problematic than defining the target group in theory is identifying them in practice which raises the issue of targeting.

However, this is expensive, and explains why targeted interventions generally carry higher administrative costs than untargeted interventions. Rogers (1995, cited in Devereux, 2001) observes: 'the objective of targeting is to reduce leakage of program benefits so as to reduce costs and improve cost- effectiveness... of course without denying the fact that the targeting activity by itself entails costs. Similarly, the Wikipedia free encyclopedia (2009), states that the main objective of targeting is to deliver more resources to the poorest groups of the population. The same source also indicates that targeting is a tool with its costs and benefits. Hence, decisions about whether to target, how precise to be and what method to use will depend on the relative size of these costs and benefits, which will vary by setting.

Targeting introduces two types of errors: *exclusion*- failing to reach all those in need of assistance- and *inclusion*- leakages of benefits to the "non- needy". In practice, however, there is often a trade- off between the two categories: with untargeted interventions (e.g. food price subsidies) inclusion errors are high and exclusion errors are very low; but as targeting increases, inclusion errors fall but exclusion errors rise. As the welfare costs of failing to reach the poor are so high, exclusion errors should be given greater weight than inclusion errors, though policy makers tend to expend great effort in designing targeting mechanisms that would minimize leakages practically (Cornia and Stewart, 1993 cited in Devereux, 2001). In support of their idea, the Wikipedia free encyclopedia(2009) also states that, programs for the most part, must focus resources on the poor to a moderate or high degree without incurring unacceptable high errors of exclusion (excluding poor groups) and cost.

There are several different methods to be used for a particular program resulting in better targeting-from which a few methods of targeting and types of programs go hand- in- hand. These methods include means tests, proxy means tests; community based targeting, geographic area targeting, demographic targeting, and self- targeting (Wikipedia, 2009). According to Grosh (1995, cited in Devereux, 2001), however, targeting mechanisms can be classified into three broad categories: those based on individual assessment of need (e.g. means testing or nutrition status), those that use group characteristics as proxy

indicators of need (an individual's age, sex, disability or geographic location), and self targeting (where needy individuals select themselves).

Concerning individual assessment as a targeting mechanism, it is the most objective and accurate theoretically, but the most difficult and expensive to implement in practice. Individual assessment (or means testing) requires measuring every potential beneficiary's income or nutrition status and comparing this against a minimum standard such as the national poverty line, or to an anthropometric reference tables. However, this method gives moral incentives for the applicants to conceal their incomes and/or exaggerate their hunger- for which the reason close monitoring is essential.

The other mechanism of targeting is the one that uses group characteristics as proxy indicators of need. The approach identifies the common characteristics of the poor people or "vulnerable groups" as indicator of need and it is cheaper than the individual assessment and it is less susceptible to distortion- as an individual's age or sex is more readily observable, and more difficult to conceal or change- than their income or food consumption. Though the approach is as good as the specific proxy selected, it is highly susceptible to both types of targeting errors.

The final mechanism under these category is self- targeting which is in favor of and popular with designers of transfer program because it is cheaper and more accurate than alternative mechanisms. Instead of identifying beneficiaries by costly individual assessment or crude proxy indicators, program designers get the poor to select themselves by raising the cost of accessing the resource transferred relative to its benefits in one of two ways: either by making the value of the transfer is so low that it discourages all but the poorest from applying for it, or the costs of accessing the transfer are prohibitively high for the non- poor.

A mild form of self- targeting is to introduce price subsidies on less preferred food items, which are considered as "poor people's food", to discourage the rich from buying it. PW projects can also best exploit self- targeting by adjusting both elements, since participants are required to work for the transfer- a significant 'access cost' in terms of time and energy expenditure and its value (in cash wages or food rations) is typically set below local wage rates. Thus, potential workers make implicit cost/ benefit calculations before deciding whether it is worthwhile to apply for this employment. However,

any targeting systems should allow new or newly poor households to access the program and move out the ones that are no longer eligible (Wikipedia, 2009).

Determining benefits level: It is the second aspect to be considered while designing and implementation of safety net programs. Benefits may be differentiated by household characteristics such as poverty level, size and composition, or specific needs or behavior as such customization will improve the poverty impact, even if it complicates administration. Available budget allocations will greatly determine the efficacy of safety net programs. Programs with benefits that are too small will have little impact on beneficiaries and administrative costs will be high relative to benefits. Programs with high benefits will have a larger impact on recipient households, but will have a higher fiscal burden; require better design and targeting; and may induce disincentives (Wikipedia, 2009).

Monitoring and Evaluation (M&E): The third and final aspect of consideration in design and implementation of safety net programs is Monitoring and Evaluation (M&E). M & E systems are the hallmark of good program management. A new wave of results- oriented programs, such as conditional cash transfers in Latin America and PWs program (e.g. Argentina, Ethiopia), have developed and used integrated M and E. These programs demonstrate that strong monitoring systems support credible program evaluation and that both provide feedback for improvements in productivity, effectiveness and impact (Wikipedia, 2009).

Program monitoring systems are tools, which regularly supply information about how well a program is working, so that program managers can take actions to improve implementation. Effective monitoring systems require a strategic focus; political support; and adequate skills, management, attention; and information technology. Program evaluation, on the other hand, refers to an external assessment of the program effectiveness that ascertains whether a program meets some standards, estimates its net results or impacts, and/or identifies whether the benefits the program generates outweigh its costs to society. Shortly, it generates evidence that whether programs are well implemented and achieving their intended results, and provides feedback for improvements. The most frequently employed types of evaluation in safety net program include, process evaluation, targeting assessment, and impact evaluation (Ibid).

Devereux (2001) also subscribes two factors to be considered while evaluating any transfers or safety net programs: did it achieve its goals (in terms of its nutritional, poverty or food security impacts); and

about thirty two definitions which have been given to the term, from which the following are mentioned.

1. Food security exists when all people, at all times, have access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food to meet their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life (FAO, 1998).
2. Food security for a HH means access by all members of other HH at all times to enough food for an active and healthy life. It includes at a minimum (i) the ready availability of nutritionally adequate and safe food and (ii) an assured ability to acquire acceptable food in socially acceptable way (that is without resorting to emergency food supplies, scavenging, stealing, or other coping strategies).

The above definitions explicitly mention the need to avail food at the individual and HHs level at all times, rather than the first paradigm on food security and its thinking that focused on attaining food security status at the national level without considering whether or not certain segments of its constituencies are food insecure. On the other hand, the counter part of FS is food insecurity, simply the lack of access to enough food, either chronically or transitory. Temporary or transitory food insecurity is a temporary decline (or shortage) in a country's or household's and/or region within the country's access to enough food, which may result from instability in food productions, food prices, income, etc, which in its continuation or persistence form results into chronic food insecurity. Chronic food insecurity is therefore, the continuous inability either to buy enough food or to produce own food (Salih, 1994).

The question of hunger is one of the most pressing problems that must be solved in the developing world. During the 1970s and 1980s, people in industrialized world were made aware of famine, particularly in Africa, through Television and Newspaper reports of starvation which were accounts of the most acute manifestation of hunger. Famine is a crisis in which starvation from insufficient intake of food is associated sharply with increased death rates (Crow, 1992).

Famine, which is an acute starvation associated with a sharp increase in mortality is however, not the only form of hunger or under nutrition. In many parts of the world where famine has not in recent years, sustained nutritional deprivation is, nevertheless, experienced by a significant proportion of the population. This long-term condition of chronic hunger, which is sustained nutritional deprivation, is rarely given international focus but it may kill more people globally than the acute crisis of famine does

(Ibid). The phenomenon of endemic hunger is much more pervasive, it affects many times the number of people who are threatened by famines. The catastrophe of famine occurs through the widespread breakdown of livelihoods for specific social classes or occupational groups, where as chronic hunger arises through a continuous failure to generate sufficient livelihoods. As such, chronic hunger is one aspect, probably the most fundamental of a wider set of deprivations understood as poverty. Thus chronic hunger and poverty are closely related. It is rare for wealthy households to go hungry, even in a famine, since under nutrition is largely a reflection of poverty (Warnock, 1988 cited in Crow 1992).

Poverty may be defined and measured through different ways, the most common approach being an income- or consumption centered approach. The poor are therefore, identified as having an income (including own production) insufficient to provide a maximum standard of living. It is understood as relative to prevailing social standards, rather than defined at an absolute global level, since there are differences between standards of living in different regions of the world based on their level of advancements. Thus, standards of living are higher within the advanced, industrialized world, and poverty is recognized at a higher level of living or income. Similarly, poverty can be defined in terms of capabilities rather than command over goods. So the basic freedom from poverty is understood in terms of what people can do and what they can be, as an adequate health care, access to clean water and sanitation, and to be a functioning member of a society (Crow, 1992).

Famine in its continuous or persistent form results into chronic hunger which is one aspect of the wider deprivation- poverty- which in turn leads to social exclusion: the broadest dimension of deprivation. In poverty people are deprived of income while in social exclusion they are deprived of several dimensions: economically, socially and politically (Bhalla and Lapeyre, 1999). During the twentieth century, though famine was systematically eradicated from its traditional homes, one after the other: first Russia, then China, then India and Bangladesh, the only region that has not succeeded in ridding off itself from famine is the SSA. Since the mid- 1970s the label 'land of famine' has resided exclusively in Ethiopia and Sudan, and the Horn of Africa remains the last corner of the world where a famine seems destined to occur at least once every few years, which has been the case for food insecurity in the region- as famine is the most extreme manifestation of food insecurity (Devereux, 2001).

Ethiopia, as one of the most famine-prone country in East Africa, has been experiencing food insecurity problems, and has a long history of famines and food shortages that can be traced back to 250BC. Webb and Braun (1994, cited in Ramakrishna and Assefa, 2002) listed 40 periods of such crises chronologically in the country. The first recorded famine goes back to the Ninth Century. Between 1540 and 1742 there were, apparently, more than ten major famines. The so-called "great Ethiopian Famine" hit the country during 1888 to 1892, killing off possibly a third of the total population, which is still remembered as Kifuqan (evil days). In comparison with the great Ethiopian Famine, the famine that the country experienced in 1972to1974 might appear to be a moderate affair, with mortality estimates between 50,000 and 200,000, in a population of about 27 million which was expected to exclude about 100,000 deaths (Sen, 1981). However, another figure available documented for the period is about 350,000 deaths, which supports deaths excluded from the estimate that happened in Wollo and Tigray (Devereux, 2001). The same source also indicates that during 1957to1958 in Tigray and 1966 in Wollo about 250,000 and 50,000 deaths were occurred respectively. Similarly in the two provinces about 350,000 deaths were recorded from 1972to1975 and about 800,000 deaths during 1983to1985 in the country due to drought for the two cases.

Due to the facts that are described above and others the country has been experiencing food insecurity both chronically and transitory. Some empirical findings on the issue unfold that Ethiopia is one of the six countries where more than half of Africa's food insecure people live, with 40to50 percent of total population being food insecure (Ramakrishna and Assefa, 2002). Thus, food insecurity has become one of the defining features; extreme poverty is widespread; making chronic, cyclical and transitory food insecurity all endemic to the country. The major causes for poverty and food insecurity can be conceptualized as: small land holdings, population pressure, land degradation and low soil fertility, recurrent drought, lack of employment opportunities (limited off-farm employment), subsistence agricultural practices characterized by low input and low output, and limited access to services (MoARD, 2006, 2009; Devereux, 2000). As a result more than 38 percent of rural households fall below the food poverty line and 47 percent of children under five suffer from stunting (WMS, 2004/05; DHS, 2005 cited in MoARD, 2009).

2.1.9 Major Intervention and Policy Directions as Response to Food Insecurity and Poverty Reduction in Ethiopia

As the country has exposed to several famines and shocks that struck its citizens, the government on its part has exerted several efforts to avert the problems in short- term and long- term basis. Below are some of the overviews.

2.1.9.1 Food Aid

The rationale for food assistance was gradually expanded in the late 1980s from famine relief to “rehabilitation”, or the use of food aid as a wage pool to recruit labor to build perceived useful local infrastructures. These efforts became popularized and integrated into the food aid programs of both donors and the government to link ‘relief to development’ by the early 1990s (Webb, Braun and Yishac, 1997 cited in Fekadu, 2007). In 1974, the government established the Relief and Rehabilitation Commission (RRC), the currently Disaster Prevention and Preparedness Agency (DPPA), with the mandate of monitoring the incidence of food insecurity across the country and coordinating food aid activities, including those international organizations (NGOs). In 1985, 48 international NGOs were operating relief projects in the country and about 50 were active in the mid- 1990s. Local Churches and other organizations have also been quite active in the relief delivery historically (Ibid).

The 1971to1972 erratic rainfall situation that favored big drought in North- East Ethiopia, particularly in Wollo was largely the result of the main- kiremt- rains, which followed by the near-total failure of the spring- belg- rains in early 1973, and has been the cause for famine due to decline in agricultural production which the time has been signs of developing distress. In December 1972 the Ethiopian Red Cross was already trying to help over a thousand refugees from Wollo who had arrived outside Addis Ababa. Official recognition of the developing famine came, however, very slowly, despite a study done by the Ministry of Agriculture in November 1972 which sounded a note of grim warning indicated its seriousness seems to have been systematically minimized by the government at the early stages (Sen, 1981).

As Sen (1981) witnessed, International Organizations were also rather slow in recognizing the situation as what it was- a severe famine- even though the local UNICEF area Office and the Swedish-financed Ethiopian Nutrition Institute played an important part in the early stages of counter- famine initiatives. Accordingly, the GOE received foreign relief grain donations of 126,000 tones, together with 11,000

tones of 'rehabitable or supplementary foods' between November 1973 and December 1974, from which Wollo and Tigray received 70 percent though their problems were beyond. The food aid intervention in Ethiopia has historically taken two major forms: free distribution, which is sometimes referred to as "emergency" or "relief" distributions and food-for-work, sometimes referred to as "development" food aid.

2.1.9.2 The Food Security Strategy (FSS)

This is also a step forwarded by the government in response to food insecurity and poverty in the country. The strategy was revised in 2002, making agricultural development led industrialization (ADLI) its basis, which is pursued as a major policy framework for development since 1991. ADLI is also considered a basis for poverty reduction strategy process and viewed as the engine for poverty reduction in Ethiopia. While the overall objective of the FSS is to ensure FS at the household level, ADLI is focused on creating the conditions for national food self-sufficiency (FDRE, 2002). The strategy was aimed to address both the supply and the demand sides of the food equation- that is, 'availability' and 'entitlement' respectively from both a national and household level perspectives with specific and particular attention on the diversity of food production zones. Accordingly, the strategy adopted rests on three basic pillars: increasing and ensuring availability and access to food and strengthening capabilities to respond emergency.

The focus on domestic production was largely in dependable rainfall areas, where as the food access pillar was to food insecure areas. Here a range of interventions were envisaged including soil and water management, introduction of drought and pest resistance crops, income diversification (including off-farm incomes) and a move towards cash (as opposed to food) for households needing some form of transfer (FDRE, 2002; MoARD,2009). The strategy was supposed to encompass agricultural production, marketing and credit; Pastoral areas programs; Micro and Small scale Enterprises; and agricultural exports and diversification as its essential elements (FDRE, 2002).

2.1.9.3 The SDPRP and PASDEP Strategies

These are again efforts made towards poverty reduction and FS under the framework of the broadest development policy ADLI. During 2002, the main core objective of the GOE was poverty reduction. From practical experiences and lessons learnt over the Past years, and an assessment of the development experiences of the countries that have attained rapid economic development, the government says it has

recognized that in the absence of proactive development policies it is impossible to create an enabling environment for accelerated development and attainment of improvements in the standards of living of the people.

Thus, it has formulated policies and strategies to guide overall development with focus on rural and agricultural developments with fundamental development objectives of building a free- market economic system in the country, which will enable rapid economic development, extrication from dependence on food aid and to benefit mainly the poor from the economic growth through overriding and intentional focus on agriculture; strengthening private sector growth and development; rapid export growth; investment in education and strengthening capacity building; deepening and strengthening the decentralization process; improving governance; strengthening agricultural research, water harvesting, small scale irrigation; and focusing on increased water resource utilization to ensure food security as a strategy (MoFED, 2002). Being poverty reduction is the core agenda of the country's development, the strategy is built on four pillars (building blocks). These are ADLI; Justice System and Civil Service Reform; Decentralization and Empowerment; and Capacity building in Public and Private Sectors. Hence, such a four- pronged approach was believed to be effective in a fight against poverty and ensure sustainable development (Ibid).

Similarly, during a plan for accelerated and sustained development to end poverty (PASDEP) period, the strategy designed from 2005/06 to 2009/10, the country has pursued important initiatives under SDPRP I (expanding education, strengthening health and HIV/AIDS, capacity building and decentralization, and FSP. Besides, the strategy of ADLI was pursued, but with important enhancements to capture the private initiative of farmers and support the shifts to diversification and commercialization of agriculture. In addition to a consensus that growth is of the essence, an accelerated growth strategy has been at the core of the PASDEP (MOFED, 2005).

2.1.9.4 The Productive Safety Net Program- PSNP

Chronic food insecurity has been a defining feature of the poverty that has affected millions of Ethiopians for decades. The vast majority of these extraordinary poor HHs who live in rural areas are heavily reliant on rain fed agriculture, where, by the years of poor rainfall, the threat of widespread starvation is high. Since the tragic 1983 to 1984 famine, the policy response to this threat has been a series of ad hoc emergency appeals for food aid and other forms of emergency assistance. Though these

efforts have succeeded in averting mass starvation, especially among the asset- less, they have not banished the threat of further famine and they did not prevent asset depletion by marginally poor HHs affected by the adverse rainfall shocks (Gilligan, et al., 2008).

As a result, the number of individuals in need of emergency food aid rose from approximately 2.1 million people in 1996 to 13.2 million in 2003, before falling back to 7.1 million in 2004 (World Bank, 2004 cited in Gilligan, et al., 2008). Further, the ad hoc nature of these responses meant that the provision of such emergency assistance- often in the form of FFW programs- was not integrated into ongoing economic development activities (Subbarao and Smith, 2003).

Irrespective of such interventions and efforts, no significant livelihood progress on sustainable basis was achieved, that could bring relief to the government, and made the government restless so as to seek for another alternative. Accordingly, the GOE has decided that there is an urgent need to address the basic food needs of food insecure HHs via an alternative approach to be financed through multi- year predictable resources, rather than through a system dominated by emergency humanitarian aid. Moreover, the funding approach opted by the government is, the type that seeks financing shift from food aid to cash for its implementation (MoARD, 2006).

Thus, starting in 2005, the government and a consortium of donors implemented a new form of safety Net: the Productive Safety Net Program (PSNP) - which is a shift from emergency humanitarian aid to a multi-year and anticipated resource transfer to chronically food insecure HHs. The program reaches more than seven million chronically food insecure people and operates with an Annual Budget of nearly 500 million US dollar. Currently, outside of South Africa, it is the largest social protection program operating in SSA. The program has been launched within the framework of the national FSP, which emphasizes the three interrelated pillars of FS: food availability, access to food, and the utilization aspect (Devereux, et al., 2008; Gilligan, et al., 2008; MoARD, 2006).

The program has been operating as a Safety Net, targeting transfers to poor HHs in two ways, through PWs and DS- PW taking the largest share of the two programs. Thus, the program's components during the first phase were PWs and DS. The PWs, pays selected beneficiary six Ethiopian birr (ETB) per day as wage rate, for their labor to be contributed on labor- intensive projects designed to build community assets. Direct Support (DS), in the form of cash or food transfers, is provided to labor- scarce HHs including those whose primary income earners are elderly or disabled in order to maintain the safety net

for the poorest HHs who cannot participate in the PWs (Gilligan, et al, 2008). However, the rate has been scaled up to ten ETB by now.

In addition, the program has been supposed to be complemented by a series of FS activities, collectively referred to as other food security programs (OFSP). The OFSPs include access to credit, agricultural extension, technology transfer (such as advices on food crop production, cash cropping, livestock production, and SWC), and irrigation and water harvesting schemes, which are to complement the objectives of PSNP.

As graduation of the beneficiaries from the program is the key goal of the government, which the program is expected to contribute to, the PSNP is supposed to be linked with OFSP interventions as it cannot be possible with available PSNP resources only. The government because of its commitment to achieving the FS objectives of the country within a short period of time, has intended to link the PSNP into ongoing and future FSP in those chronically food insecure areas as an integral feature of a coherent food security investment strategy (MoARD, 2004; 2006). Through the FSP, block grants are provided to those Woredas for the implementation of a range of activities, including resettlement; water harvesting; irrigation; feeder roads; and HH agricultural packages, from which many safety net program beneficiaries are expected to benefit.

To improve the rate and probability of graduation for a HH, participation in the PSNP is assumed to make a chronically food insecure HH eligible on priority basis to participate in OFSP interventions. Thus to achieve maximum impact, Woredas are urged to integrate safety net interventions with OFSP and broader Woreda development interventions. The Woreda food security task force has assigned the responsibility of facilitating the integration, while Regional and Federal Food Security Coordination Offices have the responsibility of providing directives and facilitating joint planning of FSP so that the PSNP plans of target Woredas become an integral part of existing and future FSPs (Ibid).

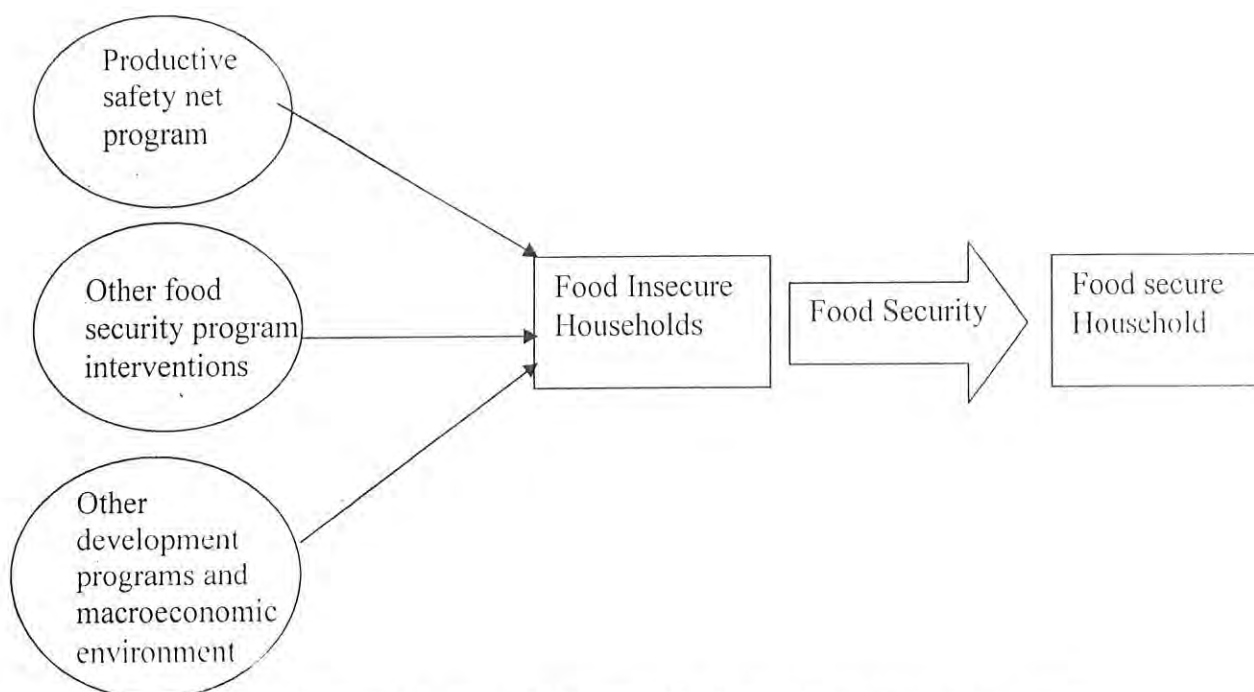


Figure 2.1. Summary on linkages between PSNP and OFSP and development programs
Source: Adapted from MoARD, 2006

Considering program coverage and beneficiaries, the program is targeted to those Woredas identified as being chronically food insecure. The beneficiaries of the program are the food insecure population living in these Woredas identified food insecure. The figure estimated was about eight million exclusively in rural areas, who are resource- poor and vulnerable to shocks, and often fail to produce enough food even at times of normal rains in the country. Accordingly, for a planning purpose Woredas in eight regions have been identified as food insecure within which the focus is on chronically food insecure HHs.

Purposeful definitions were given specific to the PSNP, hence a wareda is considered chronically food insecure if it (i) is in one of the eight regions (Tigray, Amhara, Oromiya, SNNP, Afar, Somali, Rural Harari and Dire Dawa), and (ii) has been a recipient to food aid for a significant period, generally for at least each of the last three years back to the program's onset. According to the DPPA's list of Woredas, 262 Woredas were found satisfying the two conditions.

Similarly, the program for its purpose has defined chronically food insecure households as

- (i) Those located in one of the 262 Woredas in the defined eight regions;

- (ii) If the HH has been assessed by a mix of administrative guidelines and community knowledge to have faced continuous food shortages (usually three months of food gap or more) in the last three years and received food assistance prior to the commencement of the PSNP;
- (iii) If the HHs have suddenly become more vulnerable as a result of a sever loss of assets and are unable to support themselves (Last 1-2 years);
- (iv) If the HH is without any family support and other means of social protection and support;
- (v) If the HH is found to be food insecure based on a base line established by food security Task force following the lessons learnt from the first year implementation for re-targeting purpose, prior to the second year commencement of the implementation; and
- (vi) If the HHs are members of the community (set criteria for selecting an eligible beneficiaries) (MoARD, 2006).

Hence, for the commencement of implementation, eligible beneficiaries of both categories (PWs and DS) were assigned to be selected by the responsibility of food security task force of each community based on criteria set above and other approaches so as to refine the selection of HHs. The procedure for selection has been described by the figure below.

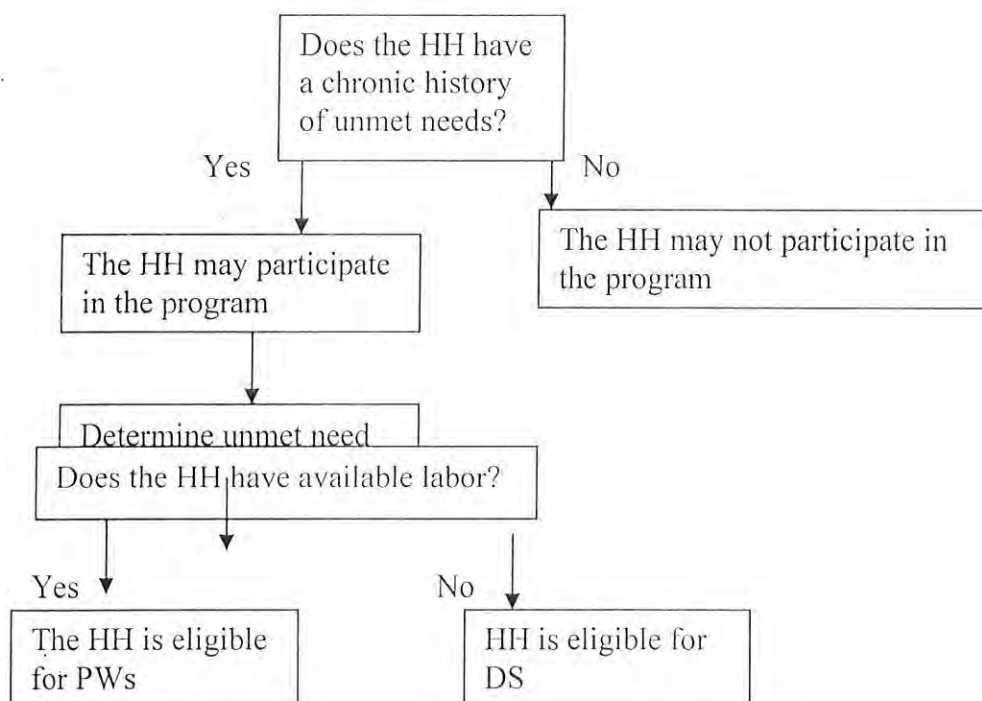


Fig. 2.2 Generalized summaries on procedure of eligible HH selection for PSNP

Source: Adapted from MoARD, 2006

Finally based on the participation category of the eligible beneficiaries number of labor- days available for PW along with its wage rate for PW participants and amount of transfer for those in DS is estimated depending on size of the HHs in the family.

Currently, the PSNP which is part of the Government's wider FSP is also being redesigned. The program being redesigned has made to possess four components under it (including the PSNP), contributing to six outputs, which are described in the FSP document. The three components included are household asset building program (HABP), complementary community investment program (CCIP), and Resettlement program (RP), of course with other donor and NGOs programs in place which are focusing on reducing food insecurity and poverty in the country (MoARD, 2009).

2.2 Review of Empirical Literatures

Social protection programs are not common to be carried out in many African countries despite of the fact to their importance due to several factors among which states' dedication to improve the livelihood and wellbeing of its citizens is the major one for the limitation. However, it is very rational to see their resource background and level of revenue diversification as well. On his argument which seems in line with the above introductory sentence, Devereux (2001) articulated that there is less widespread support for the establishment of comprehensive and formal social security systems to alleviate poverty in low-income countries although the cases are rarely contested in emergency contexts where provision of safety net transfers such as free food distribution is common.

The case against rests on feasibility rather than ideology-even though most development practitioners believe that social security systems would be desirable, they assert that these are not feasible in poor countries because of financial, logistical and political constraints. In most African countries, therefore, it is argued that limited government budgets make universal state-funded social security programs unaffordable, since the interventions are requiring a sizeable fiscal base and a significant income inequality as preconditions for the redistribution of resources from rich to poor. To get forward from the prelude to the issue in concern. this subsection is dedicated to review some empirical evidences and literatures both from outside and inside of the country-Ethiopia-on social security programs. Though there are too many cases, the study summarizes only few selected ones which are supposed mostly

relevant and related to this particular study underway and they are from developing countries experiences.

As it is mentioned above, organized social protection programs are seldom except for few countries in African and other developing nations due to factors: logistical, infrastructural, political (civil strife and instability and or frequent changes or government) constraints. To start with, Devereux (2001), assessed that only a few middle-income African countries (such as South Africa, Namibia and Botswana) have introduced state- funded social pensions of course extending his argument for infeasibility to desperately poor countries like Ethiopia and Sudan-to be simply out of the question. The report while stressing on logistical constraints, for example, administrative personnel and weak infrastructure or road networking, potentially creating operational difficulties for the program, revealed that Namibia could not outreached all the needy. In the country, even with its well developed road networks, the social pension reached just 60 percent of the eligible population until the Department of Social Services privatized the delivery mechanism in 1995, since when cash dispensing machines accompanied by armed guards have toured the entire country every month which risen the coverage to 83 percent.

Lustisch (1997) has assessed about the trends of Social Investment Funds (SIFs) in Latin America. He argued that the SIFs were supposed to be safety nets though they were not actually safety nets. While he describes his evidences on the program's achievements he has forwarded experiences from countries where it has been practiced. The study articulates for the existence of evidence that income variability can have a more devastating impact on the poor than the rich and justified that poorer people face higher risks to infant life from a fall in consumption, fluctuations in agricultural output or prices causes adverse effect on nutrition, bad things tend to happen simultaneously for the poor, and seasons with bad weather tend to bring low employment and low wage rates at the same time. It seems activism to intervention measures to be taken via corresponding stakeholders.

The author also assumes that the risk prone-poor may tend to setup informal arrangements to defend themselves from fluctuations in consumption. The arrangements based by community can have limitations particularly when they break down due to adverse shocks affecting the whole community, region, or country necessitating public actions to partly insure or subsidize the poor prone to such risks.

In the region, several mechanisms have been tried and mixed results were obtained, from which relief work schemes have proven less prone to negative consequences to the point of assessment time.

When Latin America was undergoing the painful consequences of adjustment and short-term costs of reforms, most countries of the region did not have safety nets to smooth the impact on the poor beyond the widespread perception and argument, made by the World Bank, for the existence of SIFs put in place precisely to that purpose. During that time, for example, the bank argues that "social funds are increasingly common instruments through which it has supported safety net interventions to protect specific vulnerable groups from the short-term adverse impact of adjustment programs in Honduras and Bolivia.

Though the bank was with its asserts, Lustisch (1997), continues to his argument that the region was hit by macroeconomic crisis in the early part of the 1980s as a result of the adjustment and short-term costs of the reforms forcing to the confrontation of the painful consequences, most SIFs were introduced practically after several years in the region in 1990s. Accordingly, the first fund was in Bolivia in 1986, with reform package, though it did not necessarily reach the population hurt by the adjustment and by the virtue of their characteristics often the poorest communities were left out.

Despite the fact that the SFIs were supposed to obviate the emergency situations, closer examinations by the scholar revealed that most of the funds were not found to be effective in creating employment opportunities for the victims of emergency-not consumption smoothing safety nets. He draws implications for the findings to be lack of an effective mechanism to protect the poor from output, employment and price risks in the region which may require redressing the SIF's project menu and its modes of operation as correcting measures.

The scholar on the course of his extended assessment on the experiences of safety nets to the poor in the region has also identified some other adverse shocks and the challenges which the poor faced for which an intervention should have been done. The shocks were due to induced commodity price, macroeconomic and natural disaster. For example, in the early 1990s Mexico used to suffer from a sharp rise in poverty in its coffee producing states which was caused by dismantling of the International Coffee Agreement Prices, the price fell from US\$1.32 per pound in 1986 to 1988 to 53 cents in 1992. In

the region's states such as Chiapas, Oaxaca and Guerrero extreme poverty increased from 34 percent to 47 percent between 1989 and 1992 while the case for nationwide declined slightly from 33 to 31 percent indicating misleading capacity of aggregate statistics when shocks are affecting specific regions within a country. However, no consumption smoothing safety nets were put in place despite the sharp fall in living standards of the poor in the affected areas.

In Argentina, the Mexican Tesobonos crisis caused a sharp rise in open unemployment for several years: from seven percent between 1988 and 1992 to more than 13 percent between 1993 and 1996 on an average. Though the poor were only about four percent in 1993, the share rose to 21 percent in 1995 from the total unemployment. Beyond the severance payment schemes and a small-scale unemployment insurance program-both for formal workers only-there were no safety nets for the unemployed poor who concentrated in informal activities. The source, however, indicated that the country has only introduced an emergency employment program in 1997. Similarly, the extended examination in the region has indicated for no trend in Ecuador though climatic change induced by El Nino hit agricultural and fishery activities. Finally, the study remarked that social funds in Latin America don't appear to have fulfilled their objectives as consumption-smoothing safety nets though have been found to meet other important objectives such as building water and sanitation systems, schools and health posts in underserved areas with relatively high concentration of the poor.

Devereux et al., (2008) also have assessed the trends on currently existing social protection policies and strategies, and their synergies to agriculture in some African countries: Ghana, Malawi, and Ethiopia. To take up the case of *Ghana*, the country was one of the first countries in Africa to embark on structural adjustment reforms and its aftermath consequences. The study by the scholars was made to explore the persistence of chronic poverty and livelihood vulnerability among small farmers in northern Ghana in the context of impressive progress on the poverty reduction at national level. Both formal and informal social protection mechanisms for addressing vulnerability were also issues examined by the scholars-from program of Action to Mitigate the Social Costs of Adjustment (PAMSCAD) in the 1980s to the new National Social Protection Strategy (NSPS) and concluded by discussing the newly proposed "social protection strategy" (LEAP), supposed to transfer resources in the form of cash grants to extreme poor.

The study also investigated that 25 years on Ghana's continuing commitment to reform for national economic development has yielded impressive gains in growth and poverty reduction in which the headcount poverty fell from 52 percent in 1991/1992 to 28 percent by 2005/2006 and suggested that Ghana should achieve the Millennium Development Goal One (MDG1) before 2010. However, for this specific study LEAP has been briefly reviewed. Livelihoods Empowerment Against Poverty (LEAP) is designed under the broadest NSPS framework noting that uncoordinated delivery and poor targeting of most of the existing interventions have resulted in limited coverage and impact. According to the government of Ghana (2007), cited in Devereux et al., (2008), the NSPS aims to target systematically the 15 percent "extreme poor" in the country and identified the main instrument for achieving this to be LEAP-a social grants program. The NSPS is based on the premise that the roots of poverty are found in the multiple social risks faced by the poor, and in their vulnerability to the impact of these risks for which the LEAP social grants will be transferred to assist the poor to reduce, ameliorate, or cope with social risks and vulnerability. The program has identified small-scale farmers as leading vulnerable groups in the country, due to the multiple risks they face. Accordingly, a subsistence farmers and fisher folk are the first groups eligible for the program that accounts about half of the supposed beneficiaries. Finally the scholars argued that social grants are only one step to lifting extremely poor HHs out of poverty in Ghana's predominantly agricultural northern regions.

The same scholars also identified that the government of *Malawi* is committed to delivering fertilizer subsidies to small holder farmers, following positive experiences over several years Starter Packs and the Targeted Inputs Program (TIP). These interventions were found to have had significant impacts on maize production and on stabilization of its prices in the country, have therefore been described as 'productivity-enhancing safety nets'- and found to have ambitions and impacts in terms of providing social assistance as well as contributing to agricultural growth.

When the case for social protection trends in *Ethiopia* is dealt with, it has been an ad hoc approach in the country and there has not been formally organized and structured policy and safety nets or social protection system for long years. However, since 2005 the Government of Ethiopia is implementing a new program-PSNP-which is recognized as a critical switch from emergency appeal to a multi-year resource transfer to the poor as response to food insecurity and social protection intervention. Devereux, et al., (2008), argues the program to be largest social protection scheme in Africa outside of South Africa's social grants which the same idea is reflected by Gilligan, et al., (2008), who revealed that

Ethiopia's PSNP is the largest social protection operating currently in SSA, outside of South Africa, with annual budget of nearly 500 million USD reaching more than seven million chronically food insecure HHs. Through either of its two components, PWs and DS, the program delivers social transfers to some eight million citizens with the objectives of: smoothing food consumption, protecting household assets and building community assets. According to the scholars, these objectives are corresponding to "protection", "prevention", and "promotion" and are symbolized as an "upside-down traffic light"- red for crisis to green for growth" (Figure 2.4 below illustrates the objective).

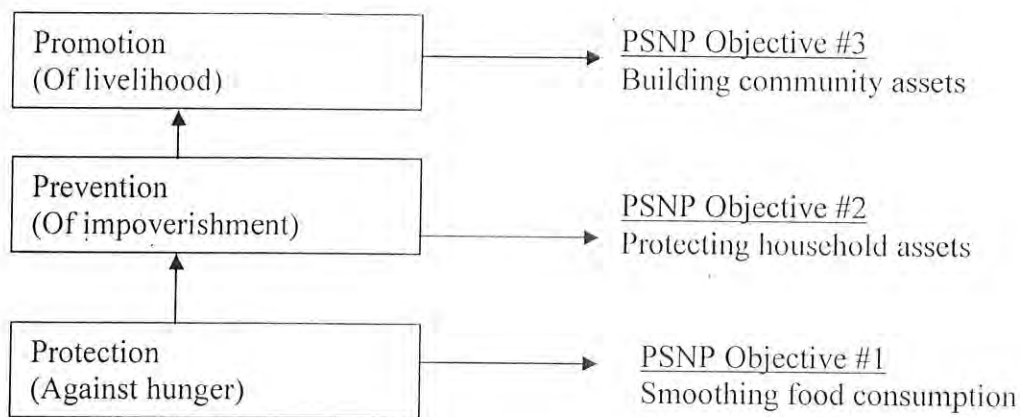


Figure 2.3 Objective of Ethiopian Productive Safety Net Program (PSNP)

Source: Devereux, et al., 2008

The survey has assessed policies and interventions initiated by successive Ethiopian governments to small farmers combine elements of livelihood protection and livelihood promotion which is the convergence between social protection and agriculture. It deals with the PSNP, as social protection intervention, for its impact on agriculture and livelihoods. As a result, it has identified two clear linkages between the PSNP and agriculture, thus its contribution towards promoting agricultural livelihoods. These are firstly direct, PWs supporting agricultural production-which the success depends on the quality and appropriateness of the activities; and secondly, the indirect one, investment of PSNP transfers in agricultural production, which the success yet deepens on individual household's choices-their decision to invest in agriculture and the amount invested in. In spite of their direct contributions to agricultural production, however, the review on PW program progress witnessed some problems such as inadequate coordination and monitoring; untimely delivery of resources; high turnover of staff;

inadequate assignment of personnel; lack of timely planning and implementation; inadequate technical support to field staff; inadequate supply of tools and equipment; and low level of technical skills to field staff.

Similarly, the survey's findings on indirect linkage of the program towards improving agricultural livelihood through investment of cash transfer in to agriculture, revealed that more than one in ten (88 of 768 participants=11.5 percent) purchased seed while a smaller number (26 participants=3.4 percent) purchased fertilizer. Both poorer and wealthier HHs were equally inclined to buy seeds, but most of the (more expensive) fertilizer was purchased by upper wealthier groups. On the other hand, more than half of the HHs that purchased livestock using transfers from the program's cash were in the bottom two quintiles and suggests that it could be the opportunity taken by them to start animal rearing whereas the wealthier ones were not doing the same as they already owed animals and treats an interesting phenomenon.

Finally, the study concludes for the existence of empirical evidence that recipients of cash transfers from the program are using the income to reduce food consumption deficits in their families and as well as investing in farming, small enterprises and education of their children. It also revealed that the investment effects are limited due to depth of poverty and food insecurity within recipient HHs and the smaller level and erratic disbursement of the transfers which might have further been favored and aggravated by inflation and failure to target the beneficiaries with their full family members. Articulating for little evidence available to date, the survey's result seems doubtful on sustainability of PW assets created under the PSNP. While concluding the report, recommendations are drawn by the team suggesting that maximizing the synergetic potential of the program through ensuring predictability and sustainability of transfers; adjustments on likely rises on food prices; and strengthening linkages to other sectors (mainly agriculture, off-farm livelihood activities, education and health) are requirements with special emphasis. It has also argued that the program is with great potential to achieve the synergies between agriculture and social protection though it depends much on how effectively these innovative ideas and good intentions are implemented in farming societies.

Another empirical evidence related to social protection in Ethiopia is reviewed by Workneh (2008), in which the 2002 food security strategy and the then PSNP are in foci. The main objective of the work

was reviewing and reflecting on the FSS and PSNP in view of their adequacy, gaps, implementation constraints, and other issues outstanding and so as to draw recommendations for policy directions. By recalling the program to be a strategy shift to address food insecure HHs from a system dominated by emergency humanitarian aid to a multi-year and predicted resource transfer to the food insecure HH, stipulates that it is a component of the broadest FSS. The literature also verifies that supporting rural transformation process by preventing long-term consequences of short-term consumption shortages; encouraging households to engage in production and investment activities, enhancing purchasing power; and promoting market development is the program's central belief. Stress was also on the main objective, prevention of asset depletion (protection of asset), through transfer of resource to the chronically food insecure HHs.

Accordingly, the study identifies strengths, gaps, achievements and constraints of PSNP on its course of implementation to the point of investigation. As strength, the program's intention to achieve the long-term food security program in addition to obviating short-term food insecurity problem; its strong preference for purchase from local market; the strategy shift from pure relief to productive investment approach and gender sensitivity are well recognized. To deal with gaps, small proportion of HHs addressed; coverage to only rural HHs; unidentified strategy in a way that dependency will be reduced; lack of incentives for kebele and community task forces; low wage rate; poor monitoring and evaluation system; and executive role assigned for actors at various level are among the many. While dealing with achievements, contribution to creation and protection of assets and provision of social infrastructure, are identified prominently. For the part of constraints PW clashing to peak agricultural period; delayed and erratic payment trends; poor appeal system; pre-determined quota for inclusion into program's component; high turnover of employees both at administrative and technical levels at Woreda; poor transparency; political affiliation; failure to cover the mass of existing food insecure HHs; and low fixed wage rates for PWs compared to local skilled labor wage rate are the major ones.

Finally, the study concludes and recommends on shortening institutional ladders; strong monitoring and evaluation mechanisms; persistent targeting problems; enhancing technological and institutional transformation of the rural socioeconomic systems and increasing HHs market orientation to enable their asset creation to be special focus by the practitioners. From this it is possible to understand that the

expectations from the program are at risk if these measures are not put in place as the case identified are existing facts in all areas where the program has been in progress.

2.3 Conceptual Framework of the Study

Critical reviews on Ethiopian PSNP, as a component of food security program, reveals that the program is geared towards maximizing synergies between the livelihood protection and livelihood promotion outcomes. The program has been designed to have two objects: prevention of livelihood assets previously owned by the likely chronically food insecure HHs from depletion, the primary and direct objective; and creation of communal assets through PWs both for the targeted beneficiaries and the whole communities, the secondary or indirect goal. The goal is predicted to be achieved by narrowing the food gap which the beneficiaries targeted used to experience through provision of transfers, which is the time otherwise forcing the HHs to sellout their productive and livelihood assets.

The transfer being offered is therefore, to bridge the gap that the HHs' own production and other access to food cannot support and respond for the families' daily food request. The PIM also stipulates that the transfer going to be offered to the HHs is not per se capable to enable the beneficiaries to create additional livelihood assets, which is the only means to get rid off food insecurity and vulnerability, as it is the link between the two seasons-the own supply and shortage. As the ways out to create new and additional assets by those beneficiary HHs, there has been options put in place to be accessed by them hence contributing to the creation. Access to resources and services has been supposed to be addressed by another food security strategy component called other food security programs which are expected to deliver and facilitate resources such as improved technologies, credit services, improved agricultural inputs, extension services, and HH income improvement packages.

By the fulfillment of the above conditions, it has been assumed that the HHs' livelihood assets would be prevented and promoted thus they are going to be graduated from the program.

To deliver the resource at disposal to its ultimate beneficiaries the program intends to address or identify the most vulnerable more precisely and accurately so that the level of spill out of resources to the non-needy would be achieved. To maximize the efficiency, there have been rules set to be followed at each step of implementation. To enable the creation of communal assets PW are pre-identified suggested to

do so and are also prescribed to be located at communal possessions and critical community watershed areas.

To go through each activities of implementation the program has identified procedures and guidelines as references to be followed which has been then generated as program's implementation manual (PIM) to rule and govern the activities. To maximize the efficiency of the program the PIM commands that the identified rules of action need to be enforced. Attainment of any program necessitates issuance of benchmark rules that govern the implementation for their forecasted goal. Similarly, the PSNP, as a program, has developed its own rules to be devised appropriately to achieve its target being cognizant that the enforcement leads towards the attainment of the anticipated ends. Specifically, the PIM has clearly defined the necessary procedures for each activity, institutional arrangement and their roles; targeting; transfer; and public works are put their own specific and associated procedures to be followed.

This study tends to investigate some implementation procedures put forward by the program with special focus at the grass root level. Concepts and variables to be analyzed are those addressed as rules by the PIM for the achievement of the program and its activities to be carried out. It also assesses and analyzes the implementation process: whether it is in limelight of the rules since its onset in the study area. It is again expected to extract conclusions and recommendations from the findings on the enforcement of the rules and procedures. The gaps and trends in practice are addressed briefly. Thus, the PIM guides and acts as a benchmark for the study and procedures and rules are conceptual framework within which the analysis resides in. Figure 2.3 below illustrates the conceptual framework to understand the processes of the PSNP implementation, which is prepared adaptively from the PIM (MoARD, 2006 and Devereux, et al., 2008).

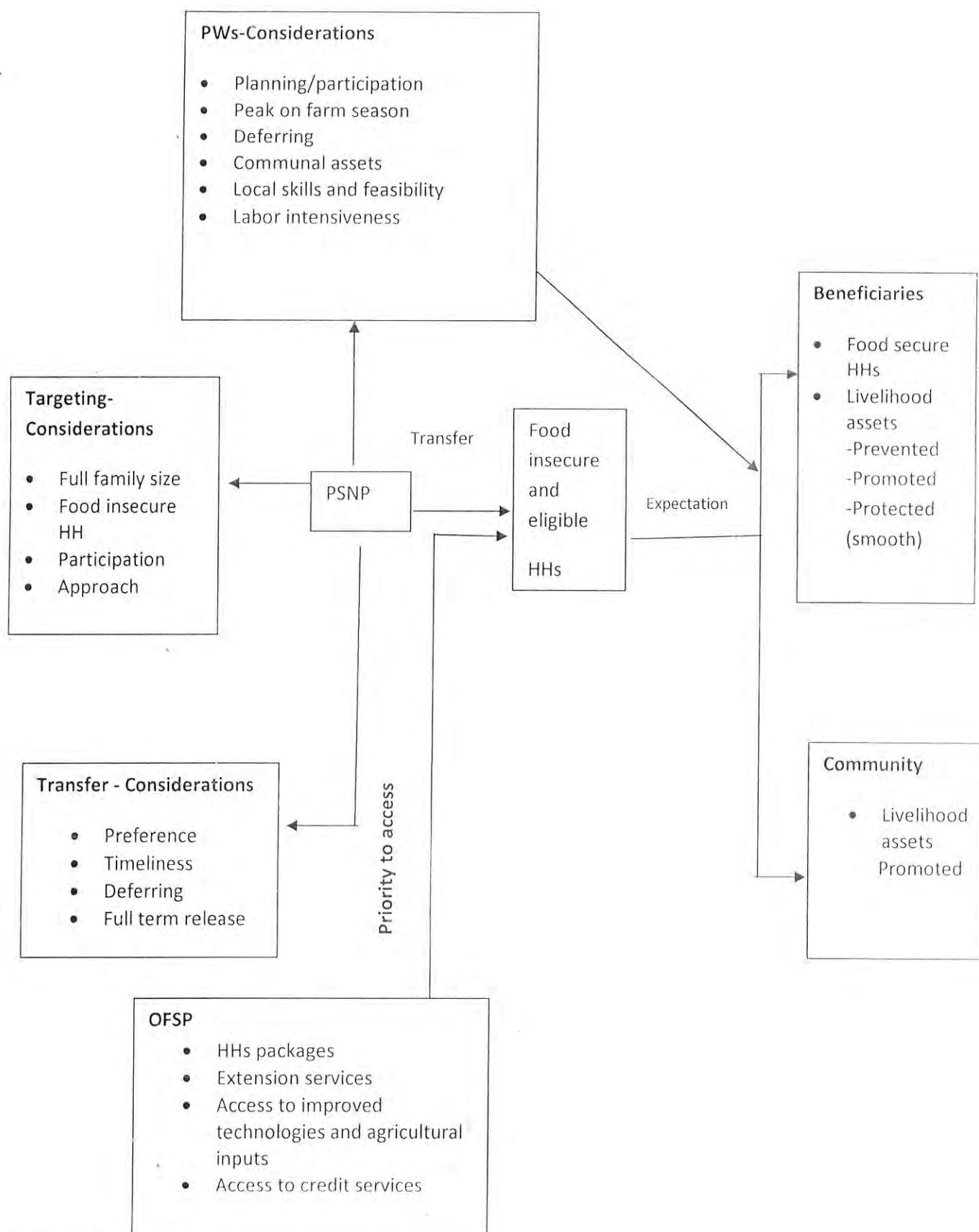


Figure 2.4 Conceptual Framework of the Study

Source: Prepared adaptively from PSNP PIM (MoARD, 2006) and Devereux, et al., (2008)

To indicate the relationship and interrelation of the variables of the study's framework, targeting or selection of eligible HHs affects the amount of transfer to be offered to the family hence requiring critical attention. Eligible HHs need to be targeted with their full family size so that they can receive full amount of transfer and dilution is prevented. The type of transfer should be in preference to the beneficiaries with timely transfer. PWs, if planned on peak agricultural seasons, will compete against own farm activities thus should be duly respected. OFSPs are intended to support the building of additional assets to the HHs if access ed. PWs create communal assets both to the beneficiary HHs and the whole community. If all the route practices prescribed by the PIM are properly implemented and recognized, the program's expectations to the beneficiaries in particular and to the community in general can be maintained.

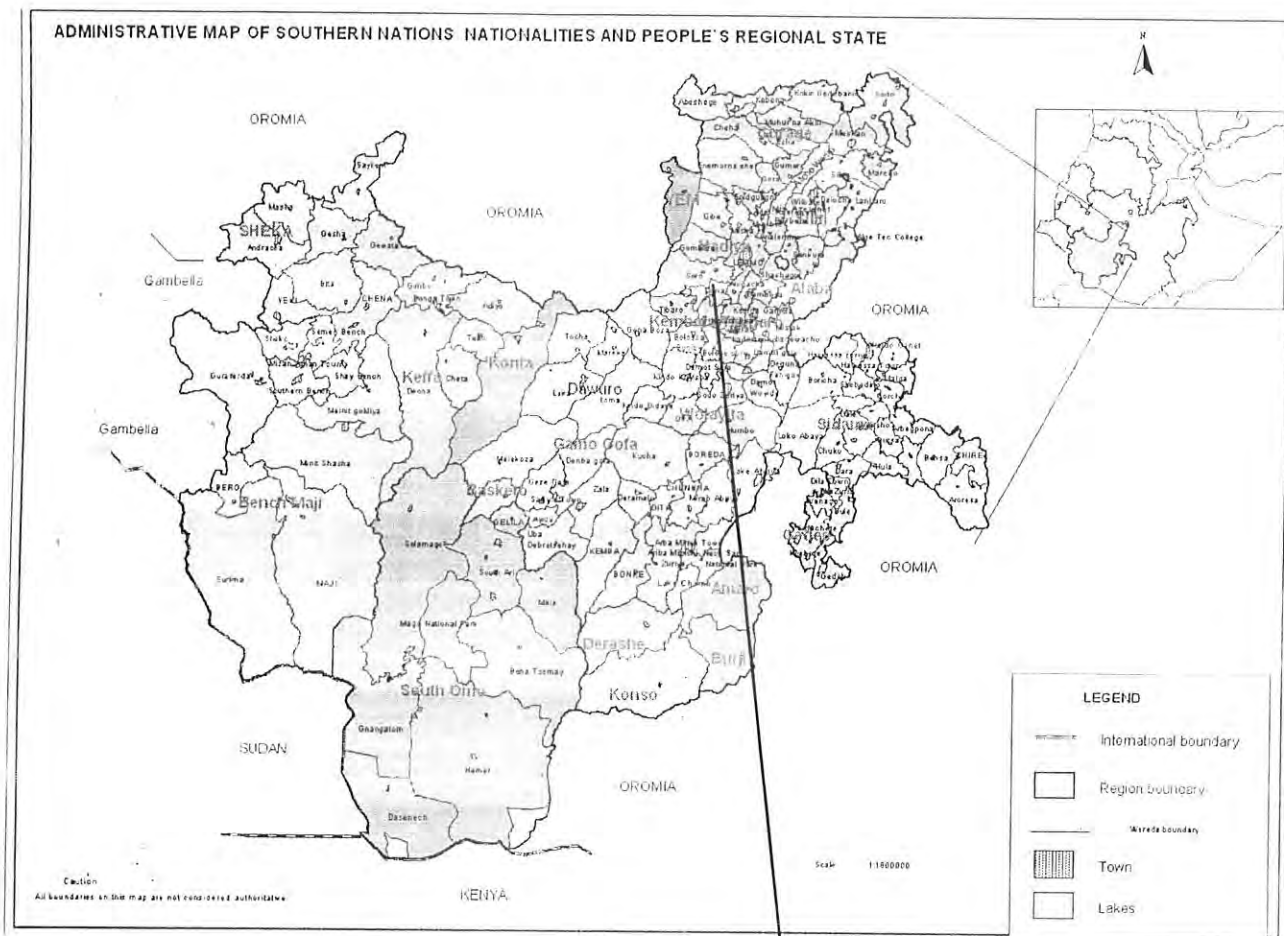
CHAPTER THREE

DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDY AREA

This chapter deals with the human and physical conditions of the study area or Woreda. Hence the chapter is suggested to give or provide a brief understanding about the general background of the study Woreda.

3.1 Location of the Study Area

Anni-Lemo Woreda is one of the Woreda among ten Woredas and an Administrative town in Hadiya Zone in SNNPRS. The Woreda's capital is Fonko which is 18 kms and 212 kms away from the Zone's capital, Hossaena, and Addis Ababa, the capital of Ethiopia respectively. Its absolute location is approximately between $7^{\circ}23'02''$ to $7^{\circ}56'00''$ North Latitude and $37^{\circ}50'00''$ to $38^{\circ}07'00''$ East Longitude to the North- East of Hossaena. The Woreda is bounded or bordered by Shashogo Woreda from East, Lemmo Woreda from West and South all from Hadiya Zone and by Silte Zone from North which are corresponding to the relative location. Figure 3.1 illustrates the map of the study area.



Administrative Map of
Hadiya Zone



Figure 3.1: Map of the Study Area/Woreda
Source: SNNPRS BFED, 2008

3.2 Biophysical Characteristics

Topographically, undulating land feature is the dominant setup of the Woreda with altitude range between 2030 to 2550 masl and, is divided into Woina Dega and Dega agro-ecological Zones with some influences of Wet Kolla climate from its boundary, the Sahshogo Woreda. Annual rainfall is estimated to fall within a range of 800-1200 mm spelling bimodal: Belg (January-April) and the main Meher season (June-August). Similarly, the Annual temperature is between 20°C and 25°C. The soils textural class encompasses clayey, silt, and loamy and other mixed textures always exposed to the risk of erosion due to topographic features. With respect to vegetation, manmade plantation is the dominant cover with eucalyptus significantly around farm boundaries, homesteads and home gates. Except for patches around some streams and stony hills, occupied by light bushes, natural vegetation does not exist currently in the area.

To describe the land use pattern, the Woreda has a total area of 20,566 hectares which again allocated for various uses. From the total area about 15,650 and 1,765 hectares are occupied by annual and permanent crops respectively whereas it about 823 and 1028 for communal grazing and vegetation cover established artificially and naturally though it is for few remnant patches. The area devoted for social institutions and others constitutes the remaining 1100 hectares.

3.3 Socio-Economic Characteristics

3.3.1 Establishment and Institutional Setup of the Woreda

The Woreda has been administratively established and structured into its being in June 1998 E.C. and it is organized to have twenty-seven rural PAs and a rural town, the capital, under its administrative hierarchy. Formal and informal institutions are there oriented for the best of the people for decision making and involvement processes to duly effect the decentralization. Formally, there is Woreda Administration, Sectors such as Education, Health, Agricultural and Rural Development, Water Development and Sanitation, Capacity Building, Police and Justice, Women Affairs, Youth and Sports, and Information Offices along with their own line organizations to lower level are there to accomplish their responsibilities given hierarchically.

The PAs have their own Administrative hierarchies up to the level of "Gott" that is the smallest Administrative unit. Some institutions like women's savings and credit small scale cooperatives

organized and supported by NGO known as Farm Africa is among functioning units. Any NGO does not exist in the area. Religious institutions such as Protestant, Muslim and Orthodox churches, along with their followers, are available which are organized by the local community upon their interests and preferences.

To deal with Social Infrastructures, data collected from corresponding institutions of the Woreda indicates Educational, Health, FTCs, and Cooperatives are available serving the communities. Concerning Educational facilities, there are about 37 Schools of three levels- 26 primary 1st, Ten primary 2nd and One Secondary 1st Cycle Schools. The Health facilities available are 21 Health Posts and five Health Centers while no higher level institution exists. Farmers' institutions are also there such as Ten FTCs, Five multipurpose small-scale Cooperatives (engaged in buying and selling of cereals) and a gender-based small cooperative established by Farm Africa for few members of Women Association. The road networking is absolutely poor and it is accessible only by light vehicles such as motor bikes and pickups still under dry weather conditions. There is only one all weather road crossing few PAs and the Woreda's center which runs to Addis Ababa, the country's capital.

3.3.2 Population and Settlement

According to the population and Housing census report conducted in 2007, the population size of the Woreda is 73,208 (35,959 males and 37,249 females) from which about 70,828 are rural and the remaining 2,380 is urban population. The sex composition of rural population is 34,774 males and 36,054 females while the urban composition being 1,185 males and 1,195 females. As it is true for the zone, the area is densely populated with average density of 357 persons per kilometer square. Next to Wolaita and Kambata- Tambaro zones, Hadiya Zone is one of the most densely populated Zones in the region.

Though written documents are not available indicating the actual time of the first settlement, the population density and the settlement pattern currently existing shows that the area was settled since long ago (SERA, 2002, cited in Tefera, 2007). Similarly, the absence of natural dense forest and highly eroded and wasted soil characteristics in the area may be standing in witness to the above fact.

3.3.3 Economic Activities

The major economic activity that the population of the Woreda engaged in is Agriculture. Thus crop production and animal rearing are collectively carried out as economic importance. In short, mixed- agriculture is the basic economy. The major crops grown in the area include Inset, Wheat, Maize, Barely Sorghum, Field pea, Fababean and Teff. Cash crops such as Khat are also available in few parts of the Woreda. To the part of Livestock production, Cattle, Small ruminants, and Equines are major reared as power source, Liquid asset, and means of transport.

3.4 The Productive Safety Net Program in the Area

The Woreda is one of areas in the Zone to receive relief since long ago due to several reasons. It is again vulnerable to shocks arising from its neighboring borders such as Silte Zone and Shashogo Woreda. Other reasons making the Woreda food insecure include high population pressure associated with land scarcity, soil erosion, and limited livelihood diversifications. Even since its establishment, a significant proportion of the population has been receiving emergency food aid and other supplementary ration for various shocks prevailed in the area.

The reports and data available in the Woreda's Agricultural and Rural Development Office shows the trend for food aid has been hot so that during 2008 production season about 23,104 HHs received the aid for four months which is a total of 9523.00 Quintals of grain, 694 Quintals of pulses, and 923.48 Quintals of supplementary ration in the form of soya corn blend and cooking oil. In 2009 about 8,383 HHs were given out a total of 4299.60 Quintals of grain, 379.30 Quintals of pulses and 702 Quintals of supplementary ration in the forms mentioned above. Similarly, in 2010, nearly 10,554 HHs have been receiving relief and the size distributed so far is about 6,408 Quintals of grain, 240.00 Quintals of pulses and 421.00 Soya Corn Blends.

There has also been special intervention for nursing and pregnant mothers and children under age five funded by WFP through provision of supplementary ration which is implemented jointly by MoARD and Ministry of Health. The program through its strategy called Enhanced Outreach Strategy, which is a part of Children Survival Initiative, has been delivering supplementary ration for its beneficiaries which is distributed in two terms in a year. So far, about 1929.70 and 166.80 Quintals of soya corn blend and cooking oil was dispatched and the program was still

active when this survey is conducting. Due to these facts and existence of all the characteristics identified to indicate locations and HHs to be chronically food insecure for the implementation of the program in the country, the Woreda in the region has been found to meet the requirements to benefit from the program.

As the Woreda, which this research work has been set for its progress, shares the same characteristics of vulnerability which were identified as food insecure areas in the country, for the implementation of the program it was identified food insecure and let targeted by the program during 2005. Accordingly, the program has been launched in the area during the same year by targeting twenty seven kebeles and a total beneficiary HHs of 10,792 from which about 518 HHs have been graduated during 2008 and 2009 implementation periods. By now, the total number of beneficiaries is 10,274 from which 9557 HHs are supported under PW and the remaining 717 are under DS categories. The beneficiaries included to participate in PW are 2430 headed, (1787 males and 643 females) while those under DS are 484 headed, (300 males and 184 females). Chapter four below takes up its part for discussion on PSNP and its findings for the study

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

This chapter deals with major findings of the field work which are extracted from household survey and other data collection instruments made to enrich the information. Issues in focus are mainly targeting and its procedures, transfer, public work, graduation and implementation gaps. Under each issue sub discussions are tried to be made which are believed to detail the findings obtained from the respondents through administration of the instrument and field observation in a generalized and condensed manner. The instruments under each objective have been attempted to be generalized and condensed into subsections, in a way that the whole or central objectives would not be missed and would be answered relatively. While analyzing the data, further statistical procedures have not been employed because the objective of the study was meant mainly to assess the trends followed, but not to make comparison and investigate the effect of one variable over the other. The other reason is that, the study does not focus on livelihood aspects due to the program which otherwise will need for further analysis between variables and their significance or predictability.

4.1 Description of Respondent Household Characteristics

4.1.1 Demographic Characteristics

Age

The size of respondent HHHs sampled for this specific study was about 71 from current PWs participant beneficiaries, 50(70 percent males and 21(30 percent) females; and 20 from graduated ones of the program, 16(70 percent males and four (30 percent) females) making a total of 91 (70 percent males and 30 percent females respectively), of the respondents. This figure accounts about 25 percent of the total HHHs for the sampled PAs representing 70 percent and 30 percent for males and females respectively. For this survey, the age was categorized in to five intervals which have then been further categorized in to two: productive and dependent groups. Accordingly, 66 (93 percent) of the HHHs were falling under the productive group whose age ranges between 15 and 65 years while the remaining five (seven percent) were under unproductive or dependent category whose family members are participating in PWs on their

behaves. Table 4.1.1 below shows the detail description of age and family size of sampled household heads.

Table 4.1.1 Age and total family size of respondents

Attribute	Age/Family Size Category	No .HHHs	Percent				
Age(Yrs)	<14	0	0				
	15-30	16	22.53				
	31-45	40	56.34				
	46-65	10	14.09				
	>65	5	7.04				
	Total	71	100				
Family Size (No.)	1-3	With size	No. HHH	Sub total HHs	Total Family	Interval's Percent	
						Family	HHHs
		1	0	0	18	3.81	8.45 (6)
		2	0	0			
		3	6	18			
	4-6	4	6	24	121	22.24	32.39 (23)
		5	5	25			
		6	12	72			
	7-9	7	10	70	178	32.72	32.39 (23)
		8	9	72			
		9	4	36			
	10-12	10	6	60	130	23.90	16.90 (12)
		11	2	22			
		12	4	48			
	>12	13	3	39	97	17.83	9.90 (7)
		14	2	28			
		15	2	38			
		Total	71	544	544	100	100 (71)

Source: Researcher's HH survey result, 2010

From the table above, it is clear to see that the number of HHHs between 15 and 65 years of age is 66(92.96 percent). As the age range considered economically fertile or productive is between 15 and 65, the number of respondent HHHs whose age fall into this interval is about 66 (93 percent) and the rest accounts only to five (seven percent). From this it is possible to conclude that almost all of the HHHs are economically productive. However, this percentage does not show the dependency and productive age distribution of the HHs or family members within the individual family. This is to say that, it does not disclose the percentage of able- bodied family members' size within each family.

Family Size

During the household survey for data collection, the family size of each respondent HHH was tried to be included into the data with critical interview so that the size would be actual and the respondents would not deceive the size. To do this, the respondents were asked to list down them by names and any attempt to deception was tried to be cross- checked and minimized as much as possible. As (Table 4.1.1) describes above, it is obvious to suggest that the highest proportion of the total population of the surveyed HHs are those owned by HHHs who have family sizes ranging between seven and nine. This is because of the large size of their families and the number of respondents sampled that accounts to 23 (32.39 percent). The range accounts about 178 (32.72 percent) of families from the total population of 544 who are headed by 71 individuals. The next category contributing to the largest size is that having the family size between ten and twelve who are about twelve (16.90 percent) of the total sampled HHHs taking about 130 (23.90 percent) of the total population or HHs owned by the respondents.

The third range of respondents' family size is between four and six with a total of 121 HHs (22.24 percent of the total population) owned by 23 (32.39 percent) of the sampled respondents. Therefore, the HHHs contributing largely to the total population are those having the family size ranging between four and twelve. The range of family size falls indicates that the heads in such families are reproductively active so that bearing many children who are open mouthed seeking for food. This is also true that the largest proportion of HHHs are with age ranging between 31-45, where biological reproduction or fertility capacity is high under normal circumstances and about 40 (56.34 percent) of the HHHs are within this age range. Considering the total family size owned by the respondents, the total number is 544 hence the average size of HH per family is

67(94.37 percent) of the respondents are currently married while the remaining four (5.63 percent) are widowed.

4.1.2 Asset ownership and other socio- economic activities of the sample respondents

This section attempts to describe the household assets and major economic activities to win their bread briefly. To this end, productive assets such as land ownership and size, house type and number, livestock ownership and assets like HHs utensils and jewelries are assessed.

Table 4.1.3 Assets Owned by the Respondents (PWs)

Attribute /type	Size/Category	Number of Respondents	Percent
Land (hectare)	0.25-0.50	55	77.46
	0.51-0.75	10	14.09
	0.76-1.00	6	8.45
Livestock (owned by)	Cattle	71	100
	Sheep and goats	20	28.16
	Equines	15	21.13
	Others	45	63.38

Source: Researcher's HH survey result, 2010

Land ownership and size

As land is one of the most basic productive assets to rural livelihoods, the respondents were interviewed if they have farm land of any size. The data collected from HHs reveal that the land size hold by the families is too small which is similar to most of the farming societies' holding size due to high population pressure on nonexpanding land resource. From the information gathered through respondents' interview, it is possible to note that the average size of farm plot that each household owns is about 0.47 hectare (ha). This figure indicates that a family has a farm size below half ha. Table 4.1.3 above indicates about 55 (77.46 percent) of the respondents are found to have farm size below half of ha which is about 0.25 to 0.50. The next group of respondents has reported that their families' farm size is between half and three-fourth of ha: two to three *timads* by their local measurement who account to ten (14.09 percent). The last category having farm size between three- fourth to a hectare is about six (8.45 percent). From this it is possible to understand that almost 55 (77.50 percent) of the respondents have farm sizes between one- fourth and two- fourths of a hectare with average size of 0.36 ha per HH.

Livestock Ownership

As livestock are now becoming productive HHs assets whereby they enable them to produce food as a source of draught power, they definitely are part of rural livelihood. Besides, the rural communities consider livestock to be amount of money put in Banks so that will be drawn at a time of need. Hence they are means by which the rural poor get relieved in cases of crop and other disasters, i.e., they feel insured if they possess their own livestock. For some part of the society around the study area, bearing large size of livestock is symbolized as status of high living standard, source of social recognition and especial prestige but not to day, though few are still there in some parts of the zone.

From the table above, it is clear to note that all respondents, 100 percent, possess livestock categorized under cattle, though the figure does not tell anything about the size of them that the HH is holding. Sheep and goats are possessed by 20(28.16 percent) of the respondents while Equines are possessed by 15(21.13 percent) of them. Under the category of others, chicken are there and possessed by 45(63.38 percent) of the respondents. Of course few of the respondents possess all of them. This is to mean that, respondents having one category still own the other category.

Housing condition and its type

Under this a few about a type, ownership, and conditions of housing is described. As all know, Shelter is one of the most basic needs for a man kind irrespective of their location and social category or system. Families as institutions in a social system live in one roof, share resources, serve a dish from or on one table, hold discussions on their institutional beings and so on. In rural areas the housing condition is poor, where by both animals and human beings are accommodated under a roof. The same roof or shelter also acts as a kitchen too. Almost all of the respondents participated into the survey for the study share the same trend. Apart from the respondents who are supposed to be chronically food insecure and the poorest so that they would not be expected to have relatively decent shelter, it is observed during the field work that the whole community in the study area experiences the same housing trend.

Accordingly, all the respondents participated in HH survey possesses a house type with grass thatch roof, mud walled and floored, and wooden door. Only few of them possess a separate kitchen where food is cooked and some of their family members accommodate in. None of the respondents were found to possess houses with corrugated iron sheet roof. Below is tabular description under table 4.1.4

Table 4.1.4 Type and number of houses owned by respondents

House type	Number of:		
	Houses owned per family	Respondents	Percent
Wooden door and walls with muddy floor and grass thatch	1	57	80.28
	2	14	19.72
	3	-	-
Corrugated iron sheet roof	-	-	-
	Total	71	100

Source: Researcher's HH survey result, 2010

From the table above it is clear to see that about 57(80.28 percent) of the respondents are with a single shelter, poor standardized and not decent, where in both animals and the families abides under, which is not relatively acceptable accommodation. As mentioned at the very beginning, the shelters are wooden door and walled grass roofed or thatched, and muddy of walled and floored. The second category, who are about 14(19.72 percent) of the total respondents, are those having two houses, one with small size, one for accommodating animals and some house members and the other accommodating again some HHs members (such as children) and keeping house hold utensils, of course furnishing to the function of kitchen as well. Yet the shelters are not with the minimum standard for acceptable accommodation.

No respondents have been found to possess neither three houses nor corrugated iron sheet roofed house. Some of them explain that the problem is shortage of land and economic or limitations of income sources hampering them to construct more than two houses and houses with corrugated iron sheet though most of them wish to do. Similarly, they speak out that they could not built

shelters with corrugated iron sheet roof which was being considered as reflection of wealth status and social prestige or recognition before and now as a solution for the scarcity of grass for thatching purpose or material due to income shortage as the payment from the program is too little and the price of the sheet is getting costly. Considering some HHs' utensils, jewelries, and other assets such as bed, television, radio, chairs, tables, etc., which would be liquidated easily in cases of emergency and food shortage or stresses, as a solution, all respondents have not created. Even for those owned, most of them are those locally produced, cheap and of plastic type, and types which are mostly meant for use and throw so that they do not have any future value with little contribution to coping strategy for HHs in times of risks, Jewelries, television, and radio are owned by none of them.

Major Economic Engagement or Activities

Concerning the major economic activity, which the HHs engaged in to win their bread, the prominent one is agriculture: crop production and animal rearing, of course as source of farm power and insurance strategy for the latter case. Hence mixed agriculture is their economic pillar which they engaged in solely for all of their fates. The type of production is of subsistent and with short supply capacity of own farm to the family need. Hence to enable them to fill the gap they have been targeted to the PSNP since 2005 with the intention that they would prevent the depletion of their previous assets and also would create new communal assets. Accordingly, all of the participants of the survey are engaged in mixed agriculture and they are 71(100 percent). None of them are found to exercise monoculturing, which is sole cropping. They decide to do so in fear of risk as they are poor of productive assets. Below is brief description.

Table 4.1.5 Major economic activities of sampled HHHs

Activity majorly done	Number of respondents	Percent
Crop production only	0	0
Animal rearing only	0	0
Both crop production and animal rearing	71	100
Off farm activities (trade of animals, petty trade, carpentry, etc.)	0	0
Total	71	100

Source: Researcher's HH survey result, 2010

From the table above it is observable that the respondents are not being engaged in other income earning opportunities, such as on- farm and off- farm activities, because of labor shortage within families both to participate in PWs and on their own farming activities. They also indicate that most of them send their children to schools that would otherwise be oriented into such careers or replace their parents for PWs so that the parents would be engaged in such income generating schemes such as petty trades and other opportunities.

4.2 Productive Safety Net Program Activities

This section is about the trend of PSNP implementation in the study area. As the objectives set are all those kinds seeking independent research works the instruments administered to collect data was found to be of a bulky type. This is of course to confess that the objectives or research questions are wide enough which the researcher encountered during the field work. The instruments raised for each research question are too many, though are necessary if the research been designed with it still with insufficiency, which challenged the process of analysis and data collection or administration both by the research and caused participant household heads felt fade up. Hence the instruments prepared for each research question has been attempted to be generalized in a way that they would not miss the central theme of each objective. Below are sections on major field findings.

4.2.1 Targeting-Types, and Approaches or Trends followed

The major objective of the research work and its questions pertaining to this section is to assess the trend of targeting, level and role of stakeholders especially community participation during the process and their role, type of targeting, family dilution in terms of HH size reduction within the family and mix up of other members in to them from other families so that they would share the resource on transfer and measures taken to refine the process. In line to this, the instrument administered felt relevant to the objective are condensed in to issues in focus to be examined. Below are results obtained and discussions made from the data and the researcher's personal field observations made to enrich and cross- check the data collected from the HH survey.

Targeting is considered beneficial if it increases the efficiency of antipoverty programs of course entailing costs-administrative, incentive (deadweight) stigma and political costs. The justification

behind this idea is that the leakage of resources to the non poor should be minimized so that excluded and the most needy and vulnerable would be addressed with cost efficiency. Accordingly, the trend and approach of targeting experienced in the Woreda has been attempted to be assessed so that the following results are obtained and discussions, which are expected possible, have been attached to.

To conduct the process of beneficiary selection in the Woreda, where the study has been conducted, a mix of approaches has been employed: both community and administrative targeting approaches. As the PIM puts the procedures to be followed to go through the task, priority setting in terms of location and beneficiary household seems crucial. Geographically, the Woreda is within one of the eight regions identified food insecure for the program's implementation which is in SNNPRS. To this end, the regions are assigned with power that they would prioritize locations which experienced chronic food insecurity where the supposed beneficiaries are dwelling and the regions in turn deliver the same power to zones and the grass root implementation ground were the households are assessed. As indicated above the zone is in the region that identified to be food insecure and the Woreda is one of the most vulnerable Woredas in the zone. Thus geographically the Woreda is for implementation of the program. Within the PIM's reference

Within the Woreda while targeting beneficiaries supposed eligible, no geographic prioritization has been experienced as the whole PAs, which are twenty seven, have been made covered by the program. Hence, since the commencement of the program all the PAs have been addressed and still they are beneficiaries. Considering the HH selection, both administrative and community targeting approach has been put in place which is desirable as it is believed to be efficient relatively. With respect to the administrative stakeholder part Woreda offices, especially agricultural and rural development office along with its personnel has involved in trainings held for the program. The training was given to the DAs and PAs' leaders who participated in the first place for implementation of the program. To the part of community, orientation about the program and the way and criteria by which eligible HHs of their community members would be selected, was given on the conference or meeting called for targeting at PAs centers. Thus the community participation was there though the level of role make is not to be dealt right now.

As the PIM puts the direction for targeting eligible beneficiaries the supposed HHs need to had history of relief to be traced back for the last three years. It also states that HHs fallen into sudden shock and who have been facing acute food shortage would be eligible for the program. Accordingly, the study was tried to assess the back relief history and exposure to shocks so that they would be right to relieve the transfer. To obtain the information the beneficiaries sample are asked whether they receive relief during the past three years: exposed to sudden shock or disaster during the selection of beneficiaries. Table 4.2.1 below overviews the description.

Table 4.2.1 Relief history of HHs sampled

Category	Number of respondents	Percentage	Remark
Received relief in one of the Past three years	27	38.03	
Experienced sudden shock and/or crop failure during the period	8	11.27	
Poor though did not receive any relief to the time	36	50.70	
I am disabled and used to receive relief	0	0	
I am disabled though I never received relief	0	0	
Total	71	100	

Source: researcher's HH survey result, 2010

From the table it is clear that the largest proportion of the respondents is those who did not receive any of relief type and they witnessed that they were poor at the time of targeting. They constitute about 36(50.70 percent) of the total respondents. About 27(38.08 percent) of them had received aid during the Past years and they witnessed that they were poor at the time of targeting. The least number of the respondents is that who were exposed to sudden shock and crop failure during the time of program commencement. The respondents' history tends to be abiding in the framework of the PIM which is set for targeting eligible beneficiaries though it is not difficult to know how far it was true or they were honest.

Another issue pertaining to targeting tried to be addressed is about the perception of the beneficiaries upon their own eligibility so that whether they eligible or not for the program during that time. To obtain information a “yes” or “no” type of question was asked and it was then followed by a question of justification then they feel they are eligible. From the total respondents about 13(18.31 percent) replied that they were not quite to the program during the time by justifying that there were community members who were below their status during the selection in the kebele. Here, they are comparing their status to the whole of their PAs residents other than bounding themselves in to “Gott” or single community and the idea is supportable as the PA needs to be treated or considered as a unit. The remaining 58(81.69 percent) answered that they accept their inclusion in to the program eligible and reason out that they do not bother to the whole PA’s situation so long as they were the poor of the community and nominated eligible. To strengthen the information obtained from the HHs, discussions are held with FGs and key informant groups. Accordingly, the DAs of the three PAs agree still for the existence of illegible HHs benefiting from the program both at PA and community level. They estimated about 73.33 percent of the beneficiaries are eligible while 26.67 percent of them do not meet the criteria on average. They were also asked during the discussion for the reason and replied that the approach of targeting through quota system to each community was the major one.

The assignment of quota to communities of the PA without considering the severity of the problem and the corresponding victims to each community therefore might have been played great contribution to the gap as the PAs were not treated as a unit. Discussants of the key informant group also share the same idea that the quota provision along with the transparency and poor belongingness of the community members to each other, that is, feeling of selfishness and poor awareness, were the problems. The questions asked were: do you think that your involvement or joining into the program during selection period was quite fair? What is the reason for your response, along with their possible alternatives were asked. This is done whether the respondents feel the process of targeting relatively fair or not. Below is the distribution of respondents and their responses under Table 4.2.2

Table 4.2.2 Respondents' perception on own eligibility

Attribute	Response/category	Number of Respondents	Percent
Feel that involvement was fair	Yes	58	81.69
	No	13	18.31
Reason if yes (because) N= 58	Poor and food insecure	27	46.55
	Experienced sudden shock and lack of resilience	7	12.07
	Party member	9	15.52
	Belong to influencing group	-	-
	Community member	15	25.86
Reason if No N = 13	Untargeted poor below my status in my community	6	46.15
	Untargeted poor below my status in neighboring community	3	30.77
	Untargeted poor below my status in the PA	4	23.08

Source: Researcher's HH survey result, 2010

4.2.2 Participation and Role of Community in Targeting Process

As the process of targeting is to identify the most vulnerable and needy, to be provided with transfers or resources so that the risk of spilling out of resources will be minimized, participation of stakeholders with their full role is significant. To this end, all the stakeholders especially the community, to which the needy belong to, must participate and needed to make them aware of any program and its objective, predicted to be achieved. This takes essential corner because it is assumed that the community knows what is happening to their society, under stands the previous trend and the current situation, and it will be with information pertaining to each of its segments of the population. Though their participation has many advantages, for example in terms of cost reduction for implementation, there are however some disadvantages still. The possible reasons are the presence of some marginalized, influential, excluded and poor segments of population in the community from which some are fetching benefits of any opportunities while some are being disadvantaged. For example marginalized, excluded and poor segments of the population will

lose an opportunity of some projects while those influential and dominant segments are enjoying with which is not due to them.

The PIM guides that community should be fully involved with all of its roles: such as voting, prioritizing, commenting and arguing on individuals who would be supposed or nominated to join the program. It also necessitates and urges the need for awareness creation through information provision about the program. To assess about the issue data supposed to be relevant so that it would answer about the trend was collected from the survey HHs and triangulated by the information obtained from FGD and key informant interviews.

The data collected from the survey HHs and cross-checked from the discussant groups revealed that the community was participated in the selection of beneficiaries during the onset of the program by attending the meetings held for the purpose of selections which were hosted at each PAs' centers. From these it is possible to see that the communities have been provided with information so that they would be participated the meeting at each PA and they would involved in career of nominating, being nominated or the two during the selection.

From the whole respondent HHHs who have contacted for the survey about 71 (100 percent) of them witnessed that there was community participation during the selection, of course without denying the fact that all came to be selected eligible, that is to be selected but not to select the poor and they stressed there was lack of belongingness and taking care of by each other. To simplify their expression the respondents said that most were looking needy and with sense of selfishness. This expression might have been forwarded by the respondents that the area has been with long history of relief delivery in one or another way, so that the sense of dependency by all would be developed. One of FGD attendant from beneficiary households who have not been sampled for HH survey expresses that:

"We all the selected and not selected, have attended the meeting held at that day because all of us were eager to have the chance," which was supported by a DA who says: *"The area has a long history of relief and aid receiving experience, their ear is like antenna; they collect information and the ear says from nearby PA and even from other Woreda and come to ask you about what*

they heard. It was announced to the whole communities of the PA to attend the meeting held for targeting and they attended it mostly to be targeted not to target the neediest. Apart from announcement made to all with such information all will tend to come and attend any meeting being hold around which is not of their concern if they are with a piece of information about relief.” a DA from Debub-Fonko, attendee in key informant discussion.

It is also reflected by all of the respondents that the community was participated in the selection process, of course mostly to be recipient as expressed by some of the respondents, key informants and FGD discussants, and from the respondents sampled for HH survey about 63(88.73 percent) have attended the meeting hold for targeting. It is about a brief tabular description below.

Table 4.2.3 Response of respondents on community participation

Inquiry	Response					
	Yes		No		I don't know	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Did the community participate in beneficiary selection?	71	100	0	0	0	0
Total	71	100				
Have you attended the meeting held for beneficiary targeting	63	88.73			0	0
Total	63	88.73				

Source: researcher's HH survey result 2010

For the other aspect of targeting the beneficiary and sampled HHHs are asked whether there was another stakeholder participated in the process of selection. This is done because the approach employed for the process of beneficiary selection was in focus. It is to mean which type of targeting was employed so as to identify the eligible HHs for the program of the either component. As it is understood the approach for identification of a beneficiary group for specific

purpose or transfer of resources takes either of self, community or administrative approach. Its intention is to cross- check the level of participation of stakeholders in the process of beneficiary identification and as well as identification of bodies availed during the selection. Accordingly, about 63(88.73 percent) of the total respondents replied that DAs and supervisors and staff experts from Woreda offices were external bodies other than the community members who participated the meetings hold for targeting. The remaining eight (11.27 percent) of the respondents replied as they do not know and these respondents are those who did not attend the meeting. The same trend was followed in order to investigate about the stakeholders who actively participated or involved in the selection of the beneficiaries.

The data obtained shows that the selection process was handled by DAs, community members and their leaders and experts group from Woreda Administration, Agricultural and Rural Development and other Offices. The proportion of respondents is the same as the response for external bodies' involvement or participation. Therefore about 63 (88.73 percent) of the respondents replied that the process of targeting was carried out by the inducement of DAs, communities and their leaders, and experts from the Woreda's offices. The rest eight (11.27 percent) respondents are those who could not respond because of their missing to attend the meetings. Tabular presentation is as follows.

Table 4.2.4 Response of HHHs for external body involvement (N= 71)

External body participated in the meetings other than community members	No of respondents	Percent
DAs and supervisors	63	88.73
Woreda experts from administration, agricultural and rural development and other offices	63	88.73

Source: Researchers' HH survey result, 2010

Table 4.2.4 indicates the bodies or stakeholders who have been involved in the process of selection of supposed beneficiaries are the communities, and the administrative experts from Woreda's offices. During handling the selection process each community which is represented

by its synonym “Gott” at local level, is given quota so that they would select and presented the HHs that has been felt food is secure by the community to the whole community and administrative organs participating in the process. To do so, committee from each community was organized and given the outline how to identify the beneficiaries eligible to the program which is recognized as food security task force. The PIM also mandates the committee established to be active participant in all matters concerning established to be active participant in all matters concerning food security and PW planning. However, though the community food security task force is available, virtually, they do not seem strong and functional.

Table 4.2.5 HHHs response for involved bodies during targeting

Who targeted and involved in the selection of beneficiaries?	No of respondents	Percent
DAs and supervisors only	-	-
Community and its leaders only	-	-
DAs, community leaders and Administrative organs	-	-
Experts from Woreda council and agricultural and rural development offices only	-	-
DAs, community leaders, and experts form Woreda offices	63	88.73
I do not know because I have not participated the meeting	8	11.27
Total	71	100

Source: Researcher’s HH survey result, 2010

From the tables above one can see that both the community who are considered internal bodies and administrative organs and experts from the Woreda offices, external bodies, are involved and participated in selection of the beneficiaries. Hence, the approach employed for targeting at this specific area is the mixed one, as mentioned earlier, which is done both the community and the administrative bodies. This is an approach recommended by most of the scholars to be effective because of its advantages over the other types. However, it is not away from critiques as it requires honesty and fairness from both sides of the involvers. Communities may commit errors and act biased because of misunderstanding, selfishness and influencing social system so that a program would not bring about outcomes contributing nothing to a goal predicted.

Administratively, biasness, political affiliation, and lack of proper data on program and client groups and ignorance are some of aspects favoring to failure while targeting beneficiaries for a given transfer program.

With this regard, all respondents: sampled HHHs, FGD and key informant group discussion attendants reflected that society is lacking openness and fairness at large. To clarify their opinion, they recall what happens every time when any opportunity with income and other benefit comes. They said that all segments and each individual of a community wishes to be participant in any endeavor, be it is poor or better off and they do not tend to give priority unless forced. On the other hand, if they could not succeed in having the opportunity what they do is they will vote a person who is relative to them. From this expression it is possible to suggest that belongingness and taking care of each another is being eroded and the society is getting expectant. It seems that empowerment is critical in that they would develop self reliance, prioritize the poor feeling that they are their parts and become at justice side and fair through awareness creation.

4.2.3 Size of Family Targeted per HH

Concerning this aspect, the objective of the inquiry is to assess whether all members of a family has been made or entitled to join the program. This is to mean whether each family members hence the issues of dilution of HHs within the same family, and dilution due to mix up different family members into one's family as if they belong to the HH so that they share resource transferred dilution between two different families.

As it is recommended and stressed by the PSNP's action guiding manual and any other program also, a family is supposed to be targeted with its full members (size) who are living and continue to live together during the time of selection of beneficiaries. The very principle behind is that entitling the whole family members enables the targeted HH to receive any transfer likely to be delivered to each of its members or per head where by the resource will not be diluted or shared in a decreased rate among their members.

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If a family is not targeted with its full family size who continues to live together under a roof, any transfer given to it is going to be shared by all of its members, so long as it is likely that resources are shared among its members, leading to reduction in prescribed rate or amount for each of the HH members. When targeting with full size is not practiced, those members at a HH who are not included or entitled for a transfer are taking share of such a transfer rivalry for which they have not been entitled by reducing from the amount rated for an individual HH who are included eligible or entitled for. During this time, the amount of transfer prescribed exclusively for an individual member of a HH is compromised which in turn will affect an anticipated result or outcome to be achieved by weakening the ability of a program towards redressing the gap hence making the effort of intention measure fruitless or insignificant. More specifically speaking the program shall not bring about change of any interest which is in target.

Another dimension of targeting while dealing with family size reduction is the reduction due to mix up of other family members in to other HHs as their own ones as if they were belonging to the same family so that they will share the rationed transfer between the two families. This trend makes the dilution of resources within and between family's members. Here the context of dilution or reduction in size and amount can be treated both as the within and the between, the situation due to mix up of two independent HHs together, cases which are the cases categorized for this particular study. In the case of the within dilution size reduction families do not receive transfer with their full family size or number and they are forced to share the ration prescribed for some of their members with incomplete prescription ration size for the whole members of the family within the same HH system.

The other case categorized as dilution is that brought about by the mixture of two independent families being registered as a unit. When this is a situation, the mixed up beneficiaries or family members are headed by either of their independent HHs and considered as a family for a particular case so as to share transfer which is likely to be routed. Under this scenario neither of the two HHs are included or targeted in to a program with their full family size and they share any transfer given among the two families who merged into one, which in turn going to be diluted or shared by the members within individual and independent ones who merged earlier for the sake of registration. This is done some times for corruption purposes especially by influential

group and community leaders whereby they let their family members included or enlisted in to others' family list especially into the poor's who will otherwise lose an opportunity in case of denial to do so.

Neither of the two families receives the rationed or prescribed transfer size or amount to an individual HH member or per head nor achieve their target most probably a target set by the program. Then, the transfer lacks its power to solve any gap identified to be filled by specific program. This is like diluting chemicals, such as acids, to weaken their power of action and then extent of severity effect on the medium going to be treated in laboratories. Of course in the case diluting or reducing from a fixed rate or amount does not bring about the same desired result in the case of transfer which are mostly prescribed doses to treat gaps of any type. In the case of diluting or treating acids and other chemicals is to water or other agents, the final result is positive and conducive environment for any treatment or action is created. Any dilution in transfer is not recommended and it does not bring about any predicted or predetermined output. This is because transfers are fixed as rations so that they would yield or contribute to better expectations if they are transferred by the amount or size rationed. Hence they are result oriented if delivered to a beneficiary in prescribed and full dose.

If a given family is to be identified as a beneficiary for a program each and individual member of the HH should be addressed and let entitled for the rationed transfer unless and otherwise an intervention is meant for specific category or group within the family. Such programs include, for example, intervention meant to pregnant and nursing mothers, children under five years of age, people for some medical cases, etc, and the intended measures are going to be given out for these identified individuals only from the HHs.

Considering the principles of targeting pre-identified by the PIM, the manual dictates that all family members of a HH should be targeted and for the case of resource limitation it also forwards the way outs. To effect or contextualize the limitation in resource, it guides that priority should be set hence the most vulnerable and chronically food insecure HHs will be addressed or entitled eligible to the program with their full family size. During conducting HH survey, therefore this was one of the aspects assessed so that the question of whether the family has been

joined the program with its full family size or not would be answered. This has been in focus because the main objective of the program is to cover the food gap which could not be covered by the families' own production and which will lead to HHs' asset and other livelihood depletion. To achieve this end the program emphasizes on prioritization and full family inclusion because it is all the family members who will experience the gap during the times of shortage in own food production.

In the study area, as it is true in most of places where safety nets and other intervention measures towards food security achievement are made, no beneficiary HH has been found to be included in the program with full size. This is not only true on for the PAs where the study was conducted but also for the whole PA in the Woreda. To cross-check the data obtained from respondent HHHs, further interviews and discussions are held with FGD and key informants who attended the discussions. Furthermore, both non beneficiaries and beneficiary HHHs from PAs other than the sampled ones for the study are asked on the way walking to those sampled PAs sampled for enrichment. And this was done as field observation. Apart from those beneficiaries, non beneficiary HHs informed that there is no beneficiary HH which has been selected with its full families for the program. To emphasize the comment the HHH expresses the following:

"... it is about to throw a pinch of grain to a flock of chicken, may be most of the chicken find no single grain to pick up and left wasted wandering here and there looking for it, while a few of them which are lucky find few to pick up. Our society is all with large family size per head, from which only few individuals have got the chance to join the program but still with a few and probably half of their members. Of course there are some who should not have been targeted." A non beneficiary individual from non-sampled PA, called Ambicho speaks when he was looking after an ox and a cow around his farm. An opponent non-beneficiary individual from non-sampled PA expresses the following while crossing a village's grazing yard to market:

"... Why do you bother about their full family? Why you do not see others not included poor and those included non poor unfairly? There are still others who could not find the chance. What the targeted are doing now and going to do in the future to the government? What they are going to

pay for their inclusion? Sometimes it seems that the government is unfair and in favor of the poor who are making themselves poor and maintaining themselves to remain poor, how far it is important to see or look after the poor who are never struggling to change their conditions being expectant."

Of course it is also pointed out by the sampled survey participants and the group discussions that the reduction in family size has been duly favored by many factors: the community, political burden, resource limitation, and large magnitude of HHs all PAs who are food insecure and misunderstanding of some stakeholders during the targeting who actually involved in the process. These are special points identified by key informants attributing to size reduction and then dilution of families during the discussions held and field work observation. The HHH participants have also recalled some of them as factors in a similar way though the way they expressed was in an indirect approach.

To go through the identified factors briefly, the factors identified as sources of dilution by the key informants both at Woreda and zonal level have played their role towards dilution in various ways. During the discussion session with the key informants the factors are expressed indifferent ways and all the expressions were found rotating each other. Considering the role of community in inducing the dilution, the back history of relief delivery in the area has been a cause so that all segments of the community are expectants: the poor and the better off which are the status set by the community itself. As it is true in most parts of the country where relief is a trend whereby any resource consigned to their respective areas is shared by all of the community. To do this the community makes some arrangements, either the within or between dilution of their family members.

With regard to within dilution, each HHs of the relief destination is target or included with few of its family members while in case of the between dilution the poor are made to deliver the transferred resource to the whole community. To effect the delivery, the poor are targeted with their full family size for the sake of targeting that they would receive the relief and then distribute among the community or some of the family members of may be both better offs and

other poor are enlisted as a family member of the targeted poor so as to do the same reception and delivery. Here the virtually targeted poor have no right to refuse the agreement and they would be marginalized from different social and economic relations by the community in case of breaking of the agreement. In fear of these the poor are manipulated by the society. This scenario witnesses that the poor is always threatened, not self esteemed, and insecure socially, economically and even politically. Hence the community has contributed to the within dilution through manipulation of the poor and being expectant. In the process, the poor itself acts as an instrument due to fear. This is done still to widen the coverage. Considering the community role a non-beneficiary attendant in FGD says:

"... we all are the poor for the government, what makes difference between us today is or may be simply possession of an ox or a cow to someone which would be disappeared or depleted in case of unforeseen shock. If such shock comes and hits them, you lose them and remain the same poor tomorrow as who are recognized the poor today."

Another point favoring dilution discussed by the informants, which is always likely to be the case, is the role of politics. PSNP has been launched into implementation in December 2005 which was the eve of the 1997 (2005) Ethiopia National Election. As the resource is limited which could not address all the community it might have been found necessary to make some ill arrangements by the implementers so as to give large coverage. This could be only achieved if and only if the dilution of family and inclusion of some influential individuals or groups is carried out as an affiliation. Thus, dilution has been favored at the expense of those chronically poor and food insecure HHs in order to maximize or larger the outreach and include some illegible for the maintenance of political career so as to facilitate the election which was forthcoming.

While dealing with resource limitation it is obvious that the resource at disposal for the transfer is still in scarcity which could not be sufficient to satisfy the majority who are needy and food insecure. So in order to give larger coverage for beneficiary inclusion, despite the available resource, the issue of full family targeting has been compromised. This might have been also exercised not only for resource shortage and but also in favor of politics which is dealt before.

This is to mean the resource shortage which was accompanied by the election coming then has much favored the dilution.

The last aspect identified to contribute into the dilution was that of the misconception of some stakeholders (experts and others) who involved in the process of selection about the program and some concepts. The targeting career done by a campaign has aggravated the misconception as there was no enough time to held discussion and share information amongst the stakeholders though a brief training was arranged for some of them. The mistake committed to exercise dilution was expressed to be the misunderstanding of the concepts HHHs and HH by some of the participants who assigned for facilitating the selection of beneficiaries. They considered both to be the same and administered the targeting procedure by the numbers given to a PA or community as a quota in terms of HHs. To simplify, they targeted the HHHs size equal to the size or quota given to the PA in terms of HHs. In this selection only HHHs were selected without any of their family members. While compiling the beneficiaries' list the experts and others who participated in targeting task were asked to submit the list to office from where they were assigned for facilitating. This time, those who committed the problem submitted the HHHs list equivalent to the PA's quota without their corresponding families which then become headache and favored the dilution.

The other thing which will be worthwhile mentioning with regard to experts in some part was even misunderstanding and limited awareness about the program itself as it was new introduction. To clarify the idea behind, apart from those experts newly involved in the process of targeting, even those participating in relief and emergency aid targeting at Woreda level had tend to treat the program as an emergency aid.

The dilution through this way was committed in fear of dropping some of those targeted by only a head so that reducing family size of each HHH's. This has also been the case because of the fear of political and election atmosphere which was to be managed in the near future not to be disturbed by those who would be dropped out from the previous list. Therefore the misunderstanding on the concepts HHHs (head of the family) and HHs (family members) has potentially been the source for dilution though still in favor of politics. Similarly, the four aspects

identified potential sources for the dilution are meant to give larger outreach coverage in one or another ways. When the dilution due to mix up of different families is considered, no data has been found indicating the mix up and merge of one's family members into the others so that inducing to no dilution. However, the key informants interviewed confess for its previously existing trend and they forward that it has been solved during retargeting of beneficiaries a year after the first targeting which was made to refine the profile of beneficiaries.

To get back and resume with the main concern of discussion intended to be through for this subsection on targeting, full family size is in focus to which the sub section has been devoted for. The beneficiaries targeted eligible to this specific program are those supposed to be chronically food insecure and those who are experiencing food gap for couple of months (six months in most cases) for their family members. This is the gap that the program has been designed to cover or to narrow thus enabling the families identified eligible to over winter to their harvest time possibly the season when they can feed themselves. It seems only to be achieved if the family could receive the rationed transfer with its full members so that each of them can take their own specified share. If this is done the resource delivered to HH will be capable of covering the gap. However, if the size reduction is there, which in turn results in resource reduction, the family is forced either to minimize the rationed transfer prescribed to an individual member hence to over season the gap or uses the rationed resource size for short period of time remaining with uncovered for gap when they cannot feed themselves.

In the study area, as it has been explained in previous sections, no beneficiary HH has been joined the program with its full members. Moreover, the number of family size by which each HHs targeted is too small and in most cases it is half or below half of the actual size. From the beneficiaries list complied at Woreda level it has been observed that the largest size of HHs that a family has been targeted is about 11 but it is very seldom case. The least size is one HH which is a case for D.S component beneficiary. Similarly, it is observed from the list that most of the HHs is targeted by three to four of their family size which seems the general feature for the Woreda. The largest size mentioned, still being very rare, and may be for few individuals who might have been favored in few PAs, is at Woreda level and is not at sampled ones

The sampled PAs for this specific study have contained a total of beneficiaries 1077 who are headed by 283 HHHs and it is about 3.81 family sizes for each HHH on average. To put the figure by which each PA is addressed, Debub-Fonko has 422 HHs who are headed by 115 HHHs with average family size of 3.70 per family; Dulancho- Belella has 451 HHs headed by 107 HHHs which is about 4.22 HH members for each family on average; and Mirab Anna-Lemmo has been targeted with a total beneficiaries size of 204 being headed by 61 HHH for which the average is 3.34 HH per family.

Though these figures tend to indicate that each family has been joining the program with a family member of four on average the real situation is not the same and families are found to have less than this average in most of the occasions. To cross-check the profile obtained from the beneficiaries' list of the wereda's agricultural and Rural Development Office, the sampled HHHs are asked about the number of families by which they are receiving the transfer and it has been found that the size is similar to the average. This is done of course to assess whether the figure reads the same at Woreda and PA level. Below is the comparison between the two cases.

Table 4.2.6 Comparison between respondents' and PAs' family sizes

Name of PA sampled	Beneficiaries targeted*			Sampled respondents and family size included**		
	HHHs	HHs	Average /HHH	HHHs	HHs	Average
Debub-Fonko	115	422	3.70	29	109	3.76
Dulancho-Belella	107	451	4.22	27	116	4.30
Mirab-Anna Lemmo	61	204	3.34	15	50	3.33
Total	283	1077	3.81	71	275	3.87

Source*: Woreda Agricultural and Rural Development Office, 2008

** : Researcher's HH survey result, 2010.

From table above one can understand that a respondent HHH has joined the program with his or her four family members which is almost the same for both PAs' and samples' cases. Thus the sampled HHs is characterizing the same trend for the average family size by which they are targeted as that of the whole PA's average. However, the figure is lower than the size that a HH is possessing in rural areas which ranges between six and eight members. The average in both

sample and total beneficiaries, even at a very glance looking, spells out that the beneficiaries were not targeted with their full family members.

In witness of the situation (figure) that a HH has not been targeted with its full size, the data collected from the respondent HHs indicate that the average family size of each family, which is an actual figure, is about 7.66 person per HH for the study though none of them have been included with it. The difference in both of the average is about 3.79 HH indicated that each family is missing at least four of its members from being eligible beneficiary of the program and its corresponding resources or transfer.

As an attempt made at the beginning of the discussion on the issue that a HH is targeted by its half and even below of its family size, the field observation and actual size owned by the HHs reveals that about 50 percent of HH members of each respondent are not included in the program hence are not receiving the transfer. And this is a point where the principles of targeting forwarded by the manual, PIM, is found to be compromised hence potentially contributing to threats that the program will not be achieving its end in addition to other factors (from the beneficiaries side and the gap in implementation). Below is the table to present the comparison between the actual size and targeted size of each HH.

Table: 4.2.7 Comparison between actual and targeted family sizes of respondents

Name of PA sampled	No of HHHs sampled	Family size		Average family size per HHH			Family left untargeted from the actual		
		Targeted	Actual	Targeted	Actual	Difference	Total HHs	Average per HH	% from actual
Debub-Fonko	29	109	228	3.76	7.86	4.10	119	4.10	52.20
Dulancho-Belella	27	116	212	4.29	7.85	3.56	96	3.56	45.28
Mirab-Anna-Lemmo	15	50	104	3.33	6.93	3.60	54	3.60	51.92
Total	71	275	544	3.87	7.66	3.79	269	3.79	49.50

Source: Researcher's HH survey result, 2010

As it has been attempted to describe earlier on the size of family members that each HHs are targeted to benefit from the program, which is stated as it is not with full size, the table above tends to compare between the actual and targeted family sizes per HH or HHH. Hence the table shows that, no family in three of the PAs sampled for this specific study, has been selected with

its full members, it rather indicates that about 269(49.50 percent) of their actual size are not made beneficiaries who were members of those HHs and their corresponding HHHs targeted eligible and are diluted with their family members. From the actual size registered or enumerated during this survey, only 275(51.50 percent) of HHs are targeted. The table again shows that about four members on average from each HHs or HHHs are missed and being kept off as illegible ones for the three PAs in reference averagely.

When the data is treated on the basis of individual PA, from which independent information is obtained, about 119(52.20 percent) of the HHs are remained untargeted from Debub-Fonko owned by those targeted HHHs hence each respondent missing four members on average. In the case of Dulancho- Belella, another PA sampled for the survey, 96(45.28 percent) HHs has been missed from total families for the PA's respondents. As it is true for the PAs described earlier, each HH misses about three to four of its members. Mirab Anna-Lemmo also shares the same feature described for the two PAs. Accordingly, from the actual size of families enumerated during the survey, it seems that 54 (51.92 percent) of the families are yet not included despite the fact that they belong to the HHHs and HHs targeted eligible. Similarly, each HH misses three to four of its members from the benefits of the program and likely sharing the resources or transfer they are receiving by a few of their members to all.

To be skipped through the sub-section, targeting and its principles stipulated by the PIM seem compromised so long as no HH has been selected with all of its members though it is attributable to factors described before. Thus it is likely to suggest that resource is being diluted; the expectation from the program will be challenged, though it is not only attributable to this aspect, as beneficiaries' personal characteristics can be mentioned to contribute too; food gap is being maintained other than getting narrowed; and so on. Thus it seems necessary for revision in excluding the illegible and addressing those eligible with their full HH sizes.

4.3 Transfer and Its Associated Exercises

This section tries to overview the general trends of transfer being experienced in the study area. It mainly emphasized on type, amount or rate, preference, timeliness, deferring trend and other associated aspects of resource delivery whether they are as prescribed by the PIM. As it is done

for targeting, the data collected for this issue has been tried to be condensed and generalized into sub-sections so that the basic question set pertaining to transfer would be answered without missing the objective. The sub-sections are strived to hold major concerns of any transfer system and the trends and aspects of transfer in the study are as possible. Brief presentations intended to be conveyed in each sub-sections are as follows.

4.3.1 Type of Transfer on Progress

In this sub section, the type of transfer so far made as wage rate or direct assistance is discussed and the trend in the study area is overviewed. As social safety nets are programs to transfer resources to the needy, the poor and vulnerable individuals and/or groups of population in two forms: in terms of food basis or cash or income forms, the PSNP has also put forwarded the two options to be opted from, both by the grass root implementers and the final beneficiaries. So the PIM definitely, gives opportunity to prefer to either of the types and to be changed or shifted to either or their mixed form upon the request of the supposed beneficiaries and the prevailing seasonal situations.

To assess whether the trend has been in line to the PIM's direction or framework of transfer, the beneficiaries were interviewed so as to recall the type of transfer they have been receiving since they join the program and the corresponding decision maker for the type. Accordingly, the type of transfer made so far for the whole life span of the program in the area is exclusively cash transfer. The type in cash was and still found to be preference to the beneficiaries targeted eligible which was done upon recognized consensus by the beneficiaries themselves. All the respondents sampled for this specific study revealed that the trend in transfer has been in cash and showed the agreement duly for the type. The respondents showed their eagerness for the type as it would be quite right and fitting to their preference to, even the decision was made by external body on their absence to reflect strong consensus.

For the same issue, FGD participants especially those arranged from the beneficiary HHHs, who are not included in the sample population for the HH survey, were interviewed for the type and the decision making process. Similarly, key informants are subjected to the same question: of type, preference and decision making. As expressed by the sampled respondents the two groups

did not conceal that the type has been in cash so far, throughout the whole transfer terms and it was decided by the beneficiaries themselves. Even the key informants groups seem in favor of the type and forward their justification behind for their preference.

For their preference to the type in cash they list out the problem of warehouse, management cost, the threats of theft, and some problems associated to the beneficiaries themselves if the transfer had been to be in kind rather than in cash. To elaborate the possible problems associated to the beneficiaries the groups in all the PAs hesitate and afraid of if the beneficiaries would collect and take the transfer in kind to their homes as they sell out it at point of collection due to lack of pack animals for transporting, and the probable distance they travel to collect as the center of dispatch would probably be the Woreda's center due to absence of warehouses as destination at each PA's or supervision's centers. Furthermore, some of the key informants suggest that calibrating the ration size to each HH may be problematic if the type was decided to be in kind.

However, those sampled HHHs, in addition to the threats articulated by the FGD and key informants groups, stress that bribery or corruption could have been their headache recalling its trend back which they suffered from, during relief aid food distribution yet unsolved to date. Besides, the respondents confirm that the transfer in cash is too easy to collect and even the money given can be used to purchase cheap and locally available preferable food items to their families as a coping strategy. Hence it is possible to say that the transfer in cash rather than in kind has been preference to both the beneficiaries and the concerning implementing agents at Woreda and decided upon due recognition of the beneficiaries. Below are the responses by the respondents of the HH survey.

Table 4.3.1 Type of transfer received and preference by the respondents

Type of transfer	Periods or no. of seasons received	Respondents		Preference	
		No.	Percent	No.	Percent
In cash	Six (whole season)	71	100	71	100
In food (kind)	-	-	-	-	-
Mixed (cash and food)	-	-	-	-	-
Total	6	71	100	71	100

Source: Researcher's HH survey result, 2010

4.3.2 Amount and Sufficiency of Transfer

While dealing with the amount or rate of transfer, it is important to see and associate the rate with local labor markets and other associated prices on goods and services, especially on food items. The types and rate of transfers are always expected to affect the self targeting and inclusion or exclusion of individuals either negatively or positively. They are recommended to favor the neediest in terms of inclusion to the program and benefiting to its resources.

The trend of transfer of resources is one of the objectives of this study. In order to complement and address the major aspects of transfer the amount has been intended to be reviewed so that the relative picture of the system can be visualized. In order to answer the question and objective set for the issue, the sampled HHH respondents have been interviewed not only to comment on size and its sufficiency but also for reasons on what they replied. Accordingly, from the sampled PAs all the respondents included into the HH survey share the idea the amount so far being transferred is not sufficient and commensurate. However, they do not underestimate the improvements done though they feel that the amount is not reasonably enough. The beneficiaries not only complain on the amount they are receiving but also explain their reasons that why they are feeling insufficient. The major reasons forwarded by the respondents for their complain are: dilution of their family members, rise in price on agricultural inputs and food items being costly, the rate fixed so far is not reasonable, and so on. See table below.

Table 4.3.2 Respondents reaction on sufficiency and improvement of transfer (PWs)

Attribute	Category/ Response	No. of HHs	Perce nt
Amount given is sufficient	Yes		
	No	71	100
	Indifferent		
Reason if no, or not sufficient	Full family is not included	35	49.30
	Food items are getting costly	16	22.53
	Agricultural inputs are getting costly		
	Rate fixed early is low	20	28.17
I wish transfer improved	Yes	71	100
	No		
	Indifferent		
Transfer is preferable if improved in	Cash	71	100
	Food/Kind		
	Both as necessarily		
Reason for the type of preference of transfer	Easy to collect and reallocate for use	71	100
	Purchase cheap, locally available and preferred food items from markets	17	23.94
	Fear of corruption if in kind	24	35.21
	Distance to travel and lack of transporting means if in kind	30	42.25

Source: Researcher's HH survey result, 2010

As the table shows above, all the beneficiaries are not comfortable with the rate of transfer which they have been receiving so far. They account 100 percent and spell out different reasons why they felt it insufficient. Amongst are: existence of untargeted family members, which in turn leads to reduction in transfer amount; market price instability and high rate of fluctuations; price raise in agricultural inputs and food items; and low wage rate fixed earlier. Similarly, all the respondents seek improvement or amendment on transfer rate if possible for the reasons they listed out above. They prefer to improvement on cash rate and explain their reasons which they felt problematic to their condition if it is arranged in kind other than in cash.

The reasons felt by the respondents are: simplicity to collect and reallocate into alternative and various uses, use of money for coping strategy by buying cheap and locally available consumption items for food, which they have been adapted for; fear of corruption by kebele leaders and other implementers, which are shared by all of the respondents; and about 30(42.25

percent) the respondents are in fear of long distance they need to travel to collect and lack of pack animals for transportation to their homes who are from PAs distant to the Woreda's center.

The FGD and key informant participants also are found to have the same view of the HHHs respondents and add other suggestions that the amount seems to be improved in cash. For the sake of elaboration, especially the key informants stressed the problem of warehouse at Woreda center and management cost if the transfer is to be made in kind. While recalling the rate fixed earlier, when the program was launching, one of key informants at zone level states that the rate was not as such lower when the program begun. He adds that even the rate at birr six was better than the amount of grain fixed at the time and it was capable of purchasing more grain in local markets than the rate fixed in Kind to be delivered directly. He also remarks on the choice made by the period that the transfer in cash was with relative advantage over the kind. However, the key informant suggests if the improvement can be made mentioning the market inflation on goods and services. To reflect the insufficiency in wage rate one of the sampled respondents for HH survey speaks that:

"You see me here I am collecting wage rate delayed for a month and the amount is insufficient. My daughter is right now waiting for me to collect her school accommodation rent, for which I am in charge of 50.00 birr because she is attending high school here in the town. Then I go back to home with the remaining few balance where there is too many to be spent on, which the balance cannot afford yet" a respondent from Dulancho Belella PA, when he was collecting monthly transfer.

4.3.3 Timely Transfer, Deferring and Full term Receiving

Transfers need to be provided to the beneficiaries on timely basis when it is needed. If this is not done the supposed beneficiaries will be under stress so that they may be forced to deplete their existing productive and other assets. With this regard, the PIM, in which all references for the implementation is abiding in, urges for the timely transfer, deferring in times of good condition, and delivery of full term transfer for the eligible clients. Taking the mentioned reference points for the routine activities of the program's progress, the study has been interested in examining whether these procedures has been enforced or compromised.

In the PIM, it is stipulated that a transfer delayed is a transfer denied. From this one can understand that it is too much essential to be punctual in transferring resources for the entitled group when they are in a time of need. The denial to provide the transfer on due time, therefore, leads the beneficiaries to employ or take unnecessary measures on their livelihood assets. However, during safe times, when their own production is available to feed the families, the PIM also recommends deferral of transfers that it could be collected in the future as necessarily.

Except for the full term transfer even including those released for extended months as emergency aid freely, which is done almost delayed all the seasons, the transferring trend in time and deferring in the study area is not being enforced. This implies that the beneficiaries are not apart from depleting their asset and are not ensured for predicting the resource they are going to receive so that they can plan for better use.

The data collected from HH survey through the interviewing the participants reveal that in most cases the delay in transfer has been a common phenomenon in the study area. All of the respondents sampled that are 71(100 percent), and agree that it is very seldom that they used to received their wage rate on time when they are in need. Accordingly, the information gathered and compiled from the HHs indicate that the beneficiaries consider their transfer to be done earlier if they are paid 15 days after the end of the month they are employed for. Similarly, there has been a trend in delay even for a month. During all the seasons of transfer the respondents stress that they face challenge due to delay which would not get improved through course of time.

The respondents think that factors contributing to the delay are: the beneficiaries themselves (feel that they do not push in claiming for the delay), DAs (do not submit their monthly reports on PW and beneficiaries' attendance, and Woreda offices (ignorant to facilitate the payments timely). Especially the critique was done to the agricultural and rural development office. But they witness as they receive their full term transfer even if given delayed. However, it is still denied so long as they could not obtain it when they are in need.

Table 4.3.3 Timeliness and full term offering trends of transfers

Inquiries	Response/ Category	No. of HHHs	Percent
Transfer is given on time often	Yes	-	-
	No	71	100
Transfer is early/on time if given delaying for	5 days	-	-
	10 days	-	-
	15 days	71	100
Transfer is late if given delaying	For 10 days	-	-
	For 20 days	-	-
	For 30 days	71	100
Always receive full season payment	Yes	71	100
	No	-	-

Source: Researcher's HH survey result, 2010

For the trend in delay the concerning key informants take the same stand to the beneficiaries though their reason is not similar. While treating it from different angle the group puts the responsibility over the region that the fund is not released on time. However, they add, the transfer is done as soon as the fund is released. Pertaining to deferring resources to the most critical times, when the HHs are getting most needy, the key informants respond for its nonexistence protesting that the problem is still from the region which is the body in releasing and monitoring the fund.

While justifying the situation, they stated that the system of financial resource management has been found to operate within specific period of six months when the program's function is active. It seems to indicate that the budget released should be spent within the six months periods. They forward that they are about the respect the boundary set specifically for that of finance which urges for the complete use of resource within those six months, and the opportunity or right given by the PIM is being cancelled by the framework design for financial management.

As a coping strategy from the delay in transfer the beneficiaries are forced borrow money from illegal local lenders on interest rates which may sometimes scaled up to 50 percent of the principal. For practicing deferring, the beneficiaries do not have information that they can post-pond their transfers to critical time. Besides, they claim it would be impossible to do even are

with information because the rate is not sufficient. One of the respondents opposing the question in deferring transfer expresses her opinion in a supervised way.

"It seems you are joking, first of all the payment we are receiving is not enough even to afford on our matters as we receive it by half of our families. It could have been important if the amount is amended despite of attempt for deferring it to the future." Table 4.3.4 below describes the trends.

Table 4.3.4 Coping strategy for delay in transfer and trends to defer

Inquiries	Response/ Category	No. of HHHs	Percent
Exercise deferring of transfer	Yes		
	No	71	100
Reason, if No	Payment not enough	71	100
	No critical time and timely transfer		
	No information for possibility	14	19.72
Coping strategy for delay on transfer	Sell of future transfer		
	Borrowing locally without interest		
	Borrowing locally with interest	56	77.47
	Post pond the program	15	22.53

Source: Researcher's HH survey result, 2010

From the table above it can be noted that no trend has been there for exercising deferring and the entire respondents claim that the payment is not even enough for the seasons transferred. Besides, they do not have information about deferring. Similarly all the respondents tend to agree that they cannot exercise the trend if they had been with piece of information for the reason they mentioned above. Hence it is clear to see about information gap and recommend on delay.

4.4 Public Works

Under this sub-section, a brief about public works pre-identified by the program's designers is made. It overviews the aspects on planning, both participation and deferring in time, practical feasibility in view of beneficiaries and Woreda expertise, and types of PWs being undertaken in

clash, on PW activities own farm practices. The data gathered through interviewing the respondent HHHs during the survey indicate that there is no participation of the community and/or their correspondents in the planning process of PWs in any means at any level of projects or PWs. All of the respondents, that are about 71(100 percent) interviewed take the same stand that there is no community participation. To triangulate and enrich the information gathered from the HHHs interview, participants arranged and grouped for FGD and key informant discussions were subjected to the same issue interviewed by the HHHs. The two groups have reflected their views differently of course without denying for the limitations.

While the FGD attendants totally agree to that of the HHHs' stand, key informants forwarded somewhat different views and the reasons they felt on the subject for the limitation. All DAs but one from the sampled PAs who attended discussion session agrees that the plan in the study area is a top to down trend or approach and conclude that they are ordered what to do by dispatch of letter circulations. While stressing the issue they argue that even they do not participate in all planning for activities to be done at PA level-neither PSNP PWs nor other activities: it is not only PWs of the program but also other plans are done exclusively by the Woreda, adding. One of the attendants of the discussion session complains that:

"Apart from participation in plans we are suffering from the plans we receive from the Woreda through letter circulations. Sometimes we find activities planned and sent to us which are not relevant to our site. Surprisingly, now it is becoming common to receive circulations on physical plans for which labor is not available and norm is not meeting. He adds wereda's plan is distributed to PAs equally without considering the relevance of activities and working power available for specific work on norm basis." a DA from Mirab-Anna-Lemmo PA

However, experts and other officials attended the session criticize other stakeholders at higher level. They point out their figures to the zonal and regional implementers for the limited participation. They argue that such implementing hierarchies are favoring the situation. When explaining, instructions from these hierarchies are always coming down to them in a confined, short period fixed and urgent yet seeking for fast reaction. Despite their attempt to protest, however, they do not overshadow on the problem, hence reflecting absence for participation.

Table 4.4.1 PWs planning and participation: Response by HHHs

Inquiries	Response			
	Yes		No	
	No. of HHHs	Percent	No. of HHHs	Percent
1. Beneficiaries and communities participate in PW planning			71	100
2. PWs planned by				
• Beneficiaries and community				
• KFSTF				
• CFSTF				
• Das	8	11.27		
• Woreda office	10	14.08		
• DAS and Woreda office	15	21.13		
Do not know	38	53.52		
Total	71	100		

Source: Researcher's HH survey result, 2010

Table 4.4.1 above shows that 71(100 percent) of the respondents replied that neither the beneficiaries nor the communities are involving in the planning process. To indicate their guessing on planners, about eight (11.27 percent) of the HHHs replied that the DAs would be with responsibility. About ten (14.08 and 21.13 percents) are guessing to be Woreda office alone and the DAs and Woreda office together respectively. The majority of the respondents that accounts to 38 (53.52 percent) stated that they do not know who would be preparing plan for PWs in which they are involving.

4.4.2 Types of PWs and Locations Practiced

The PIM defines PWs as labor intensive community-based activities which are designed to provide employment for chronically food insecure people who have “able-bodied” labor. Similarly, it describes such activities are desired to be labor intensive than capital. It is done so as to utilize the local labor in excess and to suit the activities to the skill level available in the rural areas. They are also adapted to be carried out by the professionals' technical skill level found at Woreda level. The beneficiaries are supposed to be participated in such labor intensive PWs mostly to be done in communal possessions so that the assets created are benefiting the whole community while the participants are receiving their monthly wage rates for the months identified critical for food gap. While creating assets to the community they are supposed to

protect their productive and livelihood assets previously possessing from depletion which is the core objective of the program.

Unless for specified reasons, no power is allowed to participate in individual asset creating activities such as homestead farming and the like as a part of the PWs. This indicates that community asset is in preference. The pre-identified PWs to be implemented by the program's beneficiaries include, soil and water conservation; road and wooden bridge networking; social facilities (such as schools, health posts, FTCs- construction, maintenance and fencing) forestry; and water sanitation and collection activities (such as spring cleaning, fencing, community pond digging). As these are all associated with the communities' farming system and centered development activities they have been prescribed to be located into watershed, which is the concept adopted from watershed management after the commencement of the program.

To answer the objective and its question set, questionnaires were developed believed to be relevant. They were administered both for the HH survey respondents and FGD and key informant discussion participants. The administered interview is the detail to the HH survey respondents which in a generalized manner presented to the discussion groups with the intention of examining types of activities and their location, perception by other community and the respondents for their importance and labor abuse.

Accordingly, the data collected and then condensed shows the activities and their location have been mostly resided within the framework of the PIM. All beneficiaries sampled for the survey from those PW participants, have indicated that the activities so far are undergoing in communal possessions. It is also assessed that soil and water conservation activities including forestry (Nursery and Plantation) have been the concern area by the Woreda and the PAs. However, there has been a trend that few of the beneficiaries have been involved in homestead farm activities for an official before two years as a part of PW which is no more problem since then. The respondents for this specific concern report that they are told to go to the official's home and do what are told there by their foreman and considered as if they were attending on PW and not as an absentees. The questions administered for the interview were in what activities you are

involving and have ever participated in activities located on some individuals' farm other than the community possessions as a part of PW?

Table 4.4.2 Types of PWs and perception on creating community assets

Inquiry	Responses					
	Yes		No		I do not know	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Activities contributing labor for						
• SWC and forestry	71	100				
• Social institutions (schools, health posts, FTC centers	71	100				
• Feeder roads and wooden bridges	71	100				
• Water sanitation collection structures	71	100				
• Involved in private farm	8	11.27				
• Feel that contributing to community	46	64.79			25	35.21

Source: Researcher's HH survey result, 2010

One can be articulating that about 71 (100 percent) of the respondents are contributing labor to such activities pre-focused by the program's designers' for their implementation. It is important to note that all the respondents felt the same for all activities under the examination. Concerning labor abuse by the officials, about eight (11.27 percent) of the sampled respondents encountered to be exploited participating and contributing to labor for private homestead owned by an official who was a nominee at Woreda level representing the location. Another aspect under this subsection is the perception of the beneficiaries towards contributing to the community in addition to their personal benefit from the program. About 46 (64.79 percent) of the respondents reflect for their contribution while 25 (35.21 percent) are not conscious that if they are contributing.

When dealing and describing with the type and location of PWs under progress the study does not put its focus on sustainability of the activities performed so far. Neither is the norm condition of each identified PW components with their technical specification as they may need another investigation and relevant professional background, thus are aspects beyond the scope.

4.4.3 Trends in Deferring of PWs

It is usual to see from experience, rural agricultural activities are mostly time bounded and seasonal as the economic sector is dependent on natural rainfall. So long as the PIM is bench

mark for the study, and these are scenarios with great emphasis in it, an attempt has been made to assess whether it is being recognized or not. The PIM strictly criticizes that no activity should be done and planned at peak agricultural season when the HHs engaged in own farming activities and face labor scarcity.

Furthermore, the PIM also stipulates that the working time share for PW and own farm activities needs to be 20:80 ratio yet to be planned and performed in a way that first component does not compete for labor negatively affecting the routine livelihood endeavor of the HHs. Thus it clearly guides that any activity planned found to clash with critical production or harvest season must be deferred to a time or season when the HHs can safely participate without negative impact on their own farm production. So it is about to emphasizing on their own farm with no compromising factor such as PWs from the PSNP as it is meant to cover the gap when HHs cannot feed themselves through own production supply which in turn will lead to consumption of productive assets as a coping strategy leading to livelihood depletion.

Table 4.4.3 Trends in deferring and claiming of PWs

Inquiry	Respond to							
	Yes		No		Do not recall		Do not know it is possible	
	No. HHHs	Percent	No. HHHs	Percent	No. HHHs	Percent	No. HHHs	Percent
PWs planned at peak agricultural periods	71	100						
Participate the PWs at peak agricultural period	71	100						
Denied to participate PWs at peak agricultural period			71	100				
Used to defer PWs to other times			71	100				
Claimed to defer PWs			71	100				
Shift from PW to DS at any season not enabling to participate in PW			71	100			13	18.31

Source: researcher's HH survey result, 2010

Table 4.4.3 dictates that the respondents feature the same for all inquires. For example, they suffered from PWs planned during peak agricultural period and forced to participate in it which is similar to the total of the respondents. The right they are provided with is not on its course to of enforcement. Furthermore, most of them do not have awareness and information about the possibility that activities can be deferred; claim can be made and component shift-PW to DS or vice-versa for reasonable cases. From the total of respondents who reacted for defer in PWs and shift in program's component few of them, 13(18.31 percent) and eleven (15.49 percent) respectively added that they could be asking if they were with a piece of information.

However, some of the respondents explain that they personally complain to DAs or PWs' Forman when it is not convenient to participate in PWs which is informally made. They argue that the permission is expected from the willingness of the body claimed or other wise to be replaced by a young HH member. The DAs on their parts argue that the seasonality of some PWs which cannot be pushed to the future, and personal characteristics of some individuals claiming on the issue are the problem. They focus that there are some beneficiaries feel inconvenient to participate on labor works so that claiming for permission unreasonably. Adding to their threats, they argue that all will be complaining to be shift to DS component if one of their members (beneficiaries) is allowed with the shift. However they agree that arrangements are made for permission informally when their reason is appeared to be real and persuasive. On the procedure that they give permission, informally one of the key informants says that:

"If one of the PW participant asks me permission may be for a day coming up, I duly give them because they may send a child to the PW who does nothing. The next day, noting what is done on the previous by their neighbor, others may do the same so will remain with nothing done, and in fear of that we informally give permission." a DA, from Dulancho-Belella.

Here it seems that information gap is ample and awareness creation to all at local level (both beneficiaries and technical personnel) is likely. Similarly, most important to be addressed is the compromise made on peak agricultural periods when HHs produce their food supply for the months not covered by the program. Unless this is not treated on time, the expectations from the program will face a hill.

4.4.4 Practical Feasibility of PWs

This sub-section is devoted to one dimension of PWs, which is its practical and technical feasibility aspect. Of course the reference point for the study, the PIM, particularly identifies some of PWs to be implemented which are assumed to be labor intensive. Therefore, some brief made is on those pre-identified ones by the PIM. The very principle behind the design seems ambition to exploit locally available and surplus labor so that the secondary objective of the program, building community assets, will be met.

The program, despite seeking for labor intensive works to be done in ample, strives for their practical feasibility and norm references or standards to be achieved through locally available unskilled, semi-skilled and skilled manpower. These include both beneficiaries and expertise personal at Woreda level. To this regard, a little assessment is intended to be responded if the minimum requirements set for such PWs identified by the program are being maintained by those participants. The PIM also has adopted the approach to be based on watershed management principle hence the activities are performed at critical mini-watersheds. All activities undergone in a given watershed are required to follow some principles for their sustainability and risk creating potential if not design and implemented properly.

The study has inspired to overview this aspect because of the potential of activities to create risk if not handled with minimum standards which needs some technical knowledge. The objective is therefore to know how professionals at Woreda level and the participating beneficiaries at PA level view the activities. Accordingly, the instrument having the same content has been administered to the sampled HHHs, FGD, and key informants on which both viewed differently. The HH survey respondents and FGDs formed from beneficiary HHs, conceive that activities such as SWC, water sanitation and collection structures (public ponds) and social facilities (school health posts, FTC-construction, maintenance, fencing) are more difficult to work on them while the key informants, formed from academic background and area of action, look the activities to be feasible both technically and practically. The two groups are at opposite ends because of the awareness and academic level differences for technical aspects of such activities.

The key informants articulate that such PWs considered impractical by the beneficiaries are those can be designed and guided or supported by existing manpower at Woreda level indicating professional skill available to maintain the standards set for the PWs, especially SWC. On the contrary, they found road maintenance difficult because they cannot design and guide the activities with their technical specification due to academic background. Furthermore, they complain that there is no relevant and skilled manpower to guide the works even at Woreda level offices. On the other hand, the sampled respondents and FGD attendants feel PWs associated to road simple and possibly done by grouping which seems supporting with reason.

From the data gathered during HH survey, about 39 (54.93 percent) respond involving in SWC activities is difficult which is followed by 21 (29.58 percent) who felt social facilities to be impractical. About eleven (15.49 percent) of the HHs react that water sanitation (such as spring cleaning, fencing) and water collection or harvesting structures (public pond digging, cleaning and maintaining) are difficult and tedious to participate. Of course, the way the HHH viewing such activities is not from their technical aspects rather the labor requirement so that they appeared tedious and fatigue.

However, it has been observed that a guide circulated to Woredas as a norm reference for PWs is available for PSNP in agricultural and rural development office. The guide is with similar specifications which are revised by food and agricultural organization. While complaining difficulty on social facilities they argue that they travel long distances to carry logs for construction of schools, health posts and FTCs which is not recognized by PIM in reference which criticizes traveling long distances far away of community for PWs though the facilities they contribute labor is their communal assets to use together. The key informants composed of professional background however, protest the norm is not violated, but duly respected, which is functional throughout the country. Tabular summary is the following.

Table 4.4.4 Perceptions of respondents on feasibility of PWs

Inquiry	Response			
	Yes		No	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
SWC structures	39	54.93		
Social facilities	21	29.58		
Feeder roads				
Water sanitation and collection structures	11	15.49		
Total	71	100		

Source: Researcher's HH survey result, 2010

4.5 Asset Creation and Protection Situation

This sub-section is intended to highlight the asset holding situation of the HHs targeted to benefit from the program's resources. The program's core objective is prevention of HHs' livelihood and productive assets owned previously from possible depletion as a coping strategy by provision of resources which help cover the assumed food gap when the families cannot feed on their own production. Thus, the gap potentially forcing the beneficiaries to deplete their assets is overwintered by the transfer to be given out at that particular time of food shortage.

The program again identifies itself clearly that it is the component of the broadest food security program framework. Hence clearly states that the resource transferred to the targeted and chronically food insecure HHs simply cover the gap but not enable them to create another and additional new assets as the resources is fixed to bridge between own production and shortage seasons. It rather focuses on preventing previous assets and the responsibility for creating or building new and additional livelihood assets to the HHs' is given to another program, OFSP. Both programs are virtually designed to support each other hence resilient livelihood system of the HHs are established. To the end of the objective set by the study, data supposed to be relevant and answering the question are attempted to be obtained from the survey HHs and are triangulated by qualitative opinions from the corresponding key informants who involve in the implementation of the program.

In order to attempt answering the question instruments having contents on protection trend, types of assets prevented from depletion, creation of new assets and the means, access to OFSP and

other related supports contributing to graduation of beneficiaries are administered. Data obtained from HHs survey indicate that the beneficiaries have shown tendency in protecting their previous asset. All the sampled HHHs for the survey agree that their assets owned previously has been prevented from depletion since they join the PSNP. About 71 (100 percent) of the respondents especially stressed that their land is prominently rescored from being rented out and cultivated for half share by others.

With regard to other assets such as livestock and other HH equipment and jewelries most of them did not possess them before for the latter case remaining the same even after joining. In most cases the respondents could not create new assets because of inadequacy in wage rate transfers and inflation of goods and services for consumption, which are reasons felt by the HHs. However, assets are created from HH package program which is being offered on loan basis. Table 4.5.1 summarizes the details with their descriptions below.

Table 4.5.1 Asset protection and creation trends

Attribute	Response/Category	No.	Percent
HH's asset protected since the program joined	Yes	71	100
	No		
	Total	71	100
Types of assets mostly protected	Land	56	78.87
	Livestock		
	Land & Livestock	15	21.13
	Total	71	100
HH's assets are newly created	Yes	71	100
	No		
	Total	71	100
Types of HH's asset newly created	Land		
	Livestock	46	64.80
	Land & Livestock		
	Farm equipment		
	Total	46	64.80
HH's asset created due to	PSNP transfer	12	16.91
	OFSP package		
	HH package loan	29	40.85
	HHs' Package loan and PSNP transfer	5	7.04
	Total	46	64.80
Accessed OFSP Packages(any)	Yes		
	No	71	100
	Total		

Source: Researcher's HH survey result, 2010

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	OFSP package		
	HH package loan	29	40.85
	HHs' Package loan and PSNP transfer	5	7.04
	Total	46	64.80
Accessed OFSP Packages(any)	Yes		
	No	71	100
	Total		

Source: Researcher's HH survey result, 2010

While dealing with the type of critical assets prevented from depletion, the view of the respondents on the issue was asked. Accordingly, all the respondents, about 71 (100 percent) of them, agree that an essential and productive asset protected since joining the PSNP is land. In addition, few of them who possessed additional assets especially a cow or an ox, of course which are hold on share basis, agree that they have been maintained due to the PSNP. To describe the table above on type of assets felt being prevented from depletion, 56 (78.87 percent) of HHH's respond to have their land protected while the remaining 15 (21.13 percent) respond to have both land and few of livestock (especially cattle), which were possessed on share basis) being protected due to the program.

With respect to new asset building or creating the respondents participated in the survey are interviewed for the type and the way they built up. The information gathered from the survey reveal that the type is almost livestock, particularly cattle, and accessed on loan basis from HH income improvement package program. The key informant discussants also agree both on type and source. Bearing in mind that the way new assets are being created or built up, the respondents are asked whether they received any resource or packages (such as irrigation, water harvesting, improved technology inputs, agricultural packages) which are assumed to be let available by OFSP of the FSS other than those received on loan basis.

The response obtained is for its nonexistence so far. As the major objective of OFSP is to enable the beneficiaries built additional livelihood assets so that contributing to graduation, the program's end perdition, it is obvious that graduation, and the desired asset creation are in challenge. This is because the transfer offered from PSNP as a wage rate or DS is not sufficient enough to enable the beneficiaries creating new assets and even sometimes uncovering the food gap itself. No access to own land is observed for the beneficiaries after they join the program. The key informants, for the issue discussed on access to additional land of own and trend of the OFSP packages respond for the absence and for the first asset they explain it is due the absence of land redistribution before and after. They add however, the trend in renting out of land by beneficiaries is not in practice since they join the program though renting in is still insignificant and none existing.

Another assessment tried to be made in relation to asset in this section is the view of respondents on their food security situation and their capacity to restore or resilience in case of sudden shocks. With this regard the discussion on the same content was made both with FGD and key informants whether the beneficiaries are at safe side of normal shocks which are not considered sever and seeking external intervention. The key informants could not be preserved not to reflect their threats. One of the participants in key the formant intervene expressed his suspicion on HHs' resilience in cases of any shocks and their food security fate being eye witness for their shallow asset base, which is neither strong before nor created after. The other proponent of the discussion expresses his feeling on the threat which has been taken quotable articulation says:

"Their asset base is not still firm. So much has been said to be offered to the beneficiaries through OFSP packages to support the transfer and enabling asset creation. But nothing is done so far except HH package which is yet offered on credit basis to be paid back. Then I do not know how they will be recovering in times of shock of any type and maintaining their food security situation. To me it is different to say they are easily resilient." A key informant, from Woreda FS work unit

Table 4.5.2 View of respondents on their future FS and threats

Perception	Responses					
	Yes		No		Not sure	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Now the HH has sufficient asset			43	60.56	28	39.44
Feel threatened to get recovered without intervention if happens	71	100				
Now filling food gap relatively	45	63.38			26	36.62

Source: researcher's HH survey result, 2010

From the table above it is likely to note that the HHs are full of threats and with ambiguity on their future food security status. Some of them feel that they are with sufficient assets and if are filling their food gap permanently. It seems they are not feeling if they are insured of their

livelihood assets as there is no supportive intervention so as enable them create new assets so that they get relived. In a manner that would be respondent's kind to be threatened in case of unforeseen shocks that they would not be restored to their condition easily.

4.6 Graduation and Status of HHs Graduated

Though it is not to the details, this section tends to highlight on graduation and its procedures. To go through the assessment criteria for graduation, perception of HHs on their graduation, asset ownership, food security status, access to OFSP are some of the issues addressed. This is because the program's main objective is graduating those chronically food insecure HHs after enabling them to narrow their food gap period and creating livelihood assets for their future food access either physically or financially.

4.6.1 General Background Information of the Graduated HHs

Table 4.6.1 Summarized information of the HHs graduated from the program

Attribute	Category	Respondent	
		No.	Percent
Year program joined	2005	20	100
	2006		
Joined the program due to	Community member	3	15
	Kebele official		
	Faced seasonal shock	5	25
	Poor & food insecure	12	60
Self perception for being targeted	Yes	20	100
	No		
Program's component joined	PWs	20	100
	DS		
No. of months used to exercise food gap before joining PSNP	4	6	30
	5	9	45
	6	5	25
Family size targeted	Full	20	100
	Not full		
Received relief before joining the program	Yes	5	25
	No	15	75

Source: Researcher's HH survey result, 2010

Table (4.6.1) above indicates some background of graduated HHs from the program. It identifies year of joining, own reason for joining and perception, component joined, number of months the family was experiencing food shortage before, and family size targeted from each HHs. Accordingly, all the graduated HHs, that is 20(100 percent) have joined the program during the first year of the program. The HHs share similar characteristics on self perception of being targeted, component they joined and not being targeted with their full family size. Of course for the case of incomplete family size the trend has been identified the same during survey held for beneficiary HHs.

While self reason for being targeted to the program is treated three (15 percent) of the respondents replied that they belong to the community. The remaining five (25 percent) and twelve (60 percent) of the beneficiaries, however, respond that it was due to seasonal shock and due to being poor and food insecure respectively. Concerning the livelihood assets owned by the graduated HHs, all of them found to have land while only ten (50 percent) from all were possessing livestock of either category. Similarly, only five (25 percent) have received relief in one of the Past three years before the onset of the program due to shock by snow.

4.6.2 Perception of Graduated HHs on Asset Creation and Protection

As the program's core objective is to prevent assets previously owned by the targeted HHs, here the perception of the beneficiaries on the trend of prevention, creation of new assets and the way the assets are accessed and prevented are over sighted. In addition, the types of assets created and prevented area briefly assessed. As the issue is independently a research topic, it has been preferred to be overridden.

Table 4.6.2 Asset prevention from depletion and creation pattern

Attribute	Response/category	No. of respondents	Percent
Feel assets are prevented	Yes	20	100
	No	-	-
Feel assets are created	Yes	20	100
	No	-	-
Assets accessed due to	Transfer	-	-
	OFSP	-	-
	HH package	16	80
	HH package and transfer	4	20
Types of assets prevented from depletion	Land	4	20
	Livestock	3	15
	Land and livestock	13	65
Types of assets newly accessed	Land	-	-
	Livestock	20	100
	Jewelries	-	-
	Improved farm tools and equipment	-	-
	Irrigation scheme	-	-

Source: Researchers HH survey result, 2010

From table 4.6.2 above it is possible to note that the perception of respondents on asset prevention and building is similar. All of the respondents, 20(100 percent), respond that they have strong feeling on both situations of the assets. To trace back the type and way assets are created and prevented the respondents were exposed to interviews having content of basic livelihood assets duly recognized in the study area which are land and livestock. Bearing in mind the type prevented, though most of the respondents estimated to 13(65 percent) feel that land and livestock is to be placed in first position, about seven (35 percent) were found to feel peculiarly. Accordingly, about three (15 percent) of them feel livestock is the core while for the rest of four (20 percent) land is the basic asset get prevented. In his expression may be felt interesting by someone visiting externally one of the respondents explains that

"...Livestock are assets to be prevented in first place. This is because if someone faces an unforeseen problem they are immediately taken to local market and sold out at a reasonable price and no one underestimates their market price unless extraordinarily situation is prevailing for the community as a whole. So they are amount of money in bank to be withdrawn without any reduction .But when the

case for land is considered fertility and tendency of the contractor to underestimates its price are challenges as it is impossible to take market where better price can be fetched ” whose expression is counteracted by a respondent feeling:

“... To me land is all the resource prevented, inside it you find livestock, food, and credit services. The only thing expected from you is managing properly and asking it what you want to have from its depth. But what matters is the scarcity.”

When the ways new assets accessed by the HHs is concerned, about 16(80 percent) of them, accessed from HHs’ income improvement package mainly done through purchase of livestock from local markets on credit basis. Only few, four (20 percent) were found to brought some animals from transfer they received through they were provided with the credit service too. It has been again revealed that livestock was the only asset newly accessed on credit basis which the loan is going to be paid back on a distributed or split pattern into years.

4.6.3 Perception of the HHs on Graduation and Food Security

While dealing with this issue the perception of the graduated HHs on the fairness of graduation, bodies identified the graduates, criteria set for identification, asset base created, and their future prospects on food security under medium shocks (Table 4.6.3 is about the description).

Table 4.6.3 Graduates Perception on own Graduation and FS

Attribute	Response/category	No. of respondents	Percent
Feel that graduation was fair	Yes	-	-
	No	20	100
Faced food shortage after graduation	Yes	-	-
	No	20	100
Feel that created sufficient asset base for the future	Yes	-	-
	No	17	85
	Not sure	3	15
Identified to be graduated by	KFSTF	-	-
	Beneficiaries	8	40
	DAs	4	20
	Kebele Officials	3	15
	Own interest	5	25
Rent out land after graduation	Yes	-	-
	No	20	100
Rent in land after graduation	Yes	-	-
	No	20	100

Source HH Researcher’s HH survey result, 2010

For different inquiries that the respondent graduated HHs faced the summarized response are as presented above (Table 4.6.3). According to the table none of the beneficiaries (respondents) were encountered comfortable on their being graduated from the program. This may be due to one, the likely dependency sense created by the beneficiaries; and two, the threat they are feeling that the family did not create sufficient asset base to be resilient easily from shocks on livelihood assets without external intervention. The most interesting thing is, however, the absence of occasions where their families faced food shortage after their graduation. Similarly, for the issue on their feeling about creation of sustainable or sufficient asset base for the future, the majority of the respondents are 17(85 percent) reacted negatively while three (15 percent) of them were not sure if created or not of course may be attributable to various interpersonal differences and perceptions of the HHs. The situation on land renting out is also observed to be absent which may be again due to land scarcity in the area and it is the most critical progress as own production supports for HH food supply. The same thing for renting in was evidence as the case will be scarcity of land and limited resource available to afford on inputs on outside farms than own farms.

When treating the bodies involved during identification of HHs for graduation and decision makers about eight (40 percent) of the respondents felt the decision was made by beneficiaries while it is four (20 percent) and three (15 percent) for DAs and Kebele Officials. More unusually, five (25 percent) were found to decide by themselves and their reason was to have priority for HH income improvement package through livestock purchase to be offered on loan.

The FGD grouped for the discussion on graduation reflected that the HHs have tended to create and prevent asset, capable of cultivating their own land because they get access to farm power through oxen purchased, and even can have credit and other services from local providers as they are with those assets by which they can produce and pay back their credits. This seems that people can trust to give them credit because by now they have built relatively assets which are productive and considered as a collateral device.

The key informants on the other hand, shared the same feelings by those graduated HHs. While reflecting the status of the graduated HHs they forwarded them to be somehow better off than those still in program. The criteria have been the quota assigned from the region.

To respond to the circulation from the top hierarchies, it has been a trend to identify the HHs to be graduated by setting some criteria such as having ox, cow, and other HH assets which are again to be compared between the beneficiaries alone. It has been, on the other hand, a threat that graduation would be challenging asset building by the beneficiaries for some of the informants and suggest their suspicion that beneficiaries would not be volunteer to save a portion of transfer so as to invest in purchase of assets, especially livestock as it is being used as a criteria to be graduated out. This suspicion has been out cropped by a respondent who articulates in a grieved way on investment in animal purchase like:

".. I do not think it was important to buy an ox or a cow may be by some amount of a transfer that you would earn because they are driving you out from the program. There are still others serving the program that did not do that." a graduated HHH from Debub-Fonko PA. However, it is likely to predict that the sense of dependency for the two cases.

On the other hand, identifying HHs for the graduation has been a challenge in the study area and there is no reliable parameter on which the identification can be maintained. Rather mere assignment of quota was a trend. To stress the issue one of the key informants argued that we found it very difficult to identify a HH for graduation as all of them are needy, dependency spirited, and without reliable asset base, especially during the first year. Therefore, he said, unfairly included HHs were identified to be graduated as if they made the progress due to the program and others were forced to be graduated who were found relatively better off and received HH package loan during the previous year. To solve the problem of identification for graduation, the HH package has been acting as a tool so that those HHs who want to have priority for the package needs to be volunteer to be graduated out for the coming year. To summarize, it is witness on (Table 4.6.3) that about five (25 percent) of the respondents were identified themselves to be graduated out from the program for they might have been very ambitious to have the package loan.

In general, the HHs graduated has shown tendency to prevent, the previously existing assets and create new ones due to the program and supportive HHs' income improvement package provided through loan for animal purchase. There is no experience to rent out their land and to face food shortage after their graduation. Though the PIM states the HHs, even graduated from the PSNP,

will be accessed to OFSP so that building strong livelihood assets for their families there has been no access facilitated so far. There is still threat that the HHs could not be easily restored to their position if shock comes and strike. To summarize the chapter, the aspects discussed are the process and trends followed to target the beneficiaries; delivery of resource; PWs and their feasibilities; perception of the beneficiaries on targeting and future FS; and asset creation and prevention. Next chapter five is to present about the summary, conclusions and suggested recommendations from the findings of the study in a condensed manner.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter deals with conclusions and recommendations of the field work. Conclusions are made on a condensed way from each section based on data obtained from the HHs' survey which would show the general picture of the field work and existing situations of the issue in study. Likewise, general recommendations are made based on the results and findings obtained during the study period on the subject matter inspired to be dealt with. Below are subsections drawn briefly from the survey to show the overall picture of the research and the procedures it followed.

5.1 Conclusions

This research work has been conducted with the intention of assessing the implementation procedures of PSNP which launched in 2005 as a strategy shift from ad hoc emergency reaction of a multi-year predictable resource transfer for chronically food insecure HHs. The setting for this specific work has been at Woreda level where the supposed implementers and ultimate resource beneficiaries are destined. The resource at disposal for the transfer is delivered to those food insecure HHs who experienced the situation chronically. As the resource is to address the most vulnerable and needy individuals or HHs, it is very essential to identify those groups so that the delivery of the resource can be made with minimum wastage and the target is met with efficiency. To this end, critical to articulate is the targeting or identification of the most needy which is cost entailing.

The main objective of the study is to assess the implementation trend and its associated problems on the course of action at grass root level. The source of information are primarily the targeted beneficiaries of the program which is complemented by the secondary source and stakeholders involved in implementation. While presenting the results mostly qualitative approach has been employed as the study is a survey and descriptive type. Data for the study is gathered from beneficiary HHs' heads through interview of instruments generated for the purpose, and FGD and key informants to enrich the HHs' survey data. Field observation was made as part of data for further triangulation. List of beneficiaries' compiled at Woreda level for each PA of the Woreda has been referred to see the Woreda's beneficiary profile in general and for the three PAs in particular sampled randomly for the study.

To deal with the profile of the targeted beneficiaries, there are about 10,274 HHs receiving transfer from the program currently since the point of study, which are headed by 2,914 HHHs. The figure indicates that each family possesses 3.54 members, nearly four, hence virtually receiving their monthly wage rates or direct transfer by four members each on an average. The sampled PAs have been targeted with a total beneficiary number of 1,077 headed by 283 HHHs thus each head of family having 3.81 members, approximately four, per head.

For the case of HHs sampled for this study, the respondents participated in the survey are 71, who are heading a total population of family members of 275. Therefore, 275 HHs are participated in the study from the three PAs through their representatives, their corresponding heads. The sampled HHs are found to possess 3.87 members, estimated to be four, each on average. The figures seem to indicate that the sampled respondents, PAs, and the whole targeted families of the Woreda are addressed with four members per HH showing perhaps the representatives of the sample. However, the actual size of family members that a HH possesses spells different. While the sampled respondents are found to be included with four of their members on average, the actual average family size owned per HH is 7.66 on average which is the average size within the range of rural family size per head.

The data obtained from HH survey revealed that the targeted HHs supposed to be eligible to benefit from the program are not addressed with their full members. To indicate in figures, each family receives transfers with four of its members though its average size is 7.66, hence missing approximately half of its members. Clearly, the difference between the actual and the targeted size is four. The difference between the actual and the targeted therefore, ignites the critiques of family dilution which potentially leads to resource dilution. During the survey period the aspects on dilution have been approached to be treated in two directions the within and between cases as the two will be resulting in resource reduction and compromise of transfer rationed for an individual receiver to specifying period.

With respect to the issue it has only been a trend for the within case, while the between case is not the challenge and experience. The practice of within dilution is attributable to aforementioned factors: community, politics, awareness and others. The between dilution is reported by the key informants to be corrected by retargeting period held during the second year

of the program. To give more attention on the issue of dilution, one can say and conclude from the data compiled that the HHs receives half of the resources from which their status entitles eligible. It is observable from survey data the beneficiary HHs receive only 50.50 percent of the transfer to which they are recognized fitting. On the other hand, 49.50 percent of the actual families are not receiving their due transfers independently although they are members of such families selected for the program. Therefore, 100 percent of the families are relying on 50.50 percent of the resource being transferred and its corresponding receivers so that violating both the rationed size and the program's the implementation principles.

It is also important to discuss with the types of selection of beneficiaries and level of community participation when targeting of beneficiaries is the focus. Accordingly, the type of selection exercised during identification of beneficiaries is a mixed type: administrative and community together, hence recognized is the PIM, and the essentiality of participation. While assessing on self perception of eligibility only few respondents feel inconvenient that the targeting was not fair, recalling for existence of missed HHs and inclusion of illegible ones, in and unfairness. Allocation of beneficiaries to each community is done through provision of quota irrespective of the size of the vulnerable found there, thus contributing to dilution. In general targeting seems inefficient for the reasons discovered and others.

The second objective of the study is assessment on transfer and its trend. The type for the whole terms of seasons of program in the area is in cash and was and still in line with preference to both the receivers and its routers at Woreda level. The distance traveled by the beneficiaries to collect their wage rate is not as such far a way of their villages as the payment is done at supervision centers, which might have been further encouraged by the transfer type done in cash. Another dimension assessed about transfer is practice in full term delivery, delay and deferring. To appreciate the experience, all beneficiaries have received their full term or season transfer, even including extended transfers made freely during off season of the program as emergency aid. However, never has been made on time when the beneficiaries are in need of it. Moreover, the data indicates that the transfer considered to be early is the one made 15 days after the end of the month for which they were employed. The transfer also experiences delay even for a month. This in turn has exposed the beneficiaries to illegal local money lenders with high interest rates. No

practice has been there for differing through all the seasons of the program and the HHs are not contented with the amount of transfer they earn as wage rate or direct transfer.

Public works and its associated guides stipulated by the PIM are highlighted briefly. Planning is not found participatory. Peak agricultural period is to be respected so that the PW participation does not compete for labor on seasonal farming activity of the HHs. The data also indicate that no experience for claiming on PWs to be deferred formally. Soil and water conservation activities, social service institutions, and water sanitation and collection structures are felt difficult to be carried out by the beneficiaries while road construction and maintenance are not technically feasible in view of experts. Concerning protection of previously owned assets by the beneficiaries and creation of new ones both to the beneficiary HHs and community slight over view has been made.

Accordingly, the program has enabled prevention, especially land which otherwise was to be rented out or cultivated for share by others since they join the program. Additional assets are accessed by the respondents, though on credit basis through HH income improvement package. No respondent sampled for this particular study has received any resources as it is true for the PAs and the whole Woreda because there was no support experienced through OFSP packages. Respondents do not feel convenient and insured on their current asset base and they do not think to be resilient from shocks if appeared without intervention. Other economic activities which families found to be engaged in as alternative income source were reported insignificant by the respondents. They list out labor scarcity that some of the family members attend school, look after cattle and other HH responsibilities and on-farm activities.

When same gaps on the procedures of implementation are stressed, failure in full family targeting; deferring and delay in transfer; lack of participation in PW planning, deferring and delay of PWs to farm activities, and absence of skilled man power to guide some of them particularly road networking; and shift of beneficiaries from one component to the other with reasonable cases. Though it is the same throughout the Woreda and considered the zonal case, provision of resource to those HHS through OFSP in support of building new assets is absent and may be challenging to the targeted goal of the program.

Graduation is the concern of the program to be achieved and supported through access to OFSPs. Criteria set is the HHs' restoring from the previously experiences of food shortage and attaining better off conditions. No beneficiary HHs graduated from PSNP used to receive any package supposed to contribute for the building and access of new assets by OFSPs both before and after graduation. Their food gap has been narrowed and access to and prevention of assets has been favored due to the program though the graduates feel they would be in risk in case of shock. However, the practice so far symbolizes forced approach to fulfill the objective and agreement made by stakeholders and designers of the program.

5.2 Recommendations

As the sub-section of the chapter, this separate section is devoted for possible recommendations which would be addressed by the concerning stakeholders involving in the process of implementation in one or another way. The study has tried to address different issues pertaining to the program's implementation procedures, though each theme was later felt to be assessed independently, while pushing in to the field work which appeared to be vast and tedious due to the contents included in instruments and respondents situation towards giving actual information. However, each objective has been tried to be addressed in a condensed approach as much as possible so as to gather relevant information to answer questions set for the research work. On each question, data was collected from sampled HHs, FGD and key informant interview and results are obtained. Accordingly, based on findings of the study the following recommendations are drawn assumed outweighing than the others.

Targeting has been practiced through full involvement of the community though their awareness to the program about the needy is too limited which favored possibly inclusion error for few case. Each family needs to be entitled to the benefits of the program with its full members living together under a roof. But in the study area and particularly in those sampled PAs, half the members of each family is missed untargeted and not entitled for the resource. This implies that the within dilution for resource is high paving the way for reduction in transfer size of rate to individual member of a family.

Since the targeted families are being targeted by half of their members, it is obvious that they receive half of the prescribed transfer size. The program intends to cover the food gap which the

families are experiencing through the provision of transfer for the period identified with food gap with full size. The result on HH survey reveals the opposite. It seems crucial to fill this gap induced during HHs selection if the program is to meet its target. Stakeholders involved in the line are advised to reconsider and revise the situation so that remained HHs could be addressed.

To deal with transfer and its associated trends so far the type was and still now is in preference to the beneficiaries and the Woreda's stakeholders. Of course else body can also recommend the type in cash when the infrastructural condition of the study area is taken into account. With respect to the practice in transferring the wage rates or direct transfer to the beneficiaries, the best experience has been delivery of full term transfers; short distance traveled by the receivers for its collection; and decision made on the kind by the ultimate beneficiaries are amongst to be recognized.

However, there are basic procedures not respected which are strictly opposed by the PIM. The first and foremost aspect in transfer focused essential is timely delivering to the beneficiaries. To emphasize the importance on timely transfer the guide states that "a transfer delayed is a transfer denied." In addition, it considers its first objective is to ensure timely transfers take place regardless of the status of the implementation of PWs. Now here comes the critical gap in implementation that the study area faces. For most of the transferring seasons the resource has been delayed in releasing to the HHs.

The delayed trend in transfer in turn forced the beneficiaries to be exposed to illegal local money lenders on high interest rate which the principal is let bear the interest within short period of time. The program is supposed to be with a predictable and regular income transfer which would help the beneficiaries build assets basically differentiating it from other FFW and emergency aid programs financed by food obtained through emergency appeal and yet unpredictable resource. In the study area this may be the program's potential probably unutilized by the HHs. Both delay and insufficiency aggravated by reduced family size and permanent market instability are peculiar if amended. Deferring is also similar to be treated according to prevalent situations.

To say few points on PWs, planning is the aspect. The PIM urges for the activities to be done on a participatory approach. Bearing in mind the principle, neither the planning trend is participatory nor is the schedule duly recognizing the peak agricultural periods in the study area.

Of course there are some activities to be implemented within fixed season. Best example can be terracing and soil bund construction or land maintenance. Though it is not possible to make shift in time for all activities it is better to defer some activities which can be done at any point of time so that labor competition of PWs with own farm engagement will be minimized. Considering communal assets created by the beneficiaries, schools, FTCs, health posts, and rehabilitation of degraded land are the major ones. To address the issues on skilled man power scarcity is the existing situation especially on road thus assignment by any means is recommended essential for the stakeholders.

The final set of recommendation rests on beneficiary HHs' livelihood asset building for themselves so as to find them food secure which is the primary objective of the program. The transfer from the program is not, however, capable of making the HHs create additional assets. To achieve this end, the guide meant for the program points for the existence of supportive programs to offer the HHs with resource in order to help them accessed to assets. Nevertheless, it is not on its course of implementation despite the fact that the situation is the same for the zone. If these packages, OFSP, are placed in action, the beneficiaries can find opportunity to built new assets which in turn will rescue them from shocks and threats of food insecurity. At the end beneficiaries are with information gap on the program and creating awareness discussed as findings seems important.

Similarly, creating awareness on the use of resource being transferred is central to be made to the beneficiaries as there are personal differences in resource use and management. This is because it has been common to see some beneficiaries of a project to be careless and unwise in management payments they receive considering it as if it is external and default chance. Graduation from the program has been planned to be attained upon progress of the program's beneficiaries on livelihood assets and closing down of their food gap independently. Nevertheless, it is being practiced in line of meeting the agreement by the stakeholders without facilitating an access for reliable asset building and empowerment. From this it would be likely to recommend for facilitating to access and services so that the graduation will not be a forced type.

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Appendices

Appendix I Respondents Characteristics

1. Address: PA _____ Community: _____ ID No. _____
2. Age a) Less 15 b) 16 – 30 c) 31 – 45 d) 46 – 65 e) above 65
3. Sex a) Male b) Female
4. Marital status a) Married b) unmarried c) Married (Divorced) d) widowed e) Separated
5. Education Status a. Illiterate b. Read & write c. 1 – 6 d. 7 – 8 e. 9 – 10 f. 11 – 12 g. Others
6. Family size: M _____ F _____ Total _____
7. Name of family members and relation to the head.

No	Code/Name of members of the HH (including head of the HH)	Participate in interview: 1. yes 2. No (5)	Relation with the HH head (6)	Sex: 1. M 2. F (7)	Age (yrs) (8)	Labor capacity (9)	Education status (10)
1							
2							
3							
4							
5							
6							
7							
8							
9							

8. Assets owned

8.1 Land size a) 0.25 ha b) 0.50 ha c) 0.75 ha d) 1.0 ha e) 2 ha

8.2 House type and number: Before (type _____ No _____), After (type _____ No _____)

9. Livestock

Category	Before	After
Cattle		
Equines		
Sheep and Goats		
Others		

10. Major economic activities a) Crop production b) Animal rearing c) Both d) On-farming activities e) Off-farm activities

Appendix II
Questionnaire for Household Survey

A. About Targeting

1. When did you join the SPNP?
 - a. During the beginning of the program
 - b. During the 2nd year of the program
 - c. During the 3rd year of the program
 - d. During the 4th year of the program
2. Have you ever received any aid before you join the program?
 - a. yes
 - b. No
 - c. I do not remember
3. If your response to question number 2 is yes, why you received the aid?
 - a. Because there was an aid program in the PA
 - b. Because I faced sudden shock
 - c. Because I was an official in the kebele
 - d. Because the officials of the kebele sent it to my home
4. For how many years you received aid before you join PSNP?
 - a. For a year
 - b. for two years
 - c. for three years
 - d. I never received any aid
 - e. I don't recall
5. Have you had information about the PSNP during the targeting?
 - a. yes
 - b. No
 - c. I do not recall
6. If your response to question number 5 is yes, who told you the information?
 - a. Kebele's officials
 - b. Development agents
 - c. Woreda council
 - d. Community leaders
 - e. Others (specify) _____
7. If you were with any information about it, have you participated in the meeting that held for targeting?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
8. How the targeting procedure was held?
 - a. by arranging meeting at kebele level
 - b. by arranging meeting at community level
 - c. No meeting was held
 - d. some individuals who have been targeted were simply told that they have been selected by kebele officials

- e. Other (specify) _____
9. If your response to question number 7 is yes, and community meeting was held, have any orientation about the meeting and the PSNP been made?
- a. Yes b. No c. I don't recall
10. If your response to question number 9 is yes, who gave the orientation?
- a. Kebele leaders c. experts who came from Woreda
b. community leaders d. DAs and kebele officials
e. DAs, experts, and kebele leaders.
11. Who participated the meeting arranged for the targeting from the community?
- a. the whole community members and administrative officials
b. Those that are targeted only
c. only community leaders
d. community leaders and those targeted beneficiaries
e. Community leaders, targeted beneficiaries and administrative officials
12. If your response to question number 11 is a, what was the role of community in the meeting?
- a. Simply attending the meeting
b. Simply nominating (voting) the beneficiaries
c. Nominating and arguing on selection procedures and beneficiaries
d. others (specify) _____
13. Were any beneficiaries that their name list presented to the meeting before the voting (selection) preceded? a. Yes b. No
14. If your response to question number 13 is yes, who were they and why their list was presented
- a. they were poor and those supposed to be targeted
b. they were both from poor and better off and were supposed to be targeted
c. they were age- old and supposed to be beneficiaries
d. I don't know
e. Others (specify) _____
15. Have you attended the meeting held for the selection? a. Yes b. No
16. If your response to question number 15 is yes (a), who nominated you?
- a. I myself nominated b. one of my relatives c. the kebele officials

- d. the community leaders e. Woreda experts and officials f. One of my neighbors
17. If your response to question number 15 is no (b) why you have been selected?
- a. because there was my relative in the meeting
 - b. because there was one of my family (HH) member in the meeting
 - c. because I was party member and an official
 - d. because I was chronically food insecure and at lower status than others
 - e. because I was community leader and from influencing category
 - f. other (specify) _____
18. Do you think that your inclusion as a beneficiary was fair?
- a. Yes
 - b. No
 - c. I don't know
19. If your response to question number 18 is yes, why was it so?
- a. because I was party member and an official
 - b. because I am from influencing group
 - c. because I was food insecure and no one left untargeted below my status
 - d. because I was community leader
 - e. because I was unemployed.
20. Were there any community members who haven't been targeted yet below your status?
- a. Yes
 - b. No
 - c. I don't know
21. If your response to question number 20 is yes (a), what was the reason?
- a. because they were not party members
 - b. because they were not belonging to our ethnic group
 - c. because they were marginalized groups
 - d. because they were not from PAs leaders group
 - e. because they did not attend the meeting
22. To which category of the program you were selected? a. PW b. DS c. I don't know
23. Have all members of your household been targeted (included) during the targeting who was with you during that time? a. Yes b. No
24. If your response is No for question number 23, how many of them left untargeted? Give exact number _____
25. Why they were not targeted?
- a. to reduce some resources so that other community members were targeted

- b. because they were not with me and some are newly born by now
 - c. because they were not my children
 - d. because they were my relatives living with me
26. Is there any family member outside yours who was included as yours to take share of your transfers? a. Yes b. No
27. Do you contribute any amount to any of kebele's or other officials form your wage rate (transfer)? a. Yes b. No
28. Who was the most decision maker during the selection?
- a. DAs and supervisors
 - b. Kebele officials and community leaders
 - c. Experts and administrative officials from the Woreda offices
 - d. The community
 - e. Community and kebele officials
 - f. Other (specify) _____
29. If the community was actively participating in the selection how the role was played?
- a. by voting and commenting
 - b. by voting only
 - c. by commenting only
30. Were the comments by the community duly recognized?
- a. Yes b. No
31. If your response to question number 30 is b (no) who denied the community to not hear?
- a. The DAs and supervisors
 - b. The kebele and community leaders
 - c. Officials and experts from the Woreda
 - d. All

B. About Transfer and its Procedures

1. What is the type of transfer that you earned so far as wage rate or direct transfer?
 - a. Cash b. Food c. Cash and food
2. Was the transfer that you earned so far still your choice?
 - a. Yes b. No c. indifference

3. Is the transfer that you are earning so far sufficient?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
 - c. I don't know
4. Who made the choice on transfer you are earning so far?
 - a. The beneficiaries including me
 - b. The DAs and the kebele officials
 - c. The Woreda offices
 - d. I don't know
5. Since when did you start receiving your transfer?
 - a. Since the first year of my involvement
 - b. Since the 2nd year of my involvement
 - c. Since the 3rd year of my involvement
 - d. I don't know
6. For how many times or months per year you receive the transfer?
 - a. For two months
 - b. For four months
 - c. For six months
 - d. For six months including the transfers made for emergency cases for extra months.
 - e. Other (Specify) _____
7. What is the amount of transfer that you earn monthly?
 - a. Thirty birr
 - b. Twenty birr
 - c. Ten birr
 - d. fifty birr
 - e. Forty
 - f) I don't know
8. What is the amount of transfer that your family earns monthly?
 - a. Thirty birr
 - b. Sixty birr
 - c. Fifty birr
 - d. One hundred birr
 - e. One hundred and fifty birr
 - f. Other (Specify) _____
9. Do you receive the transfer when you are in need of it all times?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
 - C. I don't know
10. If your response to question number 9 is no (b), what is the reason?
 - a. The DAs do not submit their corresponding reports to the Woreda
 - b. The Woreda doesn't timely offer the transfer though are provided with reports
 - c. The beneficiaries do not push the corresponding responsible bodies so as to get their transfer on time.

- d. The finance office of the Woreda makes always the transfer delay
 - e. All
 - f. Others (if any) _____
11. How do you treat your challenges of money due to the delay in transfer?
- a. Borrowing from the local leaders freely
 - b. Borrowing from the local leaders on interest basis (local)
 - c. Selling the transfer to be received in the future currently by half of its value.
 - d. Post pond the plan
 - e. Other (if any) _____
12. Have you ever received reduced transfer amount that you receive usually?
- a. Yes b. No C. I don't know
13. If yes is your response for question number 12, what was the reason you have been told?
- a. Punishment for absence in PWs
 - b. For contributing to some households who have not been participated in PSNP
 - c. For some political affairs in the kebele
 - d. As incentives for DAs, and other kebele and Woreda officials
 - e. No reason told
14. If it is yes for question number 12 again, who reduced the transfer
- a. The cashiers
 - b. The Woreda finance office
 - c. Woreda administrative office
 - d. DAs and kebele officials
 - e. Woreda ARDO
 - f. Others (Specify) _____
15. How often you receive your transfer?
- a. Monthly b. per two months c. per three months
 - d. Per four months
16. Where do you collect your transfers?
- a. Woreda center b. Kebele center c. Supervision center

17. If you are receiving your transfer at supervision center, what do you think is the reason?
- Because the transfer is always made for neighboring PAs at a time and our PA is not as such far away from the center
 - We cannot find the transfer unless we go there
 - The kebele is not accessible and it is far away from Woreda center
 - We made the arrangement for the ease of access and management of the transfer with the officers up on consensus
 - I don't know
18. If you are receiving your transfer at other centers other than your PA center, is the distance you are traveling too long? a. Yes b. No
19. If your response to question number 18 is no, how can you express the distance?
- It is not too long though a way of our homes
 - The Woreda's center is too long from our PA so that the center fixed is not as such distant when compared to the Woreda's center
 - The center arranged is accessible, nearby, and not far from the PA and the only option to offer the transfer for more than one kebele at a time.
 - a,b,c
 - Other (Specify) _____
20. Do you think that the amount you are receiving is sufficient?
- Yes
 - No
 - I don't know
21. If your response to question number 20 'is no, why is not sufficient?
- Consumable items are getting high priced and couldn't cover monthly consumption
 - Inputs and other agricultural equipment are getting costly
 - There are other employment alternatives with rates higher than the program is offering
 - Other (specify) _____
22. Do you always receive the whole amount of transfer that you are entitled with all the times? a. Yes b. No C. I don't know what amount fixed monthly
23. If no is your response for question number 22, why you do not do that?
- The lender takes away the whole
 - The lender takes away the half
 - The other family members diluted from the outside shares it

- d. I don't know what amount I receive monthly
24. Do you receive the same amount of transfer per month?
- a. Yes b. No C. I don't know
25. Have you ever received different amounts of transfers?
- a. Yes b. No C. I don't know
26. If your response to question number 25 is yes, what was the reason
- a. Because amendments or improvements on transfer was made
- b. Because monthly amounts were being reshuffled so that sometimes increased and vice-versa
- c. Because leaders collect some amount of money from me while receiving the transfer
- d. Because family members (size) are reshuffled always
- e. I do not know F. Other reason (specify) _____
27. How often do you sell your transfer for half share in case of delay of transfer?
- a. Monthly b. Always c. Sometimes d. I never do that
28. Do you want for any amount or type change in your transfer?
- a. Yes b. No c. I don't know
29. If your answer to question number 28 is Yes (a), what type would you prefer to?
- a. Cash with increased rate
- b. Food with increased rate
- c. Food with the same rate
- d. Both cash and food with increased rate upon request
- e. Other (Specify)
30. What is the reason for preference to increase in transfer?
- a. The rate so far was not sufficient
- b. Full family size is not being participated and receiving
- c. Other family members from outside are diluted and so that taking the share
- d. I simply preferred to its improvement
- e. Because of inflation on consumable items.

31. If you were given with an option to chose from the transfers with improvements what would you prefer to receive? a. Cash b. food C. I don't know

32. If your answer to question number 31 is a (cash), what is your reason)

- a. It is easy to collect
- b. There is access to food items in market
- c. I do not have capacity to collect food transfers
- d. With food transfers there is always trend of being corrupted
- e. If any other reason (Specify) _____

33. If your answer to question number 31 is food (b), what is your reason?

- a. There is no food in market
- b. Food items are getting costly
- c. Cash would be easily wasted without purchasing any food items to family.
- d. a, b
- e. a. b. c.
- f. Other reason (specify) _____

C. Public Work

1. Since when have you been participating in PWs?

- a. Since I join the program
- b. After one year of the involvement in the program
- c. After three years of the involvement in the program
- d. During the last year of the program

2. Why was it that you were targeted under PW category?

- a. the HH has able-bodied members
- b. the DAs, and kebele officials and the community ordered me to be under it.
- c. It was my own choice to be included under it.
- d. I don't know
- e. . Others (if any), specify _____

3. You think that your inclusion under PW category was right?

- a. Yes b. No c. I don't know d. If any, specify _____

4. If your choice for question number 3 is no, what was the reason?

- a. I didn't like to participate in activities which require labor

- b. There was/were no able-bodied family member/s in the HH for PW
 - c. I was with another alternative at the time.
 - d. I thought that all beneficiaries would be freely receiving the transfer.
5. If your response to number 3 is yes, why was that?
- a. Because the officials and development agent (DAs) told me to be right and kept silent not to miss the chance.
 - b. I understood that the transfer was not for free
 - c. I was with the HH members who can participate in such activities.
 - d. I was with no other alternatives to cope up with challenges of food access.
6. What types of activities are so far being undertaken since you join the program?
- a. Soil and water conservation and tree plantation
 - b. Feeder road maintenance
 - c. Farmers training center construction
 - d. Health posts and school construction and fencing
 - e. Spring development (Fencing, sanitation) and public pond digging
 - f. All
7. Have you ever contributed your labor to works which are at kebele officials or DAs homesteads or elsewhere as part of the program's work? a. Yes b. No
8. If your response to Question no 7 is Yes (a), what was the reason?
- a. Because I was ordered to do so by them.
 - b. Because the plot was at critical water shed area
 - c. Because they were female headed households
 - d. B and C
 - e. If any, specify _____
9. What would have been happened if you have refused to participate in such homestead activities?
- a. I would be punished
 - b. I would be fired out from benefiting the program
 - c. It was a must to participate because the plot was at critical point of communities' watershed.
 - d. I do not know what would be happened

10. Do you think that your contribution to PW is important for the community?

- a. Yes b. No C. I don't know

11. If yes is your response for number 10, through what way/s it is contributing?

- a. Through creation of feeder road connections
- b. Through creation of schools, farmers' training centers, and health posts
- c. Through of prevention of soil erosion
- d. Through forestry program
- e. All
- f. Other (if any) _____

12. For Question number 11 if your response is again yes, why you think it is benefiting the community so long as they are earning nothing directly?

- a. Because all PW activities are done on communal possessions
- b. Because service institutions such as health posts, schools, Farmers' training centers, are providing service for the whole community.
- c. Because it gives some relieve from being dependent on other community members for the beneficiaries
- d. All
- e. Other (specify)

13. Were all PWs that you have been participating in for labor contribution practically feasible?

- a. Yes b. No c. I don't know d. If any, specify _____

14. If your response for question number 13 is yes, what are those PWs easy and practical under your skill?

- a. Soil and water conservation structures
- b. Farmers training centers, health posts, schools.
- c. Plantation, water supply structures (such as public ponds, spring fencing and cleaning), and wooden bridges
- d. a, b, c
- e. Road f. others (if any) _____

15. If your response to question number 13 is no, what are those activities beyond your practice?
- a. Soil and water conservation, plantation, social institutions, and potable water supply structures
 - b. Wooden bridges; digging holes for plantation, and transporting seedlings to the plantation sites.
 - c. Feeder roads
 - d. Others (Specify) _____
16. If your response for number 15 is C(i.e. feeder road), why do you think it is difficult?
- a. it needs technical assistance by relevant professionals
 - b. Relevant professional do not exist to guide the work appropriately.
 - c. It is tedious work
 - d. It may cause erosion risk unless designed by technicians
 - e. a, b, d
 - f. a, b, c
17. Do you think all PWs that you offer labor for their progress are still sustainable?
- a. Yes
 - b. No
 - c. I don't know
18. If your response is (b) for number 17, what is the reason?
- a. There are some activities which couldn't be sustained
 - b. There are some activities destroyed by the society
 - c. There are some activities destroyed by erosion and others
 - d. Others (specify) _____
19. According to question number 17, which activities couldn't be sustainable so far?
- a. Soil and water conservation activities
 - b. Social infrastructures (institutions)
 - c. Roads and public ponds
 - d. Roads only
 - e. Others (specify) _____
20. For your response on question number 19, what do you think is the reason?
- a. Because we don't receive any or sufficient technical aid
 - b. The structures are not being technically supported or planned
 - c. a and b
 - d. Others (specify) _____

21. Who plans for PWs working time?
- The beneficiaries themselves
 - The DAs and kebele officials
 - The Woreda Agricultural and Rural Development Office
 - Both beneficiaries, and the kebele officials and DAs
 - Others (if any) _____
22. Have you ever encountered that PWs were arranged against your peak agricultural time?
- Yes
 - No
 - I don't know
23. Have you ever rearranged and used to have such an opportunity to do so the PWs, when they are at peak agricultural time?
- Yes
 - No
 - I don't know
24. Have you ever complained the clash of PWs to your peak agricultural time?
- Yes
 - No
 - I don't know
25. If your response to number 24 is yes, to whom you made the claim?
- DAs
 - Kebele officials
 - Woreda ARDO and Administration offices
 - others (specify) _____
26. What was the response that you received?
- Positive
 - Negative
27. Have you ever been shifted to DS category of beneficiaries?
- Yes
 - No
 - I don't know
28. If your response to question number 27 is yes (a) why you have been made so?
- Because I was sick and there was no able-bodied family member to replace me
 - Because I was pregnant or lactating and there was no able-bodied family member to replace me
 - Because I had left the kebele for some time
 - Because I became HIV positive
29. Have you ever claimed that you want to be shifted to Ds category for reasonable cases so that you cannot participate in PWs?
- Yes
 - No
 - I don't know that it is possible

30. If yes for question number 29, what was the reason?

- a. I was sick and was no family member who can participate in PW
- b. I was sick though there were a family members who can participate in PW
- c. I didn't like to participate in PW though the family is with able-bodied members
- d. Because I had to leave for somewhere for looking another employment.
- e. Other (Specify) _____

31. If your response to question number 29 is yes (a), what was the response you received?

- a. Positive (Shifted)
- b. Negative (not shifted)

32. If your response to question number 30 is B (negative), what was the reason you have been told and who did it so?

- a. They were kebele officials and the DAs, and simply rejected my complain.
- b. They were kebele officials and DAs, said that the reason is not fair
- c. They told me that other members in my family can contribute the labor in my absence
- d. a and c
- e. Others (if any) _____

D. Asset creation and Prevention

1. Do you think that your previous assets are being protected due to your involvement in PSNP? a. Yes b. no c. I don't know

2. If your response to question number 1 is yes (a) which types of your assets are being protected?

- a. Land
- b. Cattle
- c. Small ruminants
- d. equines
- e. household utensils and Jewelries
- f. all g. others(specify if any)-----

3. How your asset is being protected?

- a. because I and my family receive transfer for some months when we experience food gap which otherwise forces me to sell them
- b. I invest on better and improved inputs the transfer that I receive and food production is increased
- c. Transfer that I receive fills the food gap that my own production could not cover
- d. Public works are perverting my farm plot from erosion

- e. All f. Others (specify) _____
4. Do you think that you are creating new assets of your own since you join the PSNP?
A. Yes B. No
5. If your response to question number 4 is yes (a) how you are doing it so?
- I received HH package
 - I have bought some animals by the transfer cash I received
 - I bought some plot of land with some amount of transfer that I received so far
 - I have bought some assets by income that I have generated from other sources which otherwise would have been spent for food items, for I am receiving transfer from the program
 - Other (specify) _____
6. Please put x mark under the columns below for the description of assets you used to possess before and possessing by now

Asset category	Unit	No/Size/Area			Remarks/Source
		Before	After	Difference	
OX	No				
Calf	"				
Cow	"				
Equines	"				
Sheep	"				
Goats	"				
Land	Ha				
Chicken	No				
Heifer	"				
Sire/Woifen	"				

7. If your land is being protected (remained under your cultivation), what was the size of land you have possessing and cultivating?
- a. 0.25/0.125 b. 0.5ha/0.25 c. 1.0ha/0.5 d. 1.5ha/1.0
8. Why you were not utilizing the whole size of your plot (land) before?
- because I rented it to somebody for purchase of food and other social services
 - I contracted for share to somebody because I couldn't afford for inputs
 - I contracted the whole plot to some body
 - Other(specify) _____

Appendix III

Checklist for key informant interview

1. How was the targeting process handled and who participated in it?
2. How do you consider about the PWs areas that have been pre-designed by the program? How is their sustainability and where are they located?
3. What do you feel about the amount, type, and time of payment (transfer) that you are proceeding with?
4. Do you practice deferring measures for both PWs and transfer? If not why?
5. How do you consider the progress of beneficiaries in general?
6. How do you evaluate graduation of beneficiaries and are those graduated so far at a better off condition? What were the criteria?
7. How do you consider the social relation of beneficiaries among their communities and what it looks like?
8. What do you think about the sense of dependency on beneficiaries?
9. Where the gaps were experienced that you suffer now on implementation? Why and what should have been done?
10. Which types of PW are practically feasible both for beneficiaries and office under Woreda level? Which are not practical and why?
11. Do you consider PSNP and its activities as part of your own plan? Yes ____ No ____
If yes, how do you integrate? If not, why? _____
12. How do you control the labor abuse of beneficiaries who are participating in PW which would be done by kebele officials and may be by DAs and supervisors?
13. Have you ever encountered beneficiaries being abused by any official (s) from any level? If yes, who did that and how you overcome the problem?
14. Do you think that the beneficiaries are protecting their previous assets and making new ones? How?
15. How do you consider the influence of political affairs on targeting?
16. What general comments do you have on the implementation of the program?

Appendix IV

Checklist for Focused group discussion (FGD)-Beneficiary HHs

1. Do you think that your involvement as a beneficiary was right?
2. Were there any community members who left untargeted during beneficiary selection? Yes ____
No ____ If yes, why left?
3. Are all PWs, you are contributing labor for, easy for you to do? Which are easy?
____ Which are not? ____
4. Have all your family (HH) members been included in the program? Yes ____ No ____, if no, how
many of them and why left? ____
5. Are you creating new assets since you join the program? Yes ____ No ____ If yes how?
____ If No, why? ____
6. Are you preventing your previous asset? How?
7. You think that you are contributing to community? How?
8. How is your social relation among your neighbors other than beneficiaries since the
commencement of the program that you join?
9. You think that the society by now is always open and volunteer to let the poor get priority on any
intervention? Yes ____ No ____ Why? ____
10. Do you give any share of transfer to anybody other than your family? Yes ____ No ____ if yes,
to whom and why? ____
11. Was the community power-full on decision making, selection, and commenting of beneficiaries?
Yes ____ No ____ explain.
12. What kind of transfers you are receiving so far and where do you collect it?
13. Were the transfers of your own choice?
14. Who made the choice on transfer before?
15. Why was reduction on your family size made?
16. Have you ever made your transfers and PWs deferred? Why?



Appendix V

Interview check list for focused group discussion for non-beneficiary HHs

1. Do you think that the targeting process of the beneficiaries was fair and all those targeted are eligible or the poorest of the community?
2. Do you think that the beneficiaries have been contributing to you and the whole community? How?
3. Can you see any progress on the livelihood of the beneficiaries since they join the program?
4. Are those beneficiaries who have been graduated from the program at a better off conditions? How do you evaluate the graduation?
5. Was the targeting done with full participation and decision making power of the community? If not, why?
6. Was there any political influence (such as party membership), during selection to favor some individuals? Who have been favored?
7. Have all beneficiaries been targeted with their full family size who were living with them at the time of selection? If not, why?
8. How do you consider the social relation of the beneficiaries to the rest of their community?
9. Do you think that the beneficiaries receive their transfers timely? How do you evaluate their utilization pattern?
10. Where do you think that there is most implementation gap seems to occur? Why?
11. What general suggestions you can forward on the program?

Appendix VI

Graduation and progress on asset creation

1. When did you join the program? a/ 2005 b/ 2006
2. To which component of the program you were targeted? a/ PW b/ DS c/ I do not know
3. Did your family receive any type of aid or relief in any one of the three years before the program? a/ yes b/ no
4. Do you think your joining to the program was fair? a/ yes b/ no
5. If your response to #4 is 'a', what is the reason? a/ community member b/ PA official c/ faced sudden shock d/ poor and food insecure
6. Were all your family members targeted to the program? a/ yes b/ no

7. Do you feel that your assets have been prevented due to your involvement into the program? a/ yes b/ no
8. If your response to #7 is 'a', which type of assets are mostly prevented and your preference? a/ land b/ livestock c/ land and livestock
9. Do you feel that you have created new assets due to the program? a/ yes b/ no
10. If your response to #7 is 'a', which type of assets were mostly created?
a/ land b/ livestock c/ land and livestock d/ improved farm equipment and tools e/ irrigation scheme
11. How was the assets created? a/ purchased by some amount from transfer received b/ received HH income improvement package loan c/ received package from OFSP d/ a, b
12. When did your family graduated from the PSNP? a/ 2008 b/ 2009
13. Do you feel that your graduation was fair? a/ yes b/ no c/ I do not know
14. If your response to #13 is 'no' what is the reason?
15. Who identified your family for graduation? a/ beneficiaries b/ DAs c/ kebele officials d/ own interest
16. If your response to #15 is 'd' what was your reason? a/ created sufficient asset b/ to have priority for HH package loan c/ access to other employment opportunity
17. Have your family ever faced food shortage after graduation? a/ yes b/ no
18. Have you ever accessed any service from OFSP other than HH packages after graduation? a/ yes b/ no
19. Do you feel that you have created sufficient asset base for your future food security? a/ yes b/ no c. not sure
20. Do you think that your family will be facing threats of food insecurity in case of medium shocks on your assets in the future? a/ yes b/ no c/ not sure
21. Do you think that you will be easily recovered from unforeseen shock without any external intervention? a/ yes b/ no c/ not sure
22. For how many months in the year your family was experiencing food shortage before you join the PSNP? a/ 4 b/ 5 c/ 6
23. Are you experiencing renting out of land after your graduation? a/ yes b/ no
24. If your response to #23 is 'yes' what is the reason?
25. Are you experiencing renting in of land after your graduation?

DECLARATION

I, the under signed, declared that this thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other university, and that all source of materials used for the thesis have been duly acknowledged.

Name: Solomon Mencha

Signature: _____

Date: _____

This thesis has been submitted for examination with my approval as university advisor

Name: Woldeab Teshome (PhD)

Signature: _____

Date: _____