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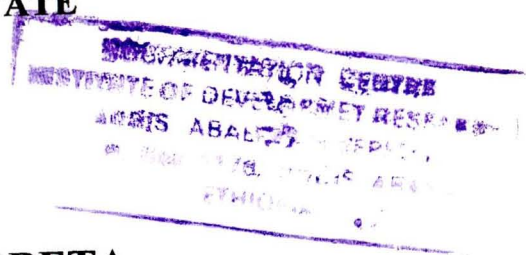
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**CONTRIBUTION OF PRODUCTIVE SAFETY NET PROGRAMME
ON HOUSEHOLD FOOD SECURITY: CASE OF GRADUATES IN
ADAMI TULLU JIDO KOMBOLCHA WOREDA OF OROMIA
NATIONAL REGIONAL STATE**

BY

ALEKA AREGACHEW ROBETA

ADVISOR: TADESSE WOLDEMARIAM (PhD)



July 2011

Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

The
HAI
2011

**ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES
INSTITUTE OF DEVELOPMENT STUDIES
(IDS)**

Title

**Impact of Productive Safety Net Programme on
Household Food Security: Case of Graduates in Adami
Tullu Jido Kombolcha District of Oromia National
Regional State.**

By
Aleka Aregachew

Food Security

APPROVED BY THE BOARD OF EXAMINERS:

SIGNATURE

Dr. Ali Hassen

CENTER HEAD

Dr. Tadesse Woldemariam

ADVISOR

Dr. Getnet Alemu

INTERNAL EXAMINER



Declaration

I, the undersigned, declare that the thesis is my bona fide work, has not been presented for a degree in any other university and that all sources of materials used for the thesis have been duly acknowledged.

Declared by:

Confirmed by:

Candidate

Advisor



Dedication

In loving memory of my elder sister Saqtu Aregachew who passed away suddenly this year.

ABSTRACT

This paper attempts to evaluate the contribution of Ethiopia's Productive Safety Net Program (PSNP) on household food security in general and the graduation process in particular. The PSNP operates as a safety net, targeting transfers to poor households in two ways, through public works (PW) and direct support (DS). The program is to provide food insecure people public work for five days a month pays 10 birr/day for their labor on labor-intensive projects designed to build community assets during the agricultural slack season and thereby enable households to smooth consumption and prevent them from selling productive assets to overcome food shortages. The public work is also intended to create valuable public goods, and reduce seasonal liquidity constraints and thereby stimulate investments. Direct support, in the form of cash transfers, is provided to labor-scarce households, including those whose primary income earners are elderly or disabled in order to maintain the safety net for the poorest households who cannot participate in public works. Primary data was collected from 43 clients of PSNP and 30 graduated households selected randomly from three kebeles namely Dodicha, Warja Washgula and Bochessa from Adami Tulu Jido Kombolcha woreda of Oromia National Regional State. Thirty two non-beneficiary households were selected purposively only from Dodicha kebele. The sustainable livelihood framework was adopted to identify the outcome of the program and food insecurity as disaster model is applied as theory to identify whether disaster was the cause of food insecurity or not. Household food insecurity access scale was used as a tool to measure the status of household food security. The study revealed that the PSNP is already having an impact, that several important changes have taken place in terms of smoothing consumption, asset protection, asset building. Households graduate from the PSNP when they are able to fill the food gap they had prior to their entry to the program and have additional resources to protect themselves from the modest shocks. The subjective assessment of the households' perception on food self sufficiency are not uniform throughout households. The concept of modest shock was not fully defined in the graduation guide note. Unless the definition is agreed or explicitly stated it is difficult to establish what level of resource equates to food sufficiency and graduation in general. The study identified that PSNP is showing positive trends to hit its objectives. However, PSNP on its own may not allow large numbers to graduate from food insecurity, unless it is combined with the other food security programs, and especially the extension packages, loans. The restructuring of Oromia's Food Security Office institutional framework arrangement several times in mandate, structure, and scope in the recent years and rapid turnover of staff at Woreda level are big challenges which seeks immediate solution for the effective implementation of the program. In ATJK Woreda vast majority of rural households are heavily reliant on rain-fed agriculture and, hence any irregularity in weather conditions has adverse welfare implications. The result suggests that, agricultural performance must improve if the food security of the majority of ATJK's Woreda farming households is to be enhanced. But more attention must be given to stabilizing yields, disseminating drought-resistant varieties to farmers in this drought prone woreda, rather than high-yielding but riskier varieties and access to inputs must be provided on time and more reasonable terms.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Above all, I bow with gratefulness before Almighty God for having bestowed up on me his grace and blessing, giving me stamina and strength to bring out this humble piece of work into light; without him, I could not have produced this piece of work.

I take it as an extreme privilege to express my heartfelt thanks and sincere gratitude to my Advisor Dr. Tadesse W/Mariam for his noble hearted help, guidance, cooperation and encouragement. Without his personal involvement at every stage, it would have never been possible to see this work in the present shape. I am highly thankful to Ato Messay Mulugeta PhD candidate at Addis Ababa University for his critical comments and suggestions by committing his scarce time which has installed in me the spirit of confidence to successfully complete this research work. College of Development Studies of Addis Ababa University in general, the Food Security program in particular and all the staffs members (academic and support staffs) are also cordially acknowledged for they provided me with the required knowledge, skills and physical resources during my stay for study.

Diction is not enough, and words fall short to express my adoration to my beloved wife Roman Negari for her patience and endurance in shouldering the responsibilities and making me free to devote my time to my study during the long months of separation. I can say Roman has been the sole caretaker of our children, while I was learning and conducting the research. I also very much appreciate my children, Sena, Robera, Mati and Firomsa, for their patience during my absence, as well as for their understanding of my workload, encouragements and moral support.

From the inner core of my heart, I expressed my deep sense of gratitude to my beloved brother, Temesgen Dessalegn and his family, Senait Dereje, Sedisie, Situna, Oliyad and Ararsa for their immeasurable support. Tame, alphabets are insufficient to express my internal feeling for you, it is your effort that bears fruit; may almighty God bless you and your family with long life, sound health and continued happiness.

My most heartfelt gratitude goes to my family; my beloved mother Kuli Arbas, My father Aregachew Robeta, my Grandmother Birqi Dhuguma and my uncle Jabessa Jira for their fervent prayers for the last two years for me. I humbly place on record my respect and deep sense of gratitude to my brothers and sisters, Batu, Addise, Belay, Fanta, Raji, Yibeltal, Silesh, for their help and encouragement.

I thankful recall the help rendered by Tariku Kassa which is indescribable to my words. It is great pleasure that I take this opportunity to express my heartfelt thanks to Shambel Begna, Alemayehu Bekele, Belete Wayessa and Warqinesh Eshete for taking care of my children and shouldering my burden in the absence of me.

My greatest debt of gratitude in preparation of this paper is to all of my respondents and for their time and interest. It is pleasant to acknowledge Horro Guduru Wollega Zone Revenue office that has been sponsored me for the last two years when I was in the University and the same is true for Addis Ababa University for funding this thesis paper. In addition to this, Adami Tullu Jido Kombolcha Agriculture and Rural Development Office, ATJK Woreda Administration, ATJK Woreda Food Security and natural resource exerts deserve my special thanks for the relevant documents that they provided me.

I was very lucky to have the company of my classmates Firew and Mekonnen during my voyage in the world of learning and research. I sincerely thank them for their cooperation and the memorable moments during the entire period of my study.

A lot of people are behind me for my success, and have contributed directly or indirectly. The list is long and I cannot mention all who were involved in various ways for the completion of this work. I say Thanks to you all and God richly bless you all. Finally, no piece of work is perfect; therefore, responsibility for all errors that might be found in this work rests entirely with me.

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LIST OF Acronyms/ Abbreviations

ARDB	Agriculture and Rural Development Bureau (Oromia)
ADLI	Agricultural Development-Led Industrialization
ATJK	Adami Tullu Jido Kombolcha
ARD	Agriculture and Rural Development
BC	Before Christ
BPR	Business Process Re-engineering
CSA	Central Statistical Agency
DA	Development Agent
DFID	Department for international Development of UK
DHA	Department of Humanitarian Affairs (UN)
DPPO	Disaster prevention and preparedness Office
DS	Direct support
EC	Ethiopian Calendar
FAD	Food Availability Decline
FANTA	Food and Nutrition Technical Assistance
FAO	Food and Agricultural Organization (UN)
FED	Food entitlement Decline
EFY	Ethiopian Fiscal Year
FFSCD	Federal Food Security Coordination Directorate
FSP	Food Security Program
FSS	Forum for social studies
FSS	Food Security Strategy
FTC	Farmers Training Center
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GGN	Graduation Guide Note (PSNP)
Ha	Hectare
HFIAS	Household Food Insecurity Access Scale
HH	Household
IDNDR	International Decade for Natural Disaster Reduction
IFPRI	International Food Policy Research Institute

IIRR-----International Institute of Rural Reconstruction
 Kg-----Kilogram
 Km-----Kilometer
 MoARD-----Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development
 MoFED-----Ministry of Finance and Economic Development
 MT-----Metric tone
 NCFS-----New Coalition for Food Security
 NGO-----Non-Governmental Organization
 OFSP-----Other Food Security Programs
 PAR-----Pressure and Release
 PASDEP-----Plan for Accelerated and Sustained Development to End Poverty
 PIM-----Program Implementation Manual (PSNP)
 PSNP-----Productive Safety Net Program
 PW-----Public work
 SDPRP-----Sustainable Development and Poverty Reduction Program
 SNNPR-----South Nations and Nationalities people Republic
 USA-----United State of America
 USAID-----United States Agency for international Development
 USD-----United State of America Dollar
 UNDP-----United Nations Development Program
 WB-----World Bank
 WFSD-----Woreda Food Security Desk
 WFP-----World food program
 WOARD-----Woreda Office of Agriculture and Rural Development
 WFSTF-----Woreda Food Security Task Force

CHAPTER ONE

1.1 Background of the Study

Safety nets or social assistance is used to refer to noncontributory transfer programs targeted in some manner to the poor or vulnerable; this is a fairly commonly accepted definition (Grosh et al., 2008). The PSNP operates as a safety net, targeting transfers to poor households in two ways: through public works (PW) and direct support (DS). Public works, the larger of the two programs, pays selected beneficiaries 10 birr/day for their labor on labor-intensive projects designed to build community assets. Direct support, in the form of cash or food transfers, is provided to labor-scarce households, including those whose primary income earners are elderly or disabled in order to maintain the safety net for the poorest households who cannot participate in public works. Outside of South Africa, it is currently the largest social protection program operating in Sub-Saharan Africa (IFPRI, 2008).

The origin of most of the food based safety net programs historically dates back to the World War II period. They were first introduced in the countries affected by the war to serve as food provision mechanisms instead of anti-poverty programs. In countries like the United States, most of the direct food distribution systems originated as outlets for surplus disposal during depression period. Other forms of food-based safety net program such as employment generation schemes have evolved in countries like India and Indonesia during the past forty years due to lack of cash and availability of food aid on the part of their respective governments (FSS, 2004).

According to Ouma (1995), in Africa during the pre-colonial period, the acts of reciprocity, altruism, social cohesion and personal intimacies were sufficient to guarantee social protection in both good and bad times to all members of any ethnic nationality by ensuring equity and social justice. There was thus no talk of famine or homelessness in pre-colonial times. Social protection was total, resulting in extensive local commitment to culture and tradition and indeed area based development (Ouma, 1995). However, colonization and its version of modernization destroyed this serenity and indeed the mutual social support systems. In Uganda, the destruction took three forms:

(1) The dispossession of the local populations (ethnic nationalities) of the political power to manage their own affairs and determine their own destinies, and the transfer of this to the relatively inaccessible, alien and bureaucratic Protectorate Government with its headquarters

in Entebbe;

(2) the introduction of money as the sole medium of exchange for goods and services: transactions which had previously been rendered on the basis of (a) bartering; and (b) mutual-aid benefit support schemes, in turn inspired by reciprocity, altruism and social cohesiveness; and

(3) Promotion of the distinction between home and place of work through the introduction of towns as administrative and commercial centers, besides the other centers of concentrated activity such as mines and plantation agriculture.

In Ethiopia, agriculture and social protection are inextricably interconnected. Smallholder farming is the dominant livelihood activity for the majority of Ethiopians, but it is also the major source of vulnerability to poverty, food insecurity and their often fatal consequences – chronic malnutrition, premature mortality, and recurrent famines. Ethiopian farmers have been the recipients of enormous volumes of food aid and other humanitarian assistance over recent decades, to such an extent that emergency relief has become institutionalized within government structures and donor agency country programs (Devereux and Guenther, 2009).

According to Grosh et al. (2008), safety net systems are usually woven of several programs, ideally complementing each other as well as complementing other public or social policies. A good safety net system is more than a collection of well-designed and well-implemented programs. At minimum, safety net programs help households facing hard times avoid irreversible losses, allowing them to maintain the household and business assets, on which their livelihoods are based, and to adequately nourish and school their children. At best, they can provide an insurance element that lets households make choices about livelihoods that yield higher earnings. Safety nets thus both protect households and promote their independence. Safety net exhibits the following attributes: appropriate, adequate, equitable, cost-effective, incentive compatible, sustainable and dynamic. This study aims at assessing the impact of the PSNP on household food security particularly household graduation from the PSNP, in Adami Tullu Jido Kombolcha district of Oromia regional state. In addition to this from East shoa zone PSNP participants in 2008 and 2009 about 966 households were graduated from the program. Out of the total graduated households, the numbers of graduates in ATJK woreda were relatively large number (382 HHs) from the PSNP within two years.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Productive Safety Net Programme is a social protection program that was launched by the Government of Ethiopia and a consortium of donors to assure food consumption and to prevent asset depletion and to build asset at household and community levels respectively in chronically food insecure woredas. The program also aims to stimulate market, improve access to services and natural resources, and enhance the natural environment. Implementation of the program began January 2005 (PIM, 2010). Adami Tulu Jido Kombolcha Woreda, due to its location in the Great Rift Valley of East African zone and one of the drought prone areas and food insecure woreda, enrolled into the PSNP since the initiation of the program. However, a number of households in the woreda still remain food insecure and dependent on the transfer of the productive safety net program. From all Woredas of East Shoa zone under productive safety program, Adami Tulu Jido Kombolcha has higher number of PSNP client and high number of graduate households from the PSNP. Even though, the woreda had a relatively high number of graduates in the year 2008 and 2009, the government plan to have scale of graduation within the past year did not hit the target. The benchmarks to identify the graduate households are still ambiguous and the procedures lack some qualitative aspect of food security.

Therefore, based on the objectives of the program, it is very vital to evaluate the intervention of PSNP on household food security, asset protection of household and community asset building and identify the success and failure of the launched program. The study also analysed the strength and weakness of graduation, identified existing gaps of targeting mechanism of graduate households and suggested workable solution for effectively target mechanism of the graduate households.

1.3 Objectives of Study

1.3.1 General Objective

The overall objective of the study was to evaluate the contribution of the Productive Safety Net Program towards household food security, household and community asset protection and asset creation respectively and examine the success and failure of graduation program in the ATJK Woreda.

1.3.2 Specific Objectives

The specific objectives of the study were:

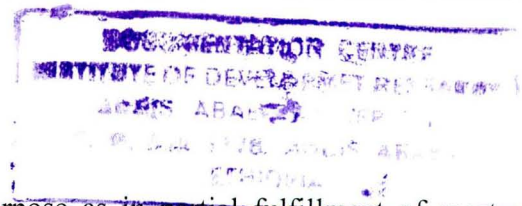
- a. To identify the role of PSNP in household food security attainment;
- b. To examine whether or not the productive safety net program had protected and built asset at household and community level respectively;
- c. To identify the success and failure of graduation of the beneficiary as defined in the graduation guide notes; and,
- d. To assess the role of other food security program in the graduation process.

1.4 Research Questions

- a. What is the role of PSNP in household food security attainment?
- b. Has the productive safety net program protected and built asset at household and community level?
- c. Which household which graduated from the PSNP had achieved food sufficiency, as defined in the GGN, and is there a change in the livelihoods since their graduation?
- d. What is the role of OFSP in the household graduation attainment?

1.5 Scope or Delimitation of the Study

The functional limit of the research was to examine the impact of productive safety net program on households' food security attainment particularly the case of graduation of households from the productive safety net program and the spatial scope of the study was limited within the jurisdiction (legal boundary) of Adami Tullu Jido Kombolcha Woreda of Oromia Regional State.



1.6 Significance of the study

The study was conducted for the academic purpose as in partial fulfillment of masters' degree program at Addis Ababa University in food security. The outcome of the study is expected to make a modest contribution to the understanding of the food insecurity situation in the area under study. More importantly, it also surfaces out the different issues involved in the current graduation processes and makes recommendations for better program accomplishment. Hence, the study is beneficial to the PSNP decision makers at different

levels, especially at region and woreda levels. Therefore, the study might contribute to the literature on the Productive Safety Net Program.

1.7 Definition of Terms and Concepts

To navigate easily your way through this paper, you will need to understand a few basic terms and concepts. Some of the basic terms and concepts in this paper are defined bellow.

Disaster is a serious disruption of the functioning of society, causing widespread human, material or environmental losses which exceed the ability of the affected people to cope using its own resources (DHA/IDNDR, 1992).

Graduation “A household has graduated when, in the absence of receiving PSNP transfers, it can meet its food needs for all 12 months and is able to withstand modest shocks.” This state is described as being ‘food sufficient’ (GGN, 2007).

Social protection is the set of all initiatives, both formal and informal, that provide: **social assistance** to extremely poor individuals and households; **social services** to groups who need special care or would otherwise be denied access to basic services; **social insurance** to protect people against the risks and consequences of livelihood shocks; and **social equity** to protect people against social risks such as discrimination or abuse (Devereux and Sabates, 2004).

Social safety nets as cash or in-kind transfer programs that seek to reduce poverty by redistributing wealth and/or protect households against income shocks. Social safety nets seek to ensure a minimum level of well-being, a minimum level of nutrition, or help households manage risk (FAO, 2003).

Vulnerability is the characteristics of a person or group in terms of their capacity to anticipate, cope with, resist and recover from the impact of a natural hazard. It involves a combination of factors that determine the degree to which someone’s life and livelihood is put at risk by a discrete and identifiable event in nature or in society (Blaikie et al., 1994).

1.8 Limitation of the Study

Usually a research does not yield exactly what has been intended at its original design. This, more often, comes to light only after one is removed far away from the resources of data or when the process of data organization and analysis is half a way towards its completion. Because of this and similar reasons it is common to see the gaps in the final results of research. The PSNP was initiated in recent year in our country; in line with the stated problem the researcher faced lack of enough books for review of the literature in this regard.

The field work took longer time than expected due to inability of Officials to honors their appointment. The field work overlapped with the 2010-2014 Growth and Transformational Plan awareness creation for the citizens and this made Officials much busy that leads some Officials to postponing appointments for several times. Poor data recording system were extremely made difficult to get appropriate and timely data. In order to overcome these limitations during study data were collected from original source documents; regular visit and continuous telephone call were used as a means to convince the officials.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Social Protection and Food Security

2.1.1 Social Protection

Traditionally, safety net transfers have been used to redistribute income and resources to the needy in society, helping them to overcome short-term poverty during periods of crisis, with little attention to impacts on long-term, structural poverty. In today's world, many developing countries are struggling to provide adequate food supplies to their population. It is argued that a systemic understanding of food security includes not only the production and consumption of food but also the interaction between and within the environment in which the activities related to food take place.

Safety nets are part of a broader poverty reduction strategy interacting with and working alongside of social insurance; health, education, and financial services; the provision of utilities and roads; and other policies aimed at reducing poverty and managing risk. Safety nets are not the only or even the principal tool for achieving any of the ends they serve, yet they can make a significant contribution. When situations are dire, they can help save lives.

Safety net programs can play four roles in development policy as noted by Grosh et al. (2008), safety nets and transfers have an immediate impact on inequality and extreme poverty; safety nets enable households to make better investments in their future; safety nets help households manage risk; and safety nets help governments make beneficial reforms.

Social safety nets as cash or in-kind transfer are programs that seek to reduce poverty by redistributing wealth and/or protect households against income shocks. Social safety nets seek to ensure a minimum level of well-being, a minimum level of nutrition, or help households manage risk (FAO 2003).

As noted in IFPRI (2004), public works programs have been around for decades. They constituted an important component of India's famine relief during the nineteenth century, and they have existed in South Africa and Bangladesh since the nineteenth century and the 1960s, respectively. But they became more widespread and more focused in the late 1980s

and early 1990s, especially in Asia and Africa. Such programs have often accounted for a substantial proportion of employment generated nationally, e.g., 21 percent of the labor force in Botswana in 1985/86, and 13 percent in Chile in 1983.

However, existing social safety nets are perceived to have a number of shortcomings that substantially reduce their effectiveness. First, they often fail to reach the intended target group, the poorest households. Second, they are made up of a myriad of small, uncoordinated, and duplicative transfer programs. Third, a combination of operational inefficiencies and corruption results in an unnecessarily high cost of transferring resources to households. Fourth, even when the transfers do reach intended beneficiaries, they fail to generate a sustained decrease in poverty independent of the transfers. Fifth, the transfers are often too small, and program coverage too low, to have any noticeable effect on overall poverty (IFPRI, 2004).

2.1.2 Concept of Food Security

Understanding famines and food insecurity has been a long-standing effort and still remains a widely debated issue in academic and policy circles. Food security as a concept emerged in the 1970s when the emphasis was placed on food availability and relative price stability at the international and national level (FAO, 2003).

Food security exists when all people, at all times, have physical and economic access to sufficient, safe, and nutritious food to meet their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life (FAO, 1998). There are four core concepts in the notion of food security. These are i) Physical availability of food. Food availability addresses the “supply side” of food security and is determined by the level of food production, stock levels and net trade. ii) Economic and physical access to food; an adequate supply of food at the national or international level does not in itself guarantee household level food security. Concerns about insufficient food access have resulted in a greater policy focus on incomes, expenditure, markets and prices in achieving food security objectives. Access to food is also defined by entitlement to produce, purchase or exchange food or receives it as a gift; iii) Food utilization: utilization is commonly understood as the way the body makes the most of

various nutrients in the food. Sufficient energy and nutrient intake by individuals is the result of good care and feeding practices, food preparation, and diversity of the diet and intra-household distribution of food. Combined with good biological utilization of food consumed, this determines the nutritional status of individuals. And iv) stability of the other three dimensions over time: Even if your food intake is adequate today, you are still considered to be food insecure if you have inadequate access to food on a periodic basis, risking a deterioration of your nutritional status. Adverse weather conditions, political instability, or economic factors (unemployment, rising food prices) may have an impact on your food security status. For food security objectives to be realized, all four dimensions must be fulfilled simultaneously. Therefore, food security objectives to be realized, all the above four dimensions of food security must be fulfilled simultaneously.

On the other hand, food insecurity is identified by situations where the conditions of food availability, food access and food utilization are not satisfied “at all times”: food insecurity is the risk that any of these three elements may be disrupted. People are food insecure because they are exposed to various risks and they are unable to cope with the negative impacts that “hazard events” or “shocks” have on the availability of food, on the access to food or on the utilization of food (Devereux, 2005 and WFP, 2004 as cited in Canali and Slaviero, 2010).

In broader terms, the history of thinking about food security since the World Food Conference in 1974 can be conceptualized as consisting of three important and overlapping paradigm shifts (Devereux and Maxwell, 2003). The three shifts are:

a. Shift from the global and the national to the household and the individual food security.

Availability of sufficient food at global and national levels was the main focus in the 1970s. However, it is realized that access to food by each household, and its members should be the central concern (following Sen’s argument in 1981). Amartya Sen (1981) is generally credited with shifting the food security debate away from an exclusive focus on the availability of international and national food supplies, towards a focus on the ability of households to access food. His work highlighted the effect of personal entitlements (resources used for production, exchange and transfers) in ensuring access to food. The shift from global and national food security to household and individual level indicates how an

understanding of issues has moved from general to specific and in-depth insights of processes.

b. Shift from food first perspective to a livelihood perspective.

Observations on food insecurity have shown that the victimized people focus on long-term objectives (sustaining livelihood) rather than attaining the short-term satisfaction of immediate food consumption. People respond to food shortage crisis by practicing a variety of coping and adapting strategies. An application of an analogy of concepts of environmental management, i.e. 'sensitivity' and 'resilience' in explaining the situations before, during and after food crisis for households is very vital. The move from food first to livelihood first means there is a need to look into wider and sustainable objectives that households aim to attain, and food needs to be considered as one of the elements of household's livelihood.

c. Shift from objective indicator to subjective perception.

Practical problems related to recommending a standardized amount of calorie and micro-nutrients; cultural differences and food preference; and human dignity and quality of entitlement. Shift in measurement of food security from quantitative to qualitative would be an indication of shift in concern from food measurement in economic and nutritional terms to normative human-related factors or people perception, food preferences and feelings.

Different literatures made a distinction between the temporal scales. According to Devereux (2000), the distinction between transitory and chronic food insecurity is increasingly blurred. A subgroup of virtually assetless rural Ethiopians is emerging who are subjected to all forms of food insecurity. They cannot meet their food needs even under ideal weather conditions. They suffer seasonal hunger and malnutrition, and they are acutely vulnerable to famine in years of low or erratic rainfall. Less well understood than the immediate impact of drought on rural livelihoods is the impact of repeated droughts on long term food insecurity. Two vicious cycles are at work: recovery (e.g. of herds) from food crises is cut short by the next drought, and the threat of drought - which occurs frequently but is unpredictable in its timing and severity inhibits investment in productivity enhancing agricultural inputs, because the

downside risk for marginal farmers is too high (Devereux, 2000).

In general, the recent concept of food security has given more attention to households and individuals than its availability at international, national, regional, woreda or kebele levels. This is because, as already indicated, increasing food production, supply and sufficiency at broader levels does not necessarily ensure that each and every individual is food securing. This is why, as reported by the World Food Program in 2009, over 1 billion people throughout the world have been suffering from hunger and malnutrition despite the fact that there is more than sufficient food supply at global level at present (Messay, 2010).

In case of Ethiopia, it is not only the individuals' or households' inability to obtain adequate food that matters but the inadequate food production at the national level is also a source of great concern for the prevailing severe food insecurity in the country (Messay, 2010). It is at this juncture that, the government of Ethiopia has formulated the Productive Safety Net Program as crisis response to support the needs of chronically food insecure households, as well as to develop long-term solutions to the problem of food insecurity.

2.2 Drought and Food Insecurity in Ethiopia

Drought represents a seasonal moisture deficit significantly below long-term average levels for a given locality. Drought can be classified into four categories: metrological, hydrological, agricultural and socio-economic (IIRR and Save the Children USA, 2007). Based upon the definition of each type of drought, agricultural drought is more related to the objective of this study.

Agricultural drought is when there is insufficient moisture in the soil to support crop or pasture growth. It can be the result of both metrological and hydrological drought (IIRR and Save the Children USA, 2007). The major factors which turn drought hazard into disasters are over cultivation of land with minimal inputs of natural and artificial fertilizers; deforestation due to cutting trees without proper management; increased human and livestock populations that have put pressure on the natural environment; inappropriate farming practices; heavy dependence on rain fed agriculture/pasture and water sources; poor access to market and lack of diversified income sources (IIRR and Save the Children USA, 2007).

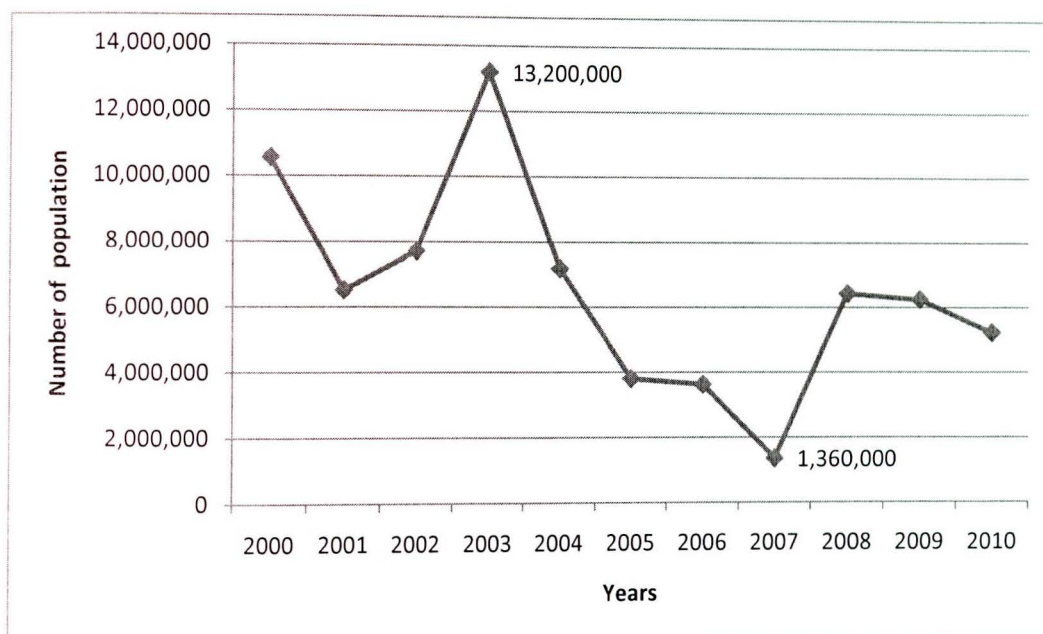
Droughts and floods are the two principle natural hazards recurrent in the Horn of Africa. Whilst these external shocks may not necessarily have a considerable impact on national food production, they hit the poorest (mostly rural) communities the hardest. Although populations in areas affected by cycles of drought and flooding have developed specific coping mechanisms, the latter are strained as the climate is becoming more unstable and shocks increasingly severe. Drought or the lack of resilience to it, conflict (both armed conflict and resource based) and population growth (putting an ever greater pressure on natural resources) are the main underlying causes of food insecurity; adding to other complex factors specific to the Africa region (FAO, 2010).

Around 220 million people were found to be exposed annually to drought and African states were indicated as having the highest vulnerability to drought (UNDP, 2004). According to IIRR and Save the Children USA, (2007) the recorded history of drought in Ethiopia goes back to the year 250 BC. There have been many national and localized droughts in the past and communities managed most of them through their own coping mechanisms. Between the 9th century and the Great Ethiopian Famine of 1888-1892, thirteen drought years were recorded. Between the Great Famine and the 1970s, there have been many national and localized droughts and at least 20 major drought years were noted affecting most parts of the country, particularly Tigray and Wollo. The magnitude, frequency and the effects of droughts have increased since the mid-1970s (IIRR and Save the Children USA, 2007).

According to the World Bank (2010), in times of **drought**, agricultural production declines by 25% on average and cereal yields can go down by as much as 75% at local levels. Livestock losses as high as 70% have also been recorded using case study data. Since most households depend on agriculture and animal husbandry, with few off-farm income opportunities, crop and animal failures can be devastating for rural livelihoods. Repeated droughts have caused high rates of malnutrition as households seek to survive in the short-term by decreasing their consumption to protect assets. Repeated and severe shocks cause households to sell off or consume assets, such as livestock and seed stock, or pull children from school thereby increasing long-term and intergenerational vulnerability.

According to USAID (2003), the frequency of nationwide droughts causing severe food shortage increased from once every 10 years in the 1970s and 1980s, to every three years now. Between 1970 and 1996, drought and the resultant food shortages have affected millions. The increasing trend of drought-induced disaster, associated with other hazards, is reflected in the increasing number of people needing food assistance in Ethiopia. Between 1990 and 2005, on average each year 6.3 million people required food assistance amounting to over 654,000 tonnes annually. The number of people affected is especially significant in Tigray where annual averages of more than 1.2 million people are affected. The proportion of the population affected is also high in Amhara and Somali regional states (IIRR and Save the Children USA, 2007).

Fig. 2.1 Number of population affected by the natural disaster in Ethiopia (2000-2010)



Source: DRMFS, 2010.

Blaikie et al. (1994) challenge the belief that 'disasters were natural and straightforward' and argue that human factors are very important as well. For instance, drought and flood are natural hazards that cannot cause a disaster of food shortage unless combined with other human factors. According to Devereux (1993), however, we must conclude that there is

evident association between climate and famine, whether droughts and floods are sufficient explanation of famine is another matter, just because drought is not invariably associated with famine does not mean that drought and famine are not casually related.

The study by Webb et al. as cited in Degefa (2005), found that there is no perfect correlation between drought years and subsequent food shortages, and concluded: 'While the relationship between drought and hunger is a close one, it is neither a constant nor a necessary one; the link between the two is more complex than simple associations allow'. In assessing the link between drought and famine, it is important to note that a single year drought may or may not result in food shortage. The central argument here is that there must be a cumulative effect of a series of droughts that progressively erode the livelihood endurance of victims.

2.3 Agriculture and Social Protection in Ethiopia

Agriculture is the main industry of the majority of Ethiopians: in the year 2010 it contributes 42% of the GDP, next to services (45%), and manufacture shares (13%); and employs more than 80% of the population (MoFED, 2010). Agriculture is the driving force of economic development of Ethiopia. Even by African standards, Ethiopia's economy is dominated by smallholder agriculture, which employed 89% of the labour force and contributed 56% of GDP and 67% of export earnings in 1997. Rural Ethiopia is also unusually undifferentiated: small farmers account for over 90% of total crop area and agricultural output (Bollinger et al. 1999). Gilligan et al. (2008) noted that in rural areas of Africa, there are pervasive credit and insurance market failures. This has two adverse consequences for agriculture: farmers are liquidity constrained (and therefore, for example, find it difficult to purchase fertilizer) and farmers are reluctant to take risks (for example, to adopt new crops). By providing liquidity and a reliable source of income, social protection addresses both types of market failures.

It emphasized the package approach to agricultural development and nurtured the research-extension and input-credit distribution linkages (Habtemariam 2008). The focus was initially on food crops but later high value crops and livestock and natural resources followed and some attempt was made to tailor packages to agro-ecological zones and to become packages

more gender-sensitive (Habtemariam, 2008; Dessalegn, 2008). Concerns to link extension services with food security were part of the revised Food Security Strategy in 2002, the New Coalition for Food Security, and especially the PASDEP (MoFED, 2006).

There has been too much inappropriate and damaging intervention in Africa food production and marketing on the part of overweight bureaucracies. Discriminatory pricing policies, inappropriate intervention, and inefficient and corrupt marketing agencies are generally held to blame for declines in food production over much of Africa (Devereux, 1993 pp. 133).

Between 1960 and 1990, the population of doubled from 23 to 48 million, while per capita landholding shrunk from 0.28 to 0.10 hectare, and per capita food output collapsed by 41% from 240 to 142 kg. As landholdings have declined, farmers allocate smaller proportions of their fields to non-cereal crops, which provide essential dietary diversity and cash incomes (Devereux, 2000).

Devereux (2000) noted that Ethiopian agriculture appears to be locked into a downward spiral of low and declining productivity, caused by an adverse combination of agro climatic, demographic, economic and institutional constraints, trends and shocks. Pressures on the physical environment increase inexorably, with forest cover, grazing land, livestock ownership, soil fertility and even rainfall all decreasing in many areas. A survey conducted in Hararghe Region showed that a 72% decline in barley yields over a 15-year period, due to soil erosion ICRA, 1996 as cited in (Devereux, 2000).

2.4 Food Aid for Social Protection in Ethiopia

Ethiopia is the world's most food aid dependent country. Although food aid is a standard response to transitory food insecurity (e.g. drought emergencies), in Ethiopia, it has become an institutionalized response to chronic food insecurity as well. Annual food aid deliveries to Ethiopia since 1980 have varied from 200,000 to 1,200,000 metric tons. For generations, many rural Ethiopians have experienced significant periods when they were unable to meet their basic food needs. The most dramatic images of food insecurity and famine in Ethiopia come from the mid-1980s when an estimated one million people died. From the mid-1990s, food

insecurity affected up to an estimated 15 million people in rural Ethiopia depending on weather conditions. Weather-related shocks are frequent events, such as in 1994, 2000 and 2002 (WB, 2010).

Ethiopia received more emergency support per capita than any other Sub-Saharan African nation, with an average of 700,000 metric tons of food aid per year for the last 15 years. The Government, donors and Ethiopian citizens were locked on an annual treadmill of food aid that while undoubtedly saving millions of lives did little to address the underlying causes of food insecurity (WB, 2010). Food aid could affect the value of labour and hence local production activities. Households received food aid in general and cash transfer in particular could shift their time from production to non-productive 'leisure' activities. This could reduce the supply of labour and affect production activities (Abdulahi et al, 2004).

Despite high levels of food aid, with each emergency rural households further depleted their assets and found themselves increasingly vulnerable to even the most marginal livelihood shock. Even during times of good rainfall, a significant part of the population (at least 2 million people annually during the 1990s) remained food insecure and the overall number of predictably food insecure households continued to rise. Indeed, much of the annual emergency food aid was being distributed to the same people in the same geographic areas, even though it was justified as a response to unanticipated shocks (WB, 2010). The international community is increasingly beginning to see food aid as an ineffective way of spending development assistance due to its high administrative costs. Estimates suggest that each donor dollar spent on food aid would have led to twice as large a transfer to beneficiary households if it had been provided in cash. The sheer logistics of warehousing, shipping, and distributing upwards of 700,000 MT of food each year created significant costs in terms of personnel, equipment, and operating expenses (WB, 2010).

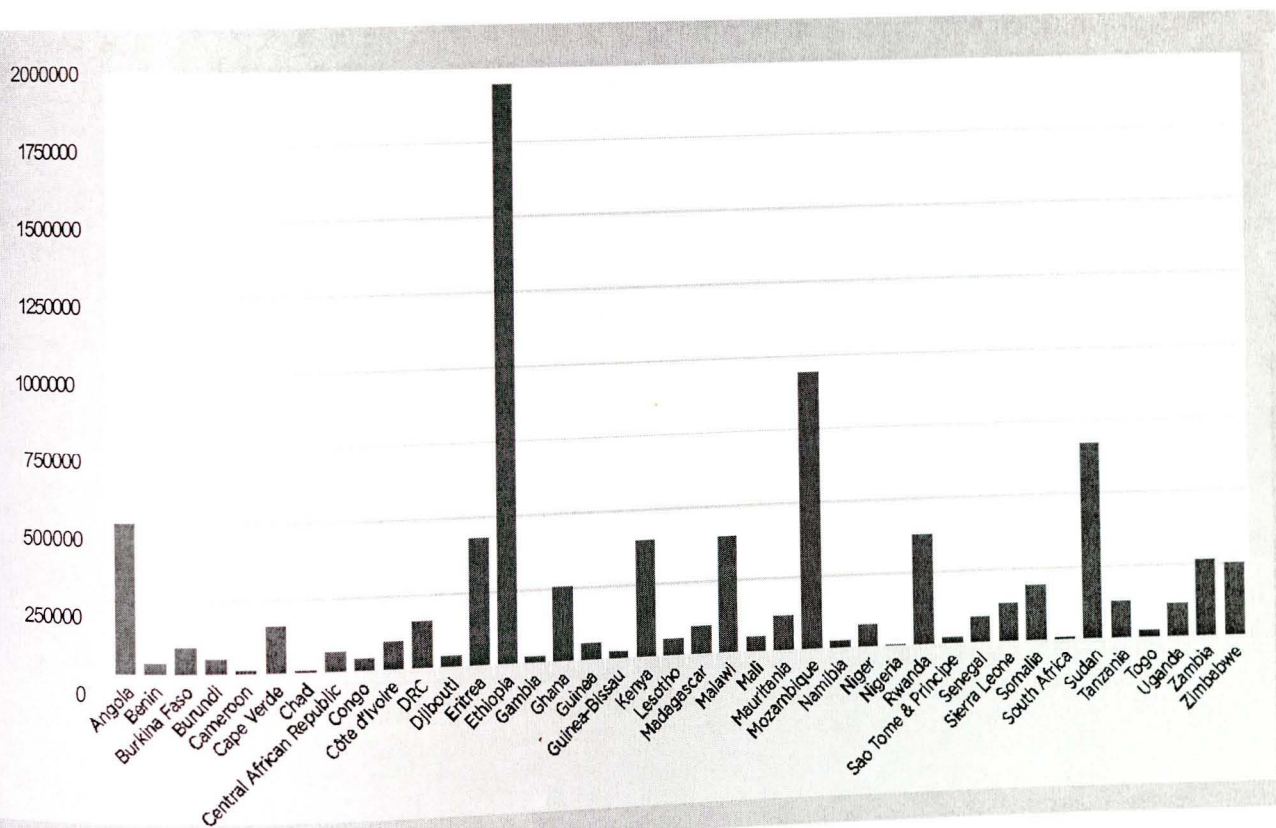
Ethiopia's three decades' experience of utilizing relief resources for development is largely a failure according to many commentators. For example, aid related development activities such as food-for-work programmes in chronically food insecure areas has failed to stop the process of environmental degradation and the rehabilitation of natural resources including

agricultural lands, soil and forests which are the basis for sustainable agricultural system (Admassie, 2000).

There is also an argument that decades of food aid shipments to Ethiopia has interacted negatively with food production, agricultural marketing, and economic growth in highland Ethiopia, creating dependence and undermining incentives for production and trade in higher potential areas.

All the data on fig. 2.2 below shows that over the last ten years, massive relief resources have been mobilized to respond to the regular food emergencies around the country, with large quantities of food aid being distributed every year. Despite this, food security situation in the country has not improved. In general, food aid has kept people alive but done nothing to address the cause of food insecurity. The challenge was to integrate relief, asset protection and development into a single effort that could adequately protect today's vulnerable people while decreasing future food insecurity (Samuel, 2006).

Fig 2.2 Food Aid Shipments to Countries in Sub-Saharan Africa, Cereals (MT/year) 1990–2002



Source: FAO STAT 2009 as cited in WB, 2010

2.5 Household Food Insecurity Access Scale (HFIAS) to Measure Food Security

Measuring food insecurity has been an ongoing challenge to researchers and practitioners because the concept is complex and multidimensional. Until very recently, most household-level measures of food access, such as income and caloric adequacy, have been technically difficult, data-intensive, and costly to collect (Coates et al., 2007).

The HFIAS is a tool to assess whether households have experienced problems in food access in the preceding 30 days. The tool is composed of nine questions that ask about modifications households made in their diet or food consumption patterns due to limited resources to acquire food. It measures the severity of food insecurity in the past 30 days, as reported by the households themselves. This measurement tool of food security is relatively simple, but methodologically rigorous, indicators of the access component of household food insecurity that can be used to guide, monitor and evaluate program interventions. The guide was used by the United States (U.S.) as an approach used to estimate the prevalence of food insecurity in the country.

The HFIAS occurrence questions relate to three different domains of food insecurity (access) found to be common to the cultures examined in a cross-country literature review FANTA and Coates as cited in Coates et al. (2007). The generic occurrence questions, grouped by domain, are:

- 1) Anxiety and uncertainty about the household food supply:
- 2) Insufficient Quality (includes variety and preferences of the type of food):
- 3) Insufficient food intake and its physical consequences:

Domains are defined as the most core experiences of food insecurity that are common across countries and cultures Coates, et al. as cited in (Coates et al., 2007).

The document guide was tested on field validation studies of this approach to measuring food insecurity (access) more directly, by constructing measures based on households' experience of the problem, have demonstrated the feasibility and usefulness of the approach in very different, developing country contexts Webb et al., Coates et al., Frongillo and Nanama, as cited in (Coates et al., 2007).

2.5.1 Limitations of the HFIAS

General full range of food insecurity and hunger cannot be captured by any single indicator or there is no "gold standard" for an analysis of household food security and specifically the In populations where food assistance is frequent, there can be a respondent bias (i.e. the household may report food insecurity in the expectation of handouts). And also, the questions address the situation of all household members and do not distinguish adults from children or adolescents. Therefore, it is preferred to use the tool without ignoring its limitation.

CHAPTER THREE

FOOD SECURITY AND PRODUCTIVE SAFETY NET IN ETHIOPIAN

3.1 Status of Food Security in Ethiopia

According to Ramakrishna G. and Assefa (2002) as cited in Messay (2010), Ethiopia has a long history of famines and food shortfalls that can be traced back to 250 BC. As researchers documented at least 40 periods of such severe food shortfalls occurred in Ethiopia since then. Ethiopia is presently one of the most food insecure and food aid dependent sub-Saharan African countries. It has been food self-insufficient since 1959 when the country received food aid for the first time because of crop damage by drought and pests in some areas (Messay, 2010).

The major challenge to food security in Africa is its underdeveloped agricultural sector that is characterized by over-reliance on primary agriculture, low fertility soils, minimal use of external farm inputs, environmental degradation, significant food crop loss, both pre- and post-harvest, minimal value addition and product differentiation, and inadequate food storage and preservation that result in significant commodity price fluctuation. Ninety-five percent of the food in Sub-Saharan Africa is grown under rain fed agriculture. Hence food production is vulnerable to adverse weather conditions (Mwaniki, 2007).

According to Kifle and Yoseph (1999), causes of food insecurity in Ethiopia are both man-made and natural. The following could be cited as the major causes that made Ethiopia one of the food insecure countries in the world. These are: fragile natural resource base; inadequate and variable rainfall; improper farming practices, access to productive resources, the land tenure system, poor development of human resources, poor storage technology, lack of transport and infrastructure; heavy workload on women; civil war and ethnic conflicts, poor health status; and lower productivity of livestock as a major ones. Furthermore, Kifle and Yoseph (1999) stated high unemployment absence of sustainable local level employment opportunities outside of agriculture sector, the negative impact of inappropriate use and untargeted free distribution of food aid, which acts as a disincentive for farmers to produce; limited exploitation and utilization of fishery, aquatic and terrestrial food sources; socio-cultural barriers such as food habits, weight attached to ceremonies; and lack of

baseline information and research data against which impacts can be monitored and evaluated to shape future food security interventions. Lack of systematic and coordinated data collection, compilation, and acquisition procedures is also another constraint.

Food insecurity in Ethiopia derives directly from dependence on undiversified livelihoods based on low-input and low-output rainfed agriculture. Ethiopian farmers do not produce enough food even in good rainfall years to meet consumption requirements (Devereux, 2000). According to Ethiopian Productive safety net implementation manual (2010) dramatic variations in the climate contribute to food insecurity in the country. Rainfall data for the period 1967 to 2000 indicate that annual variability in rainfall across different zones in Ethiopia ranged from a low of 15% to a high of 81% among the highest in the world (PIM, 2010). Repeated environmental shocks have severely eroded rural livelihoods, leaving households with little capacity to cope. Beyond rainfall shocks, health risks, including both malaria and HIV/AIDS, exacerbate the vulnerability of the poor, driving thousands of people into poverty traps (PIM, 2010 pp. 4).

Dependence on unreliable and low-productivity rain-fed agriculture may well be the primary determinant of household food insecurity in Ethiopia. Arguments that centre on enhancing access to agricultural inputs - fertilizers, draught oxen - implicitly assume that household food security can be achieved by increasing food production on individual farms (Devereux, 2000). Combinations of factors such as adverse changes in climate, poor technology, soil degradation, and policy induced as well as program implementation problems have resulted in serious and growing problems of food insecurity in Ethiopia. The extent of food insecurity in Ethiopia in recent years has become alarming and its coverage in drought periods has reached as high as 45 percent of the population (NCFS, 2003).

Devereux et al., (2006) noted that food insecurity in Ethiopia is normally understood in terms of recurrent food crises and famines, and responses to food insecurity have conventionally been dominated by emergency food-based interventions. As table 2.1 above illustrates, in the ten years from 1994 to 2003, an average of five million Ethiopians were declared “at risk” and in need of emergency assistance, and since 1998 the numbers of food aid beneficiaries in

Ethiopia have fluctuated between 5 and 14 million every year. Ethiopia is one of the world's poorest countries and especially vulnerable to shocks: in the Ethiopian context, drought hazard is more or less synonymous with disaster. Minor climatic variations or other adverse factors can trigger acute food insecurity, which can easily escalate to full-scale disaster (IIRR and Save the Children USA, 2007).

3.1 Productive Safety Net Program in Ethiopian

Food insecurity has become one of the defining features of rural poverty, particularly in drought-prone areas of Ethiopia. Poverty is widespread in both rural and urban areas. However, the magnitude is much greater in drought-prone rural areas than in urban areas. The problem of food insecurity in recent years has worsened with around 14 million people requiring emergency food aid (PIM, 2006). According to Productive Safety Net Implementation Manual (2010), yet 38.5% of rural households still live below the food poverty line. The Government of Ethiopia has decided that there is an urgent need to address the basic food needs of food insecure households via a productive safety net system financed through multi-year predictable resources, rather than through a system dominated by emergency humanitarian aid. Moreover, the Government seeks to shift the financing of the program from food aid to cash.

To address the problem of food shortage, building on the ideas of the NCFSE in 2004, the Ethiopian Government, with development partner donor's¹ support, designed the Productive Safety Net Program (PSNP). The PSNP was launched by the Government with support of development partners, in January 2005. Initially, 4.8 million chronically food insecure people were targeted in 192 food-insecure *weredas* in six regions: Amhara, Oromia, SNNP, and Tigray as well as Dire Dewa and Harar regions. This was increased in 2006 to 7.19 million people selected from 234 *weredas* in seven regions, with Afar Region added to the previous six. In 2007, the operation targeted 7.19 million people in 274 *weredas* in seven regions.

¹ Development partner donors are: Canadian International Development Agency, UK Department for International Development, Irish Aid, European Commission, Royal Netherlands Embassy, Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency, United States Agency for International Development, World Food Program and World Bank.

Since January 2008, PSNP has also involved a pilot pastoral program in Afar, Oromia and SNNPR and Somali Regions (Haile et al., 2008; Gilligan et al., 2008). The PSNP distinguishes between two groups within the food insecure population: “unpredictable food insecure” people who face transitory food deficits because of erratic rains or other shocks and “predictably food insecure” people who face chronic food deficits because of poverty. The first group continues receiving food aid when required and the second receives cash or fund transfers on a regular, predictable basis. These transfers allow the households to meet their consumption needs but also to invest in farming and small enterprises and escape from chronic food insecurity.

The PIM (2006) of the PSNP distinguishes between chronic and transitory food insecurity:

Chronic food insecurity Households that are regularly unable to produce or purchase enough food to meet their food needs, even during times of normal rain, are considered chronically food insecure.

Transitory food insecurity When a shock has depleted the food stores and current income streams of households to the point that they are unable to meet their immediate food needs; these households are described as transitory food insecure.

However, a high proportion of households that receive emergency food aid, or work on public works projects, every year are not “famine prone” but are “chronically food insecure” – they face predictable annual food deficits caused by agricultural production constraints and poverty. These predictably food “insecure” people are also exposed to recurrent shocks, usually triggered by drought, that raise their vulnerability further, by forcing them to dispose of their assets to survive. This results in a gradual deterioration of their food security status over time, which decades of large-scale food aid deliveries have done little to prevent. Instead, dependency on food aid has steadily increased over time, as has the number of chronically food insecure Ethiopians (Devereux et al., 2006).

3.1.1 Objectives of the PSNP

According to PIM (2005), the objectives of the PSNP is to assure food consumption and prevent asset depletion for rural food insecure households in a way that stimulates markets, improves access to services and natural resources and rehabilitates and enhances the natural

environment. This is to be achieved by:

- a. Providing appropriate, timely and predictable transfers to food insecure households;
- b. Establishing quality, new and existing, community assets with operational management mechanisms;
- c. Promoting markets for food and non-food products;
- d. Strengthening the institutional capacity of government systems delivering the PSNP; and,
- e. Promoting coordination, complementarities, and synergy within government systems and with other relevant programs and organizations for sustainable public works and improved food security.

The PSNP reaches more than 7 million people and operates with an annual budget of nearly 500 million U.S. dollars per year (IFPRI, 2008). Outside of South Africa, it is currently the largest social protection program operating in Sub-Saharan Africa. There are, however, additional features of the PSNP that make an assessment of this program especially interesting (IFPRI, 2008).

In 2009, the PSNP supported **7,574,480** people in 290 chronically food insecure woredas in eight of the country's all regions. This is equivalent to roughly 10 percent of the national population, covering over 40 percent of the country's woredas. The annual budget in 2009 was 2,136,734,460 ETB in cash and 457,966.21 MT of cereals. This is equivalent to approximately \$360 million or about 1.2 percent of Ethiopia's GDP (WB, 2010). In addition, the Government estimates that roughly \$54 million in government staff time is devoted to the program annually. Based on these figures, the proportion of the program budget allocated to administrative costs such as staff time and other running costs in 2009 was roughly 16.9 percent. When resources dedicated to capacity building are added to this, the proportion of the budget allocated to non-transfer costs amounted to 17.2 percent for the year (WB, 2010).

3.1.2 Components of the PSNP

PSNP has two components: these are the labour intensive Public Works and the direct support.

Public works are labour-intensive community-based sub-projects designed to address

underlying causes of chronic food insecurity through the provision of employment for chronically food insecure people who have “able-bodied” labour. A large range of public works can be undertaken including:

Area closures/wood lots, physical conservation measures, e.g. hill side terracing, gully control community roads, market yards and storage, community water projects such as stream diversion, spring development, shallow wells, small dams and ponds, water ponds, fodder seed collection, multi-purpose nurseries, repairing or building classrooms and health facilities and conducting literacy classes among PSNP households.

Direct support program is the provision of direct unconditional transfers of cash or food to vulnerable households with no able-bodied members who can participate in public works projects. Households without ability to supply labour for public works receive unconditional transfers in a direct support way and household in this category do not work in return for their transfers. These households may be composed of: - People who are too young to qualify for Public Works, i.e. less than 16 years of age, people who are too old to qualify for Public Works; more than 60 years of age; sick, physically or mentally challenged people unable to undertake even light work; and people who are temporarily unable to work who would normally do so (includes women who are more than 4 months pregnant; lactating mothers in the first ten months after birth; and people who are sick) (PIM, 2010).

3.1.3 PSNP Principles in Ethiopia

To ensure that the PSNP is effective in achieving its objectives, it needs to be implemented in a certain way. According to PIM (2010), the following principles are to be applied at all times:

- a. **Fair and transparent client selection.** Clients are selected through community-based targeting, with an effective appeal mechanism to address inclusion or exclusion errors.
- b. **Timely, predictable and appropriate transfers.** To create an effective safety net, clients must be sure that they can depend on the PSNP at all times. Transfers can be considered predictable if PSNP clients have timely knowledge of their eligibility for the program, and they know what type of transfer they will receive, how much of this transfer they will receive

and when they will receive it.

c. **Primacy of transfers.** Transfers should not be delayed for any reasons, including those related to public works implementation.

d. **Productive safety net.** The productive element comes from infrastructure and improved natural resources base created through PSNP Public Works and from the multiplier effects of cash transfers on the local economy.

e. **Integrated into local systems.** PSNP plans are integrated into wider development plans at woreda, zone, region and federal levels.

f. **Scalable safety net.** The PSNP is scaled up when needed in the event of shocks to ensure assistance is available to those households who need it most in PSNP woredas, to prevent them from becoming more food insecure.

g. **Cash first principle.** When it is possible, cash should be the primary form of transfer. This assists with the stimulation of markets since people spend their cash in local markets and the move away from food aid.

h. **Gender Equity.** The PSNP is designed to respond to the unique needs, interests and capabilities of men and women to ensure that they benefit equally from the Program. This is done by promoting the participation of both men and women in PSNP decision-making structures and responding to women's responsibility for both productive and reproductive work and the differential access of female-headed households to resources.

Table 3.1 Number of targeted woredas of PSNP and number of beneficiaries 2005-2011

EFY year	No. of woredas	% increase	Total	
			beneficiaries	% change
2005	192	-	4,518,090	-
2006	234	22%	7,182,072	59%
2007	244	4%	7,192,372	0%
2008	282	16%	7,355,043	2%
2009	290	3%	7,574,480	3%
2010	300	3%	7,821,003	3%
2011	301	0.3%	7,413,832	-5% (plan)
Total	1,843	-	49,056,892	-

Source: - Food security coordination directorate, November, 2010

The numbers of beneficiaries are increasing from year to year since the commencement of the program. Except the Somaliya regional state, for the 2003 EFY, the number of beneficiaries richen about 7.4 million; the Somaliya regional state is requesting for 17 additional woredas and for thousand number of beneficiaries to be enrolled in the PSNP plan which is not incorporated in the table above due to the delay of the request. The Government of Ethiopia has declared that, within the coming five years all participants of the productive safety net will graduate from the program. As the number of beneficiaries is increasing from time, to time reaching this conclusion requires strong investigation for the program to hit the planned objective.

Table 3.2 2009 PSNP Beneficiaries and 2011 planned beneficiaries by Regions

Name of Regions	No. of woredas	Total No. of beneficiaries (2009)	Total No. of beneficiaries (Plan for the year 2011)
Afar	32	472,229	472,229
Amhara	64	2,519,829	2,308,450
Dire Dawa	1	52,614	52,614
Harari	1	16,136	16,136
Oromiya	76	1,438,134	1,303,313
Somaliya	6	6162,671	409,771
SNNP	79	1,459,160	1,419,553
Tigray	31	1,453,707	1,431,766
Total	290	7,574,480	7,413,832

Source: DRMFSS, Nov, 2010

3.2 Performance and Challenges of Productive Safety Net Program in

Ethiopia

Ethiopian PSNP is designed not only to solve the short term food insecurity problem of the household but also to lay a foundation for the achievement of other food security programs. The program stimulated market and encouraged local food production. The program also has an ambition to move from pure relief type to assistance that simultaneously promote productive investment and encouraged women participations were the strength of the program as noted by Workneh (2008). Overall assessments of the PSNP suggest the program is providing its core protective benefit of smoothing household consumption. The PSNP has had a measurable and positive impact on household assets and investments (WB, 2010).

The constraints of the program were undertaking of public works during peak agricultural seasons, erratic transfer, lack of effective appeal process, determination of the direct support to beneficiaries by quota and lack of accountability and transparency in the implementation of the program (Workneh, 2008). The World Bank (2010) asserted that the Government's capacity to accomplish large-scale implementation was also in question; systems for cash distribution and overseeing productive public works were sorely lacking. Amdissa (2006)

identified the challenge in targeting for effective implementation of the program. He also found out that the cash transfer did not consider regional differences. Price disparities among the regions were another problem of the program. Other challenges mentioned by Amdissa (2006), include difficulty of program and institutional linkage i.e. between PSNP and OFSP which are government and non-government programs, which hinder the graduation of the beneficiaries from the program.

3.3 Graduation

Many scholars define the concept of graduation differently. In view of the fact that a common definition has not been agreed upon, the study has mostly adopted the definition as developed by DRMFSS (2010), which was defined by the implementing organ.

“A household has graduated when, in the absence of receiving PSNP transfers, it can meet its food needs for all 12 months and is able to withstand modest shocks.” This state is described as being ‘food sufficient’ (PIM, 2010).

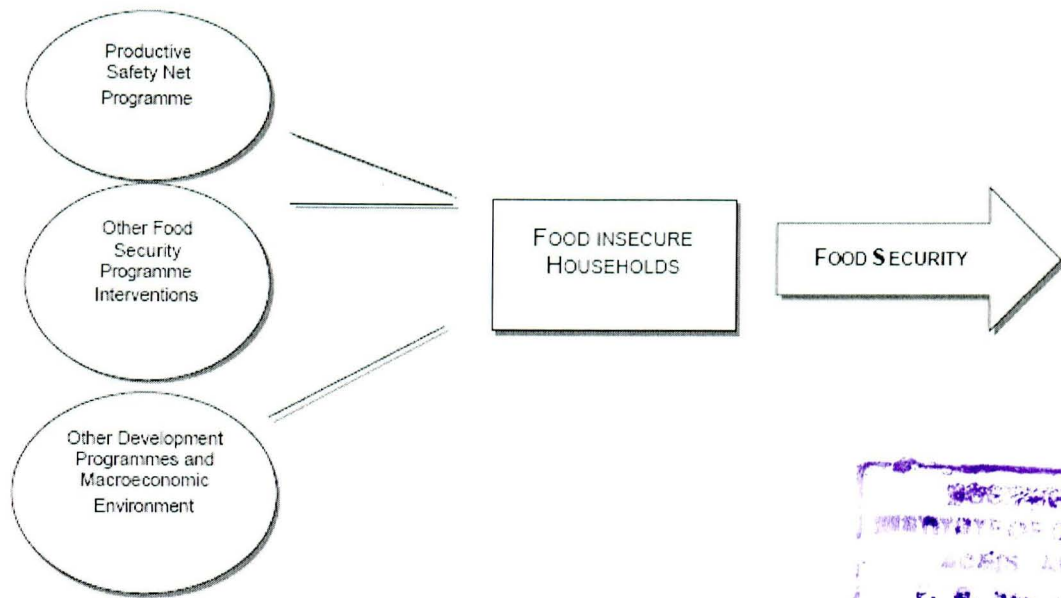
Even though there is some similarity in defining the concept, the discrepancy in meaning makes it difficult to practical implement in real world. Several evaluations of PSNP implementation to date have noted the challenges to effective planning posed by inconsistent targeting and graduation criteria (Sharp et al., 2006; Slater et al., 2006; Devereux, 2006; Trocare et al., 2006). The inconsistency or lack of clarity with which the term “graduation” has been applied to various food security programs in Ethiopia has also made it difficult to effectively plan, target and implement interventions aimed at promoting household and community resiliency.

Generally, most of the scholars agree that the term ‘graduation’ describes the movement of a household out of the PSNP. This occurs when a household has improved its food security status to a level that shifts it from being classified as chronically food insecure to **food sufficient**, and thus is no longer eligible for the PSNP.

The Government of Ethiopia had initiated the new program to gradually shift away from a system dominated by emergency humanitarian aid to productive safety net system resources via multi-year framework. The ultimate goal of the PSNP is increasing household resilience and reducing vulnerability, thereby breaking the cycle of dependence on food aid through the process of graduation. Graduation seems to be extremely difficult to define and implement at an operational level. The concept is implicitly linear, it suggests a steady progression up an income scale but livelihoods in rural area of Ethiopia are characterized by uncertainty. Farming communities face erratic weather and other threats to crop and livestock production. Even if a household is assessed as having passed an income or asset threshold at a point in time (say, after three years of receiving cash transfers or fertilizer and seed packs), it is impossible to predict whether the household is about to suffer a major shock (e.g. a drought or disease outbreak) that will decimate its harvest or herd, leaving the household acutely vulnerable to hunger and destitution.

Graduation from the PSNP is a long term process that will not be possible if only PSNP resources are available. It requires that the same households receive interventions from Other Food Security Programme (OFSP) consisting of household packages and credit. Other development programmes also contribute to this process (GGN, 2010). The relationship between PSNP, OFSP and other development interventions is shown in the Fig.2.4 below.

Fig. 3.1: Linkages between PSNP and other food security programs



Source: GGN, Productive Safety Net Graduation Guide Note 2007

Studies done by Gilligan et al (2008) suggested that poor households may not be able to graduate easily unless they are able not just to protect their assets from depletion through the PSNP but to increase them through involvement in productive activities through packages and credit.

There has been limited progress towards graduation to date. Between 2007–2009, around 280,000 individuals graduated from the PSNP. Although this is perhaps not insignificant, given the adverse events of 2008, it falls well short of the national goal. This limited progress is likely the result of the general reliance of the Government on single household loans combined with the complexities associated with moving very poor households out of food insecurity in a sustainable way (Gilligan et al 2008).

3.4 Analytical Framework

According to Benson and Twigg (2007), sustainable livelihoods approach is essentially a way of organizing data and analysis, or a ‘lens’ through which to view development interventions. The livelihoods framework is a tool to improve our understanding of livelihoods, particularly the livelihoods of the poor. It presents the main factors that affect people’s livelihoods, and typical relationships between these. It can be used in both planning

new development activities and assessing the contribution to livelihood sustainability made by existing activities. It helps us to examine different ideas about well-being and different levels of vulnerability and resilience. Livelihood framework introduces the household triangle of assets, capabilities and activities. Household members use their capabilities and their assets to carryout activities through which they gain their livelihood.

A livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets (including both material and social resources) and activities required for a means of living. A livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stresses and shocks and maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets both now and in the future, while not undermining the natural resource base (Chambers and Conway, 1992). They also noted that the focus on livelihoods resulted in an awareness of the different abilities of households to cope with stressors, which undermine their ability to access food. While some households were observed to be severely affected during short-term setbacks and fluctuating levels of food security, others seemed to cope and recover.

The vulnerability context: focuses on how changes in the external environment affect individual households and the people within them. It deepens understanding of the concepts of differentiation, relative vulnerability and resilience. It refers to the impact of changes that take place overtime and shows the variety of ways that households try to adapt to their vulnerability context. It is important to have an in-depth understanding of the different elements that make up the vulnerability context to identify interventions that will have a lasting, positive effect on household livelihood security.

Livelihood opportunities can be enhanced or limited by factors in the external environment. These factors determine the vulnerability context in which households have to operate. The external environment helps to examine how the livelihood options of a household are enhanced or restricted by factors in the external environment. It is necessary to continually monitor the changing external environment to be able to understand the pressures and opportunities that inform household livelihood strategies. When planning with people to help strengthen their livelihood security, they need to become aware of the links between their local situation and their wider environment.

The framework is centered on people. It does not work in a linear manner and does not try to present a model of reality. Its aim is to help stakeholders with different perspectives to

engage in structured and coherent debate about the many factors that affect livelihoods, their relative importance and the way in which they interact. This, in turn, should help in the identification of appropriate entry points for support of livelihoods.

Interventions or transformational structures (government policies) affect the vulnerability of the people and, in turn, the coping strategies they adopt, which affects the livelihood assets. Activities to prevent decline in household livelihood security, particularly in periods of stress (e.g., early warning systems, cash/food for work, providing seeds and tools, hazard mitigation). Institutions are social processes that mediate relationship between livelihood assets and livelihood strategies. These institutions are societal norms and beliefs and the power relations and modes of social status prevalent in a community.

Kollmair and Juli (2002), defined livelihood assets/capitals as follows:

Human capital is a very wide used term with various meanings. However, in the context of the SLF it is defined as follows: "Human capital represents the **skills, knowledge, ability to labour and good health** that together enable people to pursue different livelihood strategies and achieve their livelihood objectives" (DFID, 2000).

Social capital in the context of the SLA it is taken to mean the social resources upon which people draw in seeking for their livelihood outcomes, such as **networks and connectedness**, that increase people's trust and ability to cooperate or **membership in more formalized groups** and their systems of rules, norms and sanctions.

Natural capital is the term used for the **natural resource stocks** from which **resource flows and services** (such as land, water, forests, air quality, erosion protection, biodiversity degree and rate of change, etc.) useful for livelihoods are derived.

Physical capital comprises the **basic infrastructure and producer goods** needed to support livelihoods, such as affordable transport, secure shelter and buildings, adequate water supply and sanitation, clean, affordable energy and access to information.

Financial capital denotes the financial resources that people use to achieve their livelihood objectives and it comprises the important availability of cash or equivalent that enables people to adopt different livelihood strategies.

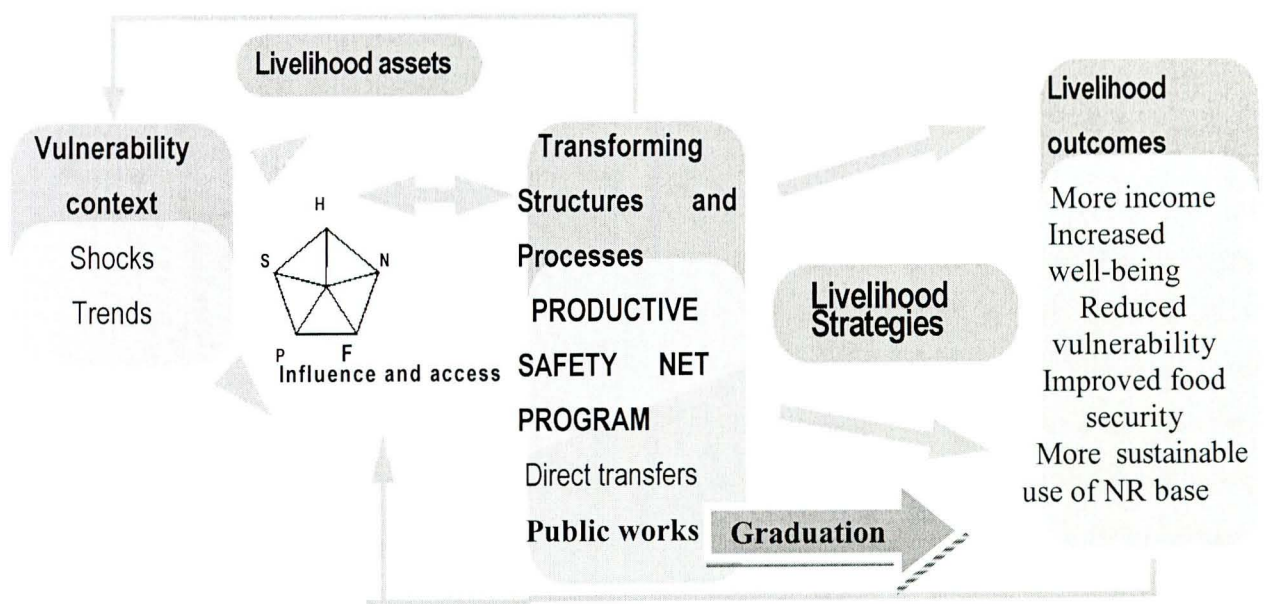
However, the sustainable livelihood frame work is not without limitations. Devereux and Maxwell (2001) noted the weakness of this framework as follows. The first is its intangible aspects such as livelihood security. The larger part of this aspect is about perception while

factors that affect behavior are difficult to measure. The second is that the approach has so far been good at identifying problems, but less effective at finding solutions. Sustainable livelihood framework like food security itself is also sometimes difficult to implement in a development context which is still sectorally organized.

Furthermore, the approach does not tell much about distributional issues irrespective of the implicit concern for the poorest of the poor. Distributional issues are implicit in the focus on the way institutions frame access to resources but are not explicit enough. Livelihood approach totally ignores important policy changes that occurred outside of the agriculture sector. However, it may reveal hidden vulnerabilities. This includes seeing well at, why households' are food insecure, whether it is due to specific asset shortage, institutional restriction or problems accumulated over time (debt, illness, soil exhaustion etc). Therefore, it is preferred to use the tool without ignoring its limitation.

Fig. 3.2 Sustainable livelihoods framework

Key H = Human capital S = Social capital N = Natural capital P=Physical capital F = Financial capital



Source: Modified from DFID 2000

CHAPTER FOUR

MATERIALS AND METHODS

4.1 Description of the Study Area

The geographical location of Adami Tullu Jido Kombolcha Woreda is between $7^{\circ}32'-8^{\circ}04'N$ latitude and $38^{\circ}32'-39^{\circ}04'E$ longitude. The woreda is bounded by Southern Nations Nationalities and people's regions (SNNPR), Dugda-Bora in the north, Arsi zone in the east and Arsi Nagale woreda in the south. The total area of the woreda is about 1,403.3Km² (ARDO, 2010). The total number of the population was 142,861 out of this 71,883 were male and 70,978 were female (CSA, 2007). The population is characterized by high growth, increasing at the rate of 2.58% annually. The average household size is 4-6 with 4.75 and 4.2 for rural and urban areas respectively. The population density is 99 persons per square kilometer. The woreda has a total of 43 rural kebeles and four towns. The capital city of the woreda is Batu (Ziway) and there are other small towns like Adamitulu, Abosa and Jido in the Woreda. . Concerning social facilities there are 36 first cycle elementary (1-4), 38 second cycle (5-8) and three high schools. There are also about 47 health posts and five health stations in the woreda, 43 farmers training center and six animal health posts are found (ATJK Woreda ARD Office, 2011).

4.1.1 Climate

The woreda is located in the Great Rift Valley east African zone. The climate of the woreda is characterized by hot (arid) climatic condition due its location. The woreda has two agro-climatic zones i.e, semi-humid and kola/lowland (Woreda ARD office). 90% of the total area of the woreda is kola and the rest 10% of the area is woina-dega climatic condition. The temperature range of the district ranges 14°C-29°C with a minimum and maximum. The woreda receives annual rainfall of 600-750mm during highest and lowest rainy season respectively. All of the woreda land mass is between 1500-2300masl except the area around the mount Aluto. Bulbula and Hora Kelo are the main rivers in the woreda. The woreda shares significant part of the main rift valley lakes of Ziway, Abjata, and Langanu (ATJK Woreda ARD Office, 2011).

4.1.2 Livelihood Activities

The main livelihood activity of the community is agriculture which encompasses crop production and animal husbandry. Daily laboring and petty trade are also among the means of getting income for small proportion of the woreda population. Charcoal preparation is also another alternative means of income for little proportion of population. Even though, the number of animal population is highly reduced currently the rural community in the woreda sell their livestock to overcome food shortage during bad times (ATJK ARD 2011).

4.1.3 Land Holding and Land Use Patterns

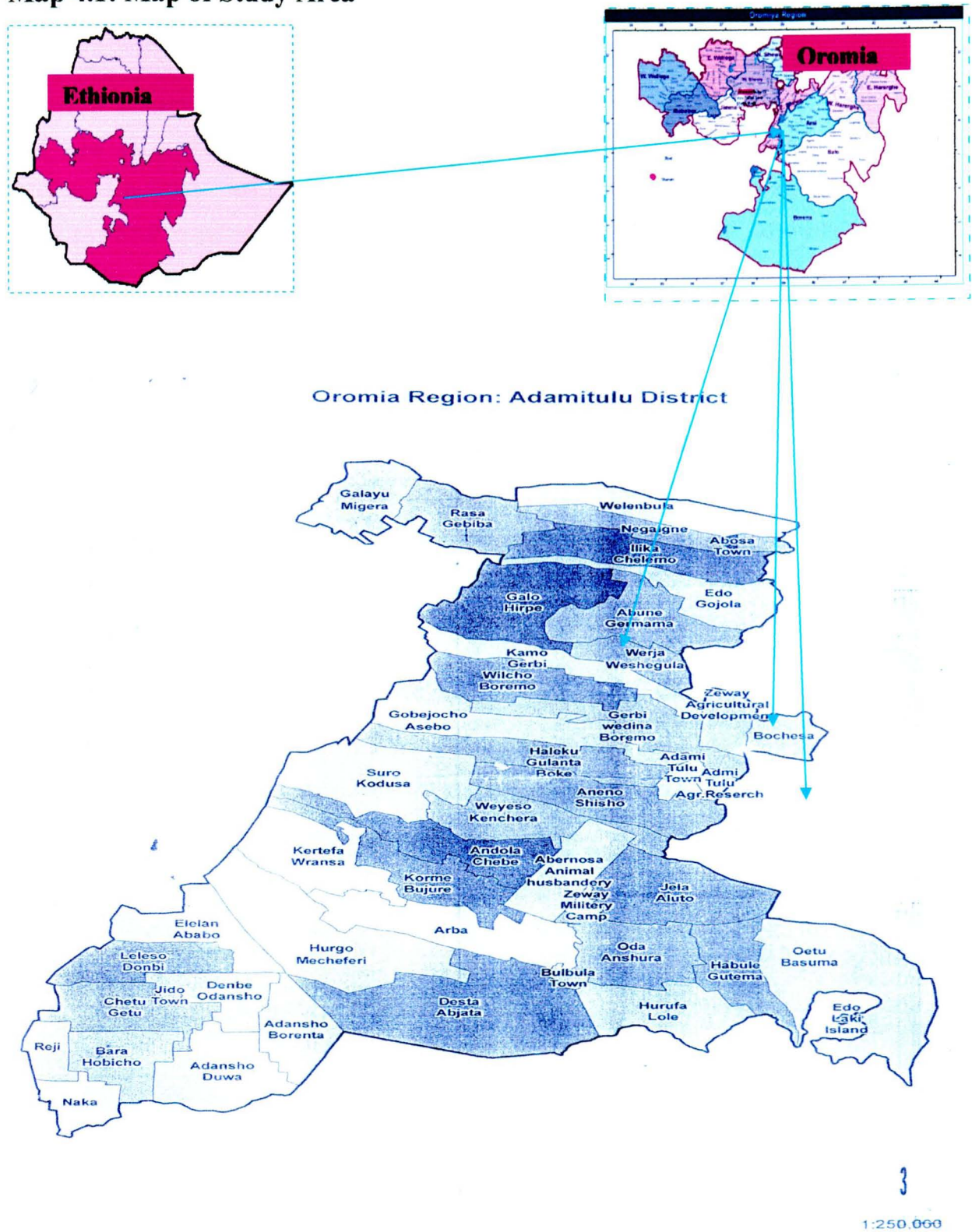
The average size of land holding ranges from 0.75-3hectares for the farming communities. There are landless people who are about 46% of the households in the woreda. While 22% of the land holders cultivate less than one hectare of land, and 27% of farmers cultivate 1-2 hectares of land (Woreda ARD Office, 2011).

Table 4.1 Land use pattern and Livestock population of the woreda

Land use	Hectares	Type of Livestock	Total Number
Cultivated land	62,828.00	Ox	40,607
Grazing land	24,940.00	Cow	77,659
Water bodies	22,100.00	Heifers	42,394
Natural forest	12,440.00	Bull	31,388
Settlement	6,628.00	Goat	116,585
Hilly land	4,125.00	Sheep	25,659
Others	3,490.66	Donkey	23,790
Private investment	2,600.00	Horse	1,445
Agricultural Research Center	1,193.00	Mule Poultry	428 13,059
Total	140,324.66	Total	373,014

Source: ATJK Woreda ARD office, Feb. 2011

Map 4.1: Map of Study Area



Source: ATJK ARD Office, 2011

4.2 Research Design and Research Approach

Quantitative and qualitative way of research was adopted for the study. Research done using one of the strategies can be crosschecked by other. The research were asking peoples opinion and view about the program therefore majorly the research approach utilized were the qualitative research. All clients of the PSNP, non-beneficiaries, and graduated households from the PSNP in the Bochessa, Warja Washgula and Dodicha kebeles of Adami Tullu Jido Kombolcha Woreda, Woreda administration office, Office of Agriculture and Rural Development, Land Administration and Environmental Protection Office, kebele level development office, kebele administration office and were also considered during the study.

4.3 Sampling Procedure Sampling Techniques and Sample Size

Adami Tullu Jido Kombolcha Woreda was purposively selected for this study. Because, it is drought prone and food insecure Woreda enrolled in to the PSNP since the initiation of the program. The researcher also has prior knowledge of the area due to the summer internship program; and has conducted the effectiveness of the graduation program in the Woreda and which provide insight on PSNP and the graduation program. This exposure led to research problem identification to further investigate the impact of PSNP on household food security in general and the graduation process in particular. Furthermore, from the all PSNP client of Oromia Regional State Woredas, Adami Tullu Jido Kombolcha Woreda has relatively large number of graduated households from the PSNP. This has made the Woreda eligible for the study in addition to its accessibility and proximity to Addis Ababa.

Probability and non-probability techniques of sampling were adopted for the research activity. The Woreda consists of 43 kebeles; of which 22 are benefiting from the productive safety net program. Therefore, for the purpose of the study among 22 kebeles three of them were selected purposively. The intention to select purposively is by considering the kebeles that have large number of participants of the PSNP and big number of graduates of the program. All the 22 beneficiaries of the PSNP kebeles were in the kola agro-ecological zone due the criteria of the program that dichotomizes the drought prone places for the intervention. The target populations were categorized with three strata's, the beneficiaries of

productive safety net program, non-beneficiaries of PSNP and those clients that had graduated from the program in the year 2008 and 2009.

The households from the client and graduated categories were selected with the probability sampling specifically with systematic sampling. Systematic sampling is the most practical way of sampling to select every n^{th} item on a list. Systematic sampling has certain plus points. It can be taken as an improvement over a simple random sample in as much as the systematic sample is spread more evenly over the entire population. It is an easier and less costly method of sampling and can be conveniently used even in case of large populations. From the three sampled kebeles non-client of the PSNP exist only in one kebele (Dodicha). Due to few numbers of non-participants in one kebele, the selections of non-participants of the program were done by purposive sampling.

For focus group discussion and key informant interviews people were selected purposively based upon the information required. Households for the survey from client, non-client and graduated categories were selected by the systematic sampling procedure. Therefore, the number of beneficiaries' households in 2009 was **9,905** of which **8,558** were public work participants and **1,347** of them were directly supported and the total number of graduated households were **382**. One hundred five households from three strata (participant, non-participant and graduates of the PSNP) were selected. Out of the 105 sample 43 of them were from the participant of the PSNP, non-beneficiaries 32 and 30 of them was households that were graduated from the program.

Table 4.2 Number of samples drawn from the study kebele according to categories of households

Categories of Household		Name of sampled kebele			Total
		Dodicha	W/Washgula	Bochessa	
Beneficiaries' Households	Male	5	7	9	21
	PW Female	3	5	2	10
	Total	8	12	11	31
	Male	1	1	2	4
	DS Female	1	4	3	8
	Total	2	5	5	12
	Male	6	8	11	25
	Total Female	4	9	5	18
	Total	10	17	16	43
	Graduated HHs	Male	9	7	9
Female		1	3	1	5
Total		10	10	10	30
Non-Beneficiaries' HHs	Male	32	-	-	32
	Female	-	-	-	-
	Total	32	-	-	32
Total Sampled HHs	Male	37	15	20	72
	Female	5	12	6	33
	Total	42	37	26	105

Source: Own computation based on the data from ATJK ARD Office, Feb, 2011

4.4 Source of Data and Method of Data Collection

The researcher utilized both primary and secondary data from different sources. The primary data was collected through various technique of data collection method such as field observation, household survey, focus group discussion and key informants interviews. Secondary source of information was reviewed to supplement the primary sources of information. Such information were obtained from review of literature, books, journal, magazine, web sites, different Government Organization reports and documents, NGOs

reports and other relevant resources to explain the general information related to food security issues in general and productive safety net program in particularly.

4.4.1 Techniques of Primary Data Collection

A) Field observation

Observation of the study Woreda was carried out before and during the study period. This has provided a chance to observe bio-physical characteristics of the area, topography of the area, demographic characteristics of the area, socio-cultural and livelihood activities of the communities. Identify type and quality of their house; identify some type and quality of public works and the situation of natural resources in general forest in particularly. And also information regarding peoples attitude, belief, marketing mechanism, infrastructural activities such as access to main roads, basic social services such as human health posts, veterinary posts, schools, sources of water supply were obtained from personnel observation and by talking informally with people surrounding. Qualitative description was employed in the study to show the urban agriculture situation of the community in the study area.

B) Household survey

The respondents were asked both qualitative and quantitative information's. The survey mainly relies on qualitative information by asking people's perception, opinion and view on the program. To generate qualitative information at household level, household survey was undertaken by developing questionnaires. To pursue the objective of this study, the structured questionnaires was prepared in English and translated into regional language of the study area i.e. *Afan Oromo*. To conduct household survey, six ten high school graduate students were selected from the study area as enumerators and one day orientation was given on the procedures to follow while conducting interview with respondents. The purpose of selecting enumerators from the study site were, they know the language of the study area, culture of the area and above all, they know the characteristics of the respondents well. This helps to ensure the quality of data being collected. Moreover the continuous supervision of the researcher was undertaken during the data collection period. Prior to conducting the interview, the questionnaires were pre-tested on randomly selected households in the study sites.

C) Focus group discussion

Focus group discussions were conducted in stratified forms to ensure the chance of being selected of all economic stratum of people's in the study area and in each study kebele two focus group discussions were held with seven to eleven participants. One focus group was client of the PSNP, one focus group was non-client of the program and one focus group was with the graduated households. To initiate their discussion, focus group discussion checklist was prepared. The participants involved were from different adult age groups and from different economic strata. In addition women also participated in the discussion. Each group included well off households, poor households; destitute households from both sexes, and elderly people were also involved.

D) Key informant Interview

To have deep understanding of impact of PSNP on household food security, in-depth interviews were held with key informants. Key informants were selected on the basis of their social position and the roles they have in the community. These were from Woreda Agricultural and Rural Development Office Leader, Development Agent, Kebele Administrator, Community Elders, and Religious Leaders in the study area. The information obtained was used to strengthen the findings obtained through household survey.

4.5 Method of Data Analysis and Interpretation

Qualitative and quantitative data analysis techniques were employed in analyzing the resultant data. Data analysis and presentation was accomplished in such a way that they allowed me to properly address the research questions posed in connection with the impact of productive safety net program on household food security, i.e. the central issues of the study, from various dimensions. Both techniques were used in triangulation because research done using one strategy can be crosschecked by other. The collected data was analyzed using Microsoft Office Excel. The data collected through quantitative research was analyzed using descriptive statistics.

4.6 Data Presentation

The findings of the analyzed data were described and presented in a tabular, graph and chart format. Qualitative data measures behaviour which is not computable by arithmetic relations and represented by pictures, words, or images. Therefore, it was presented by triangulation of different data from various sources to get reality and explained in words.

CHAPTER FIVE

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

5.1. Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

5.1.1. Family Size of the Samples of Households

The family size of all households those participated in responding questionnaires in three selected rural kebeles were, male 272, female 313 and total 585. The average family size is 5.57 with a minimum of 1 household member and a maximum of 17 household members. However, only the household heads were included in the sample to give suggestion about the impact of PSNP on household food security in the area.

Table 5.1 Number of surveyed household head and family size with respective kebeles

No	Household Group	Kebele								
		Dodicha			Bochessa			W/Washgula		
		M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
1	Beneficiaries	23	29	42	43	40	83	46	52	98
	HH Heads	6	4	10	11	5	16	8	9	17
	Family	17	25	42	32	35	67	38	43	81
2	Non-Beneficiaries	126	110	236	—	—	—	—	—	—
	HH Heads	32	-	32	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Family	94	110	214	—	—	—	—	—	—
3	Graduated	15	21	36	41	38	79	50	40	90
	HH Heads	9	1	10	9	1	10	7	3	10
	Family	16	20	36	32	37	69	43	37	80

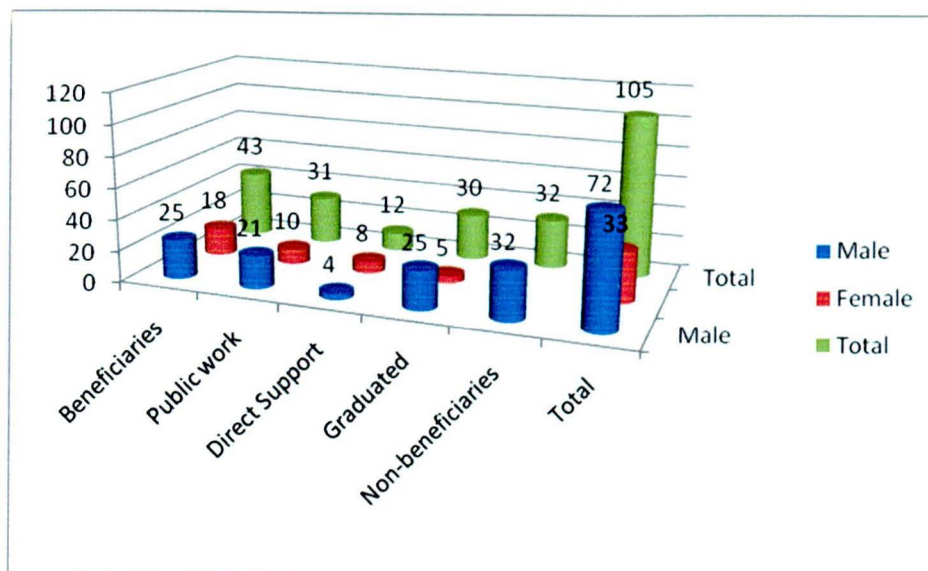
Source: Field Survey, Feb, 2011

5.1.2 Sex Composition of Respondents

According to the results on the table 4.1 below, the sex compositions of respondents were 68.57 percent male and 31.43 percent female. The result shows that the share of number of male respondents was higher as compared to female respondents.



Fig. 5.1 Respondents' sex according to their categories



Source: Field survey Feb, 2011

5.1.3 Educational Level of Respondents

Table 5.2 below depicts that 42.86 are percent illiterate and, 18.00 percent can read and write, 22.86 percent and 16.19 percent of respondent attained primary, secondary and higher education, respectively. The majority of respondents were found illiterate and they cannot read and write. Education not only endows one with the power to read and hence be informed, but it also allows one to communicate. Education must go beyond the level of reading and writing to that of transfer of knowledge. Without basic education, hopes for future prosperity are dim. Therefore, basic approach to food security and poverty eradication requires much to be done on human development.

Table 5.2: Educational level of respondents

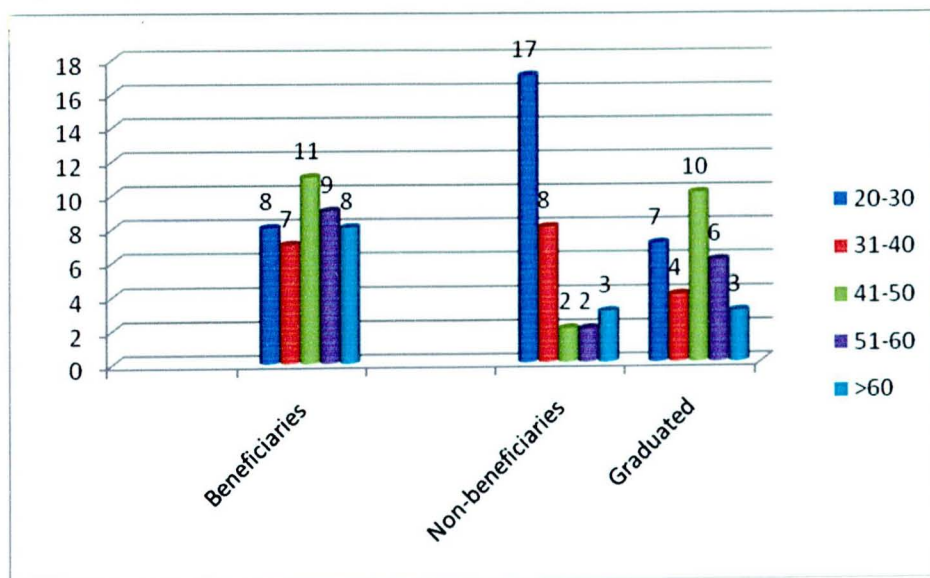
No	Level of education	Frequency	Percentage
1	Illiterate	45	42.86
2	Read and write	19	18.00
3	Primary education	24	22.86
4	Secondary education	17	16.19
Total		105	100

Source: Field survey Feb, 2011

5.1.4 Age of Respondents

The study was conducted on farming community of beneficiaries, non-beneficiaries and graduates of the PSNP categories. Therefore, people from different age group were interviewed during the survey. Of all respondents 30.48 percent (17) were between ages of 20-30, 18.1 percent (19) were between ages of 31-40, 21.9 percent (23) were between ages of 41-50, 16.19 percent (17) were between the age of 51-60 and 13.33 percent (14) were above the ages of 60. Majority of the young age group (20-30) were dominated with the non-beneficiaries of the PSNP comprising 53% (17) of this age category. This shows that the young and energetic people are not dependent on the PSNP which may indicate limited number of the future generation will rely on the program in the woreda under study.

Fig 5.2 Ages of Respondents



Source: Field survey Feb, 2011

5.2 The Role of PSNP in Filling the Food Gap of the Household

Today, the world is producing enough food to feed the whole population, but food shortage still occur and millions live in chronic food insecurity. As clearly stated in the governments' PIM the main objective of the PSNP was smoothing food consumption in chronically food insecure smallholder households, by transferring food or cash to buy food during the 'hunger gap' months. The program was also meant to encourage households to engage in production

and investment activities and enhance their purchasing power. In terms of *smoothing food consumption*, a survey of 43 households in three PSNP client kebeles of ATJK woreda found that all households received cash from the PSNP, 83.72% of the households bought staple food item for consumption with more than 73% of the money received from the program, while 9.3% of them spent 47% of the money on food item and greater than 53% of the money invested on agricultural activities to build assets. Therefore the study identified that households food consumption was stimulated due to the intervention of the program. Study conducted by (Devereux *et al.*, 2006) noted that three-quarters of PSNP households reported consuming more food, or better quality food, since the program started.

Table 5.3 Adami Tulu Jido Kombolcha beneficiary's households of the PSNP 2005-2011

No.	Year	No. of PAs	Public work			Direct Support			Total		
			Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1	2005	17	5696	2715	8411	219	526	745	5915	3241	9156
2	2006	17	5696	2715	8411	219	526	745	5915	3241	9156
3	2007	17	5636	2877	8513	294	509	803	5930	3386	9316
4	2008	22	6269	3059	9358	347	739	1068	6616	3798	10414
5	2009	22	6269	3059	9358	347	739	1068	6616	3798	10414
6	2010	22	5885	2673	8558	435	912	1347	6320	3585	9905
7	2011	22	5885	2673	8558	435	912	1347	6320	3585	9905

Source: ATJK woreda ARD office, Feb. 2011

Regarding the selection criteria of household the result in the table 5.4 demonstrates that of all respondents' participants 34.88% of them were selected due to the fact that they have no enough food to eat. Some participants 6.77% replied that they are favored because the head of household were women and the committee believed that they face food shortage. About 11.63% were distinguished as participants due to inability to produce enough food. The others 9.3% were selected because of small yard of land and lack of labour to work on the field. The rest 6.77% and 2.33% were poor and with low assets respectively and gets chance to participate in the program. It is also true that asset holdings of PSNP participants were

lower initially, which is an indicator that the program was well targeted (Devereux *et al.*, 2006). The rest that gets equal vote of 4.65 were no selection in the kebele everyone in the village received something, owning no livestock, or only a few livestock, disability or mentally challenged and those included after complained about being excluded.

Table 5.4 Reason of household selection response for the PSNP

No	Reasons of selection	Answer to the questions	
		Number of HHs	Percentage
1	Our household is poor	3	6.77
2	We can't get enough food to eat	15	34.88
3	We have no labor	4	9.3
4	We have a small landholding	4	9.3
5	We don't produce enough food	5	11.63
6	The household head is female	3	6.77
7	Household head is old	1	2.33
8	There was no selection – everyone in the village received something	2	4.65
9	We own no livestock, or only a few livestock	2	4.65
10	Members of our household are disabled or mentally challenged	2	4.65
11	We were included only after we complained about being excluded	2	4.65
Total		43	100

Source: Field survey, Feb. 2011

The surveyed non-beneficiaries also argue with the idea of participants that they were selected due to lack of enough to eat. From 32 respondents of non-participant of the program 84.375% of them agree with the idea that participants were selected based on food gap. The rest 9.375% and 6.25% of them expressed the tendency of nepotism and corruption respectively. This show that, the selections of beneficiaries for the PSNP were fair and based on the objective of the program.

5.2.1 Household Preference for the Type of Transfer

Respondents were asked about their preferences for type of transfer through the PSNP. The majority of households stated that they prefer cash only 17 (56.67%), followed by half food, half cash 8 (26.67%), and while 5 (16.67%) said they would prefer food only. Reasons for preferring cash was to be able to buy different types of food grains; money can solve various problems and food aid requires carrying and taking to home, which is tiresome. Reasons for preferring half food, half cash was to use the food for consumption and the cash to purchase various domestic items as well as to purchase livestock, and respondents prefer the food during summer as food grains become expensive, and the money to buy food grains during 'meher' season. Reasons for preferring food we prefer food since the immediate problem of our household is food shortage, if food is given to us we don't sell it or waste it and food is better stored than money. Social protection should be objectives-driven, not instrument-driven, and it should be beneficiary-driven, not donor-driven. Therefore, it is better to deliver the transfer based on the preference of the households.

5.2.2 Use of Cash Transfer

In ATJK Woreda, the transfers were totally cash for all clients of the program. The intention behind paying in cash is that due to believe that there is enough food within the woreda but people lack purchasing power. The local leaders also say cash that is earned from this program helps the people to purchase food according to their preference and invest the rest of money on other development activities. Out of all respondents 83.72% of them bought staple food and groceries (salt, sugar, coffee, soap, kerosene, etc.) with more than 73% of cash earned from the program. About 27% of the money was utilized for miscellaneous expenses like social obligation, health cost, debt repayment etc with varying percentage. About 4.65% (2) of them spend more than 65% of the cash for unusual health expense and the rest to buy food. 9.3% (4) of spend less money (47%) on purchase of food item and the rest (53%) for investment like purchase of agricultural input and purchasing of livestock.

Majority of the respondents expressed the benefits:

By saying 'It helps us buy food and clothes. We can still send our children to school and we can easily visit health center when our family member is sick, we easily meet our social obligations,' says. It really helps us at a time when we have no other income.

5.2.3 Adequacy and Timely of the Transfer

Respondents were asked whether the amount of transfer is enough or not, 74.42% of the respondents believe that the transfer was not adequate and cannot protect their livelihood. While, the rest 18.60% of the respondents agree that the transfer was enough for daily consumption, but not for further asset accumulation. Only 6.98% of the respondents stated that the transfer helped them to fill the food shortage and purchase additional assets like livestock's. Similarly, majority of the respondents believe that the transfer was erratic and unpredictable. On the other hand, the challenges related to the transfer, 93.33% agree that the erratic and irregularity of the transfer is a big issue, but the rest 6.67% relate the irregularity of the payment to the work load for officials to effect the payment on time. The woreda officials also relate the irregularity of the payment delays in the release of the budget from the regional state. But whatever the cause it might be, most of the time the payment was not delivered to the beneficiaries on time. This way of transfer may force households to sale their productive asset and lead to impoverishments.

5.2.4 Self Assessment of the PSNP Client's Households

Households during the study were asked to assess themselves as "better off", "the same" or "worse off" than before the entry of the program, and in comparison to an "average household" in the same community. The study revealed that 72.09% of the households stated better off, 20.93% of them the same and 6.68% of the households expressed worse off state of their life. Therefore, the program helped majority of the client to improve their life, some of them to continue without deterioration, little household's states become worsen. In general Safety Net Program was launched to serve households as a consumption smoothing function, allowing households to meet a critical food gap and reduce or eliminate their transitory food insecurity. In line with this aim the research result confirmed that the program benefited the beneficiaries to stimulate their consumption and protected them from hunger.

5.3 The Role of PSNP in Asset Protection and Asset Building

5.3.1 Asset Protection at Household Level

The government PIM states that the core strategy of the PSNP is to guarantee food consumption and protecting assets through the provision of transfers to chronically food insecure people. To achieve this objective, transfers must be appropriate, timely and

predictable. If implemented in this manner, PSNP clients are able to anticipate their own household cash and food flow, and plan more effectively for food consumption and asset protection. But if the transfers are not timely and predictable, PSNP clients are less well able to plan their food consumption and asset protection. In particular when transfers arrive late, or it is unclear whether they will arrive at all or how much will arrive, then the food consumption and asset protection objectives of PSNP will be compromised. When these objectives are compromised, there is little chance of households graduating from the PSNP. Government is fearing that free handouts creates dependency and has always resisted free transfer, in favour of transfer making people participate on public works because the massive infrastructure deficits in rural Ethiopia are blamed for contributing to food insecurity, and public works mobilizes a massive supply of unskilled labour that can be conscripted at low cost into building or maintaining rural roads and other physical infrastructure. In line with this, the study found that majority of the respondents argues that the program has protected their asset depletion during food shortage.

They said “really, the money that we get from the program helped us during food shortage to buy food item and not to sell our assets like livestock and rent out farm land”.

Accordingly, 65.12% of PSNP households reported being effectively protected against ‘distress sales’ of assets for essential purchases of which 71.43% of them were male house headed, while 25.58% even increased their asset ownership over the year and bought addition assets like shoats, cattle, hen, bicycle etc with by saving the money that was paid for them from the program; of this 20.57% of them were female house headed beneficiaries. However, 9.30% of PSNP client households of which 75% of them were illiterate female house headed client were forced to sell some of their assets, draw down their limited savings, or even rent out farmland, to survive the food shortage season. So the aim of PSNP to prevent further impoverishment of the vulnerable farming families was only partially achieved, because the transfers were not enough and delivery was erratic.

Many households’ respondents expressed their tendency towards sending their child to school as their top priority rather than sending them elsewhere to work and generate income. Therefore, the program not only has short term benefit of availing food for consumption but

also helped to develop the capacity of children through basic education.

5.3.2 Asset Building at Community Level

Government of Ethiopia's plan to shift from emergency food-aid to safety-nets was an attempt to find more durable solutions and prevent households falling from transitory to chronic food insecurity through the sale of productive assets. The public work is the largest component of the PSNP that is intended to create community assets by linking the delivery of transfers to intensive work that are productivity enhancing, in order to promote sustainable developmental outcomes. The public work was intended to enable households to smooth consumption so that they will not need to sell productive assets in order to overcome food shortages; moreover, by reducing seasonal liquidity constraints, it is intended to stimulate investments by injecting money to the economy as well. The public goods serve the good of the entire community, not for the benefit of individual communities, and take place only on community land and not on individuals' land, with the exception of female-headed households with no labour. The aims of Public Works are to improve land productivity; improve road infrastructure, to increase access to markets; to improve access to drinking water and irrigation water; to increase availability of fodder and to improve schooling and health facilities and improve child health care crèches.

Table 5.5 ATJK Public work participant households of the PSNP 2005-2011

No	Beneficiary PAs	Household head			Families			Total beneficiaries		
		Male	Female	total	Male	Female	total	Male	female	total
1	Warja washigula	283	241	524	887	1010	1897	1170	1251	2421
2	Bochessa	313	81	394	411	578	989	724	659	1383
3	Dodicha	87	60	147	187	239	426	274	299	573
	Total	683	382	1065	1485	1827	3312	2168	2209	4377

Source: ATJK woreda ARD office, Feb, 2011

The PIM explained that public works are done for five day by the food insecure household during the month of agricultural slack season not to affect their agricultural activities. In light to this idea 70% the respondents working during summer and peak agricultural work, 20% of

them worked partial during peak work and partial at slack agriculture works and 10% of them stated working only during slack agricultural activities. Most of the respondents argue that some public works like tree planting and physical structures are done during the rainy season, and that overlaps with their agricultural works. This overlapping time of work has negative implication on the people's agriculture work and resultant product output.

The study showed that of all respondents 95.35% of them stated that they are getting good benefits' from the public work, like road, school, FTC, health post and water points. The rest 4.65% of them raised the issue of people are not working with their full energy and it is creating the sense of laziness in the society, (hence the negative effect outweighs its positive benefits). Some also indicated that some of the adult's person remain at the home and send their children to work. Therefore, this public work is injecting people not to work hard and become out of poverty trap. Some of the people in the area have vociferously resisted the continuity of the PSNP. The argument of those people is that the program made people lazy, have low interest to work on their plot and even during good times many people make hope to receive transfer rather than working on their own field. The labour requirements of the PSNP draw labour away from households' own livelihood activities and affect their choice of packages. There is a danger that households become more, not less, dependent on the PSNP because the work requirement reduces their ability to pursue successful alternative livelihood activities.

Table 5.6 community asset built with public work in year 2009/10 and 2010/11 plan of woreda

No	Activity/output	Implemented 2009/10	Plan for 2010/11
1	New road construction	48.1 km	330km
2	Water way construction	24,982.7 m ³	30km
3	water collection trench maintenance		30,000m ³
4	Hand dug well construction	3m ³	30 number
5	Soil Bund construction	375.25 km	720km
6	Soil bund maintenance	247.3 km	250 km
7	Cutt-off drain construction	3,440 m ³	14,910 km
8	Raising seedlings	1.4 million	1.2 million
9	Hill-side terrace with trench” construction	-	25,000 km
10	Check dam construction	38,974.6m ³	25,000 km
11	Stone terrace construction	161.61 km	288 km
12	Stone terrace maintenance		150 km

Source: ATJK ARD office, Feb, 2011

Table 5.6 illustrates that massive soil and water conservation structures were constructed even in one year time and it is planned to build huge amount of structures in the year 2010/11. As evidences from government report on PSNP, nearly 80% the public funds are devoted to soil and water conservation activities. High amount of budget is allocated by the government to this activity, due to the fact that soil erosion in the country is one of the major causes of agricultural yield reduction. But, during the field work of this study, conservation measures were not widely seen on the ground and some of them have quality problem, especially terrace/bund construction. Inadequately designed and constructed physical structures can cause serious soil erosion problem. The government agencies also recognized the problems associated with the public works.

Table 5.7 Others types of public works projects

No	Other types public works projects	Implemented 2010/11	Plan 2011/12
1	FTC construction		6
2	FTC maintenance		
3	Store construction		1
4	DA office and house construction	7	3
5	DA office and house maintenance		2
6	School maintenance		8
7	Additional class construction for schools	3	2
8	Teachers house construction	3	10
9	Teachers house maintenance		12
10	Human health post construction		3
11	Human health post maintenance		3
12	House of health extension workers construction		3
13	Livestock health post construction	2	3

Source: ATJK ARD office, Feb, 2011

The MoARD review of the PSNP Public Works Program in 2006 has identified a number of problems that undermined the effectiveness of previous public works activities in Ethiopia. These constraints and challenges included: 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, low level of technical skills of field staff (MoARD 2006).

Plate 5.1 Poor quality stone terrace constructed at Warja Washgula kebele



Source: Photo by the writer, Feb, 2011

In general the study on public work output revealed that two essential benefits to environment. First, it fills the food gap of starving households and may reduce their necessity to earn their living from unsustainable exploitation of natural resources. Second, food aid/cash resources distributed to needy people in return for their labour can be used for environmental rehabilitation programs or other ‘productive’ public works like the construction of feeder roads. However, the effort to link public work activities with development programs through the exchange of labour for food/cash programs was not as effective in the area under study for some activities like reforestation as expected. Some of the soil and water conservation structures are not sustainable and lack quality. The reason is lack of commitment of quality control by the professional personal, site selection, difficulty of in reforestation in arid climate area and lack close supervision and monitoring of the activities.

Benefits of public works like rural road have improved local communications, reduced travel time, and transportation costs and increased use of few farm technologies like fertilizer and improved seeds. Rural road that were constructed by the public work are giving good service to travel to the nearby towns like Batu and Tullu by horse cart. Some of the respondents mentioned that some public works of high priority for the community were implemented.

Direct support program is the provision of direct unconditional transfers of cash or food to vulnerable households with no able-bodied members who can participate in public works projects. Households without ability to supply labour for public works receive unconditional transfers in a direct support way and household in this category do not work in return for their transfers. These households may be composed of: People who are too young to qualify for Public Works, i.e. less than 16 years of age, people who are too old to qualify for Public Works, greater than 60 years of age, sick, physically or mentally disabled, people who are temporarily unable to work who would normally do so (includes women who are more than 4 months pregnant; lactating mothers in the first ten months after birth; and people who are sick). In the woreda under study in the year 2011 about 1347 peoples of which 435 are male and 912 are female, are benefiting from the PSNP in the direct support system in 2011.

Table 5.8 PSNP Direct support participants of sampled kebeles in the year 2011 (planned)

No	Beneficiary PAs	Household head			Families			Total beneficiaries		
		Male	Female	total	Male	Female	total	Male	female	total
1	Warja washigula	12	43	55	22	18	40	34	61	95
2	Bochessa	14	37	51	21	43	64	35	80	115
3	Dodicha	28	45	73	7	38	45	35	83	118
Total		54	125	179	50	99	149	104	224	328

Source: ATJK Agriculture and rural development office, Feb, 2011

For the purpose of the survey from the direct support beneficiaries eight female and four male households were selected from three kebeles. The survey conducted on study twelve persons getting transfer under the direct support program from three kebeles show that they are filling food shortages benefiting from the program. They mentioned that they have no option to feed themselves, and are benefiting from the program. But the problem is the

transfer is not on time and it is erratic. Sometimes, they suffer from hunger due to delay of delivery. During the group discussion people raised the issue of the preset quotas for the free transfer or direct support program as a problem. Therefore, the actual number of eligible beneficiaries on direct support in any given community should be determined by a local needs assessment.

5.4 Access to Other Food Security Programs

One of the objectives of the OFSP is to increase households' use of credit. Achieving this goal requires actions on both the demand and supply side of the credit market, i.e., households must be willing to borrow and there must be availability of funds that can be borrowed. This study revealed that of 65.12% of respondents PSNP beneficiaries complain lack of credit, while 34.88% of them face difficulties in repaying loans.

A total of 28.125%, 9.3%, and 10% of non-beneficiaries, participants of PSNP and graduated households received a Livelihood Package under the Food Security Program. All of the beneficiaries who received the packages were working on PSNP Public Works; no one from the Direct Support received the packages. This reflects the fact that most households receiving Direct Support are labour constrained and are therefore unable either to participate in Public Works or to take advantage of Livelihood Packages that require working to generate additional income. This also implies that households receiving Direct Support are not likely able to 'graduate' from the PSNP, but will in all probability need external assistance for a long time, possibly for their entire lives.

Table 5.9 households get access to OFSP

No.	Household category	Get access to OFSP		No access to OFSP		Total households	
		Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage	Count	Percentage
1	Non-beneficiaries	9	28.125%	23	71.875%	32	30.48
2	Beneficiaries	4	9.30%	39	90.70%	43	40.95
5	Graduated	3	10%	27	90%	30	28.57
	Total	16	(15.24%)	89	(84.76%)	105	(100)

Source: Field survey Feb, 2011

Results presented in Table 5.9 above depicted that the non- beneficiaries of the PSNP were getting better access to OFSP than the graduated households and beneficiaries of the program. The difference between the three categories of the households is due lack of ability to take risk and asset holding disparity. Majority of the respondents from the three categories agree that they were very rarely visited by the development agents.

5.5 Graduation Assessment

A household that had left the PSNP remained eligible for support from the OFSP. Once they had graduated from the FSP, households would be closely monitored to ensure that they did not deplete their assets. If a household maintained or improved its level of income and assets for one year, it would have graduated from food insecurity. At the national level in 2008, a total of 18,538 households graduated from the PSNP. For the next phase of the Program, the Government has proposed ambitious targets for graduation from food insecurity, of up to graduating 80% of PSNP beneficiaries within the next five years FSCD (2010). In the area under study about 382 households with the family member of 1788 had graduated from the PSNP in the year 2008 and 2009. Of these, 232 households (and 1160 families) were in the year 2008 and 150 households (and 628 families) were in the year 2009. The document of Woreda Agriculture and Rural Development Office shows that 209 household heads with a family member of 724 of candidates were prepared to graduate in October 2009. Due to climatic shock or drought and resultant crop failure the candidates were remained in the program for one extra year without graduation. From this evidence it is very easy to conclude that the households that were proposed to graduate from the program lack resilience and cannot resist a single season crop failure.

Table 5.10 Number of graduated households from the PSNP Oromia, East shewa zone

No	Woreda	No. of graduated		Year of Graduation
		household	Total beneficiaries	
1	Boset	139	982	2008
		105	749	2009
2	A/T/J/Kombolcha	232	1160	2008
		150	628	2009
3	Fantale	330	1628	2009
Total		371	2142	2008
„		585	3005	2009

Source: Oromia DPP and FS Bureau, Aug, 2010

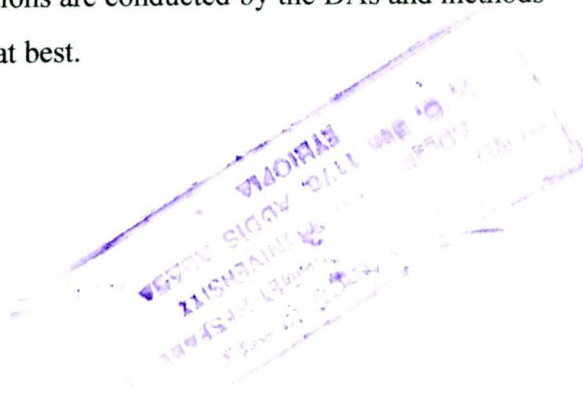
The study found that the majority of the graduated households (76.67%) consider themselves as the right candidate to graduate from the program and we have to leave the program for other poor people less than them, those who are not able to meet their family food need. But the respondents have a sense of frustration that there may be drought and failure of crop which leads to reduced products and food shortage. They have said that we are relying on rainfed agriculture; the climate is very unpredictable and difficult to predict what can happen in the next crop year. About 23.33% of them said they were forced to exit the program, and have not reached the graduation level. Half these of interviewed households reported that they are nominated for graduation not because of their asset thresholds but due to personal conflicts with Gare, Got or Kebele leaders. Some of the respondents argue some members of Kebele leaders are in corruption and conduct nepotism, particularly in Dodicha kebele. Due to this fact they are struggling to meet household needs but only by depleting productive assets and sometimes receiving support from community. Two women headed households elucidated that ad hock event led them to graduate from the program. The two female household heads were interview from Warja Washgula kebele explained that they graduated from the program because their land was expropriated by Batu town administration and the individuals got compensation of land. The two women said “we took money as a compensation of our land about 50,000 birr and we have to seek solution for our family to survive in a house, then we bought land in the town and constructed our house, we have no money at hand”.

Plate 5.2 Graduated female household head feeding her livestock at Warja Washgula kebele



Source: Photo by the writer, Feb. 2011

The result showed that 86.67% of the were nominated for graduation by the joint decision of DA and kebele council, 6.67% by the woreda council and also 6.67% were nominated for graduation by Gare and Got leaders. About 63.33% of the respondents do not know the graduation criteria, but they all argue with the issue of high asset level make person to graduate. The rest 36.67% know the graduation criteria, but the asset valuation method is not transparent and lack justice in some of the graduate household's asset valuation. The study investigated during the discussion that not only to the client but also to the frontline implementers the graduation benchmarks are not clearly understood (what assets are measured and how they are valued). Asset valuations are conducted by the DAs and methods of valuations were ambitious and 'guesstimates' at best.



The charter of right and responsibilities states that clients have the right to know the criteria and benchmarks for graduation and to remain in the program if they do not meet the criteria. Regarding this steps of graduation 73.33% of respondents do not know the steps. 26.67% of them know not more than six steps. Even the 16 steps in the graduation procedure are not followed by the implementing bodies. The reason to jump some of the steps are, they are redundant and requires extra time and labour without any value addition. For example, the households nominated for graduation at kebele level were endorsed by the direct participation of woreda representative at kebele meeting. This helps the woreda council to approve the candidates without further investigation of their situation. Federal Food Security Coordination Directorate explicitly stated that the benchmarks are frame of work that is flexible to modification by regions and woredas based on ground realities. But the regional state and woreda level implementing body accepted existing benchmark marks as a rule not as frame of work. This shows that the communities do not have a clear understanding on the graduation process and asset valuation system, which in turn make them to lack confidence on graduation.

Regarding year of stay 93.33% of the respondents stayed in the program for 4-5 years. But 6.67% of the respondents expressed their stay in the program for one and two years that does not allow them build resilience and make them graduate from the program. 96.67% of the respondents stayed in the program for six month to be more resilient. But 3.33% were expressed the tendency of exit from the program right after graduation. Government PIM indicated that households are kept in the program at least for one crop season in order to increase their resilience to shock. This may seem to create confusion in the implementation procedure and graduation definition.

All respondents took no incentive on their graduation, except one T-shirt and cap on graduation ceremony. And also there was no any type of support and supervision was conducted since their graduation. The PIM explicitly showed that graduated households remain eligible to OFSP like credit on priority basis and also stay under close supervision and monitoring of their livelihood changes. In reality few graduates got extension service from DA and unable to get any of the stated service from the concerned body. Once a

household has risen above a government defined threshold, the requisite conditions have to be in place to keep the household from slipping back.

5.5.1 Self Assessment of the Graduated Households

Households during the study were asked to assess themselves as “better off”, “the same” or “worse off” when in the program than after graduated from the program, and in comparison to an “average household” in the same community. The study revealed that 36.67% of the households stated better off, 56.67% of them the same and 6.66% of the households expressed worse off state of their life. Majority of households who stated their livelihoods were improved after graduations were households with inclusion error (well-off included) and graduated to rectify the inclusion errors. Graduated households who felt their livelihood were worse off than when they were in the PSNP blamed their pre-mature graduation and lack of access to OFSP after graduation. Therefore, graduated households were not monitored and to get access to OFSP after graduation as stated in the program implementation manual.

According to GGN households who believe that they have been wrongly assessed for graduation from the PSNP have the right to appeal this decision. These appeals will be considered by the Safety Net appeals process, which should deal with all appeals in a transparent and timely manner. Households whose successfully appeals are eligible to rejoin the Program. About 16.67% of the graduates were complained the graduation and appealed to kebele and woreda level authorities but none were able to re-enter the program and also not satisfied by the response of the officials. About 36.67% of the graduated households do not know the presence grievance system. The implementing body also agrees with the appeal of some of the graduates but the appellants are not willing to specify on public meeting who has to graduate and who has to remain in the program on the basis of their assets. Steps taken by households to raise grievances regarding graduation and the experience with these processes are not clear and the graduates assume that there is no room for raising grievances.

5.6 Measuring Food Security by HFIAS

FANTA and its partners have identified a set of questions that have been used in several

countries and appear to distinguish the food secure from the insecure households across different cultural contexts. These questions represent apparently universal domains of the household food insecurity (access) experience and can be used to assign households and populations along a continuum of severity, from food secure to severely food insecure.

1. In the past four weeks, did you worry that your household would not have enough food?
2. In the past four weeks, were you or any household member not able to eat the kinds of foods you preferred because of a lack of resources?
3. In the past four weeks, did you or any household member have to eat a limited variety of foods due to a lack of resources?
4. In the past four weeks, did you or any household member have to eat some foods that you really did not want to eat because of a lack of resources to obtain other types of food?
5. In the past four weeks, did you or any household member have to eat a smaller meal than you felt you needed because there was not enough food?
6. In the past four weeks, did you or any household member have to eat fewer meals in a day because there was not enough food?
7. In the past four weeks, was there ever no food to eat of any kind in your household because of lack of resources to get food?
8. In the past four weeks, did you or any household member go to sleep at night hungry because there was not enough food?
9. In the past four weeks, did you or any household member go a whole day and night without eating anything because there was not enough food?

Table 5.11 to measure food security level of graduated households

Q. No.	Total respondents	Total Yes	Total No	If yes, how often happen			
				1	2	3	
1	30	13	17	7	6	-	Food Secure
2	30	14	16	4	7	3	Mildly food insecure
3	30	4	26	3	1	-	Moderately Food insecure
4	30	16	14	7	7	2	Moderately Food insecure
5	30	14	16	3	6	5	Severely Food insecure
6	30	10	20	4	6	-	Severely Food insecure
7	30	-	30	-	-	-	Severely Food insecure
8	30	-	30	-	-	-	Severely Food insecure
9	30	-	30	-	-	-	Severely Food insecure

Source: Field Survey Feb, 2011

Table 4.1 illustrates the **prevalence** of different levels of household food insecurity that 76.30% (both total no and answer one for question number one only) of the respondents were food secure households. Whereas, on the other hand 11.11%, 10.74%, and 1.85% households were mildly food insecure, moderately food insecure and severely food insecure respectively. Severely food insecure households were respondents of smaller meal than they felt needed due to lack of enough food more than three times in a month. But, running out of food, going to bed hunger and going a whole day and night without food were not experienced by any of graduated households.

Table 5.13 to measure food security level of beneficiaries of the PSNP households KEY

Q. No.	Total respondents	Total Yes	Total No	If yes, how often happen			KEY
				1	2	3	
1	43	18	25	11	4	3	Food Secure
2	43	21	22	6	9	6	Mildly food insecure
3	43	26	17	14	9	3	Moderately Food insecure
4	43	13	30	8	2	3	Severely Food insecure
5	43	15	28	7	4	4	Severely Food insecure
6	43	11	32	7	4	-	Severely Food insecure
7	43	2	41	2	-	-	Severely Food insecure
8	43	4	39	4	-	-	Severely Food insecure
9	43	-	43	-	-	-	Severely Food insecure

Source: Field Survey Feb, 2011

Table 4.3 illustrates the **prevalence** of different levels of household food insecurity that 74.42% (both total no and answer one for question number one only) of the respondents were food secure households. Whereas, on the other hand 12.92%, 10.08%, and 2.58% households were mildly food insecure, moderately food insecure and severely food insecure respectively. Severely food insecure households were respondents of smaller meal than they felt needed due to lack of enough food more than three times in a month. Small proportions of households were also experienced severe food insecurity (running out of food, going to bed hunger and going a whole day and night without food) by beneficiaries' households. General when the three categories of the households are compared in terms of their vulnerability to food shortage high proportion beneficiaries of the PSNP households were experienced food insufficiency than both non-beneficiaries and graduated households. This shows that the clients of the PSNP households have less buffer stock to resist seasonal food scarcity.

5.7 Sustainable Livelihood Framework

This study adopted sustainable livelihood framework, to analyze whether the intervention of the program, the *productive safety net*, which is the component of the food security program

Table 5.12 to measure food security level of non-beneficiaries of the PSNP households KEY

Q. No.	Total respondents	Total Yes	Total No	If yes, how often happen			
				1	2	3	
1	32	10	22	3	2	5	Food Secure
2	32	8	24	5	2	1	Mildly food insecure
3	32	11	21	4	5	2	Moderately Food insecure
4	32	2	30	2	-	-	Severely Food insecure
5	32	3	29	2	1	-	Severely Food insecure
6	32	-	32	-	-	-	Severely Food insecure
7	32	-	32	-	-	-	Severely Food insecure
8	32	-	32	-	-	-	Severely Food insecure
9	32	-	32	-	-	-	Severely Food insecure

Source: Field Survey Feb, 2011

Table 4.2 illustrates the **prevalence** of different levels of household food insecurity that 89.24% (both total no and answer one for question number one only) of the respondents were food secure households. Whereas, on the other hand 7.30% of the households were mildly food insecure and 3.47% households were moderately food insecure. Small proportions of the non-beneficiary households were in the category of mildly food insecure and moderately food insecure. And also, the three most severe conditions (running out of food, going to bed hungry and going a whole day and night without food) were not experienced by any of households.



of the Government, has helped the community, particularly the poor food insecure households, in preventing asset depletion at household level and asset creation at community level.

Livelihood Strategies comprise the range and combination of activities and choices that people undertake in order to achieve their livelihood goals (Kollmair and Juli, 2002). They have to be understood as a dynamic process in which people combine activities to meet their various needs at different times and on different geographical or economical levels, whereas they may even differ within a household. Their direct dependence on asset status and transforming structures and processes becomes clear through the position they occupy within the framework. A changing asset status may further or hinder other strategies depending on the policies and institutions at work.

Sustainable livelihood framework indicates that people operating in a vulnerable context have access to certain assets/capitals. So an accurate and realistic understanding of people's strengths (here called "assets" or "capital") is crucial to analyse how they endeavour to convert their assets into positive livelihood outcomes (Bebbington, 1999). People require a range of assets to achieve their self-defined goals, whereas no single capital endowment is sufficient to yield the desired outcomes on its own. When drought occurs in the area and no measures are taken, the vulnerable population will fall into disaster risk. The PSNP is working to reduce risks that arise due to drought through improving the five livelihood assets. The program was launched to undertake measures that were in each category of livelihood assets as response and prevention strategies.

Human to enhance human capital activities like improve the skill, knowledge and ability to work the program has constructed a number of formal schools besides delivering formal and informal training for the people in the target kebeles. To ensure good healthy, different health posts and residents of health extension workers are also built in those kebeles that are the client of the program that enables people to pursue different livelihood strategies.

Natural to protect and develop forest the PSNP is implementing afforestation on a wide area of land in the targeted kebeles. And also, to save soil and water from erosion and preserve land productivity, massive soil and water conservation structures have been constructed in all

program participant kebeles. Promotion and distribution of fire wood efficient stoves and biogas plantation are activities of the program to minimize the pressure on forest. Water development activities such as spring development, hand dug wells building and hand pump plantation are also done to keep the quality and quantity of the water sources. Yearly million of forest seedlings were planted with the public work program in the area, but the survival rate was very low to null. Therefore, in such harsh climate area, targeting the effective way of afforestation, area selection, seedling management, tree species selection and planting where the seedlings can be watered during the arid months should be embraced in planning.

Financial or economic the program is making access to credit to obtain agricultural inputs to increase productivity and production of the community to increase resilience to shocks. The program is injecting money to the economy through the public and direct support the clients to stimulate the market and increase investment in the agricultural sector. Destruction of termites' molds and noxious weeds from the cultivated land are another work that was preformed to increase return from the land. Regarding the credit and saving services in the kebeles under study the coverage and amount is very limited that deserves attention.

Social restore social assets that provide buffers or safety nets to help the poor cope with shocks and reduce social vulnerability, promote social networks and connectedness, membership of formal groups, relationship etc, create cohesive social environment through improving the internal functioning of groups (leadership and management) and extending external links of local groups, ensure appropriate institution and policies are in place and are functioning.

Physical the PSNP is working to improve the basic infrastructure like roads, health facilities and water supply and ensure affordable transport. There is good progress in rural road that makes transportation and communication easy and cheap in the client kebeles that were built by the public work component of the program. Besides these infrastructures, the government expanded the mobile net work service, mostly used by well-off in the study kebeles. But there is no fixed telephone service in the kebele that are accessible to low income farming families.

5.8 Agriculture and Food Security in ATJK Woreda

The population's livelihood mainly consists of agriculture, crop and animal husbandry and fishing. Crop production is mainly rain-fed. The main objective of farming activities is to satisfy households' consumption needs, although an increasing number of farmers are exerting efforts to produce more cash crops, in particular onions and tomatoes to be sold locally. The use of irrigation is still very limited: only few farmers irrigate their plots by using motor pump from lakes and rivers. In 2010, the percentage of chronic food insecure population assisted by the Security Safety Net Program in Adami Tulu Jido Kombolcha Woreda was 27.87% of the total population of the woreda. This shows that many people are dependent on the transfer of PSNP in the woreda under study.

The environment is challenging; annual rainfall is highly variable/unpredictable with an underlying threat of drought. Beyond this natural factor, food insecurity persists due to limited penetration of agricultural innovations in the woreda. Devereux and Guenther (2009) asserted that activities that benefit agriculture directly, by either raising or stabilizing crop yields and farmers' incomes, include small scale irrigation, micro dams, and soil and water conservation. Activities that could enhance agricultural incomes indirectly include construction of rural access roads and farmers' training centers, and improved water supplies (spring capping, ponds, shallow wells). Many other activities, such as construction of social infrastructure (school classrooms, health posts) have no immediate income-generating potential, though rural families should benefit from improved education and health services in the future, since these are investments in human capital.

According to the woreda ARD office agronomy expert in the year 2010/11 the amount and the type of agricultural input utilized in the woreda as compared to the past years were improved in general, but as compared to the total size of the land under crop; the coverage of the modern inputs utilized was very low. In the year 2010/11 total fertilizer applied covered only on 6% of the total land with crop. And also, 9.35% and 2.00% of the total land covered with improved maize and wheat respectively. Wheat productivity is 15 quintal, which is a bit less than the country's average yield of 17 quintal per hectare.

Table 5.14 Area covered with crop and yield obtained in the year 2010/11

No	Type of the crop	Total cultivated area with			Area covered with improved Variety	
		ha.	Productivity Quintal/Ha	Production Quintal	(Ha)	(%)
1	Maize	36,482	29	1,057,978	3412	9.35
2	Haricot bean	16,120	13	209,560	62.5	0.39
3	Wheat	8,938	15	223,450	177.15	2.00
4	Barley	2,510	15	37,650		
5	Teff	4,200	15	63,000		
6	Sorghum	895	17	15,215		
7	Bean	60	11	660		
8	Lintel	40	12	480		
9	Linseed	40	10	400		

Source: ATJK ARD office, Feb. 2011

Table 5.15 Modern agricultural inputs used for the year 2010/11

No	Types of inputs	Amount in Quintal
1	Fertilizer	4152
	DAP	4020
	Urea	138
2	Maize	583
	BH 540	105
	BH 543	451.625
	BH 660	26.375
3	Wheat	310
	PAVN 76	200
	HAR 1685	110
4	Haricot bean	75
	Awash I	75

Source: ATJK woreda ARD office, Feb.2011

5.9 Policy and Institutions to Implement Food Security

In 1996, the Ethiopian government launched the Sustainable Development and Poverty Reduction Program (SDPRP) with the aim of reducing poverty and food insecurity. The SDPRP's main focus was to ensure food supply at the household level by the Agricultural Development-Led Industrialization (ADLI) policy (Pankhurst 2009). This policy aimed to improve agricultural production in order to create asset, to enhance food stocks and livestock in the household. ADLI would also enable the selling of surplus to the market thus improving household economies. Ethiopia's Food Security Strategy (FSS), issued in November 1996, and updated in March 2002, highlighted Government plans to address causality and effect of food insecurity in Ethiopia. The updated strategy is targeted mainly to the chronically food insecure moisture deficit and pastoral areas. A clearer focus on environmental rehabilitation as a measure to reverse the level of degradation and also as a source of income generation for food insecure households through a focus on biological measures marks a deviation from the previous strategy. And also, Water harvesting and the introduction of high value crops, livestock and agro-forestry development are basic content of the strategy (FSS, 2002).

To curb food insecurity and achieve food security the governments food security strategy has three main components, which together are designed to attain household food security over a five year period: (1) the 'Productive Safety Net Program', with two sub-components Public Works and Direct Support which bridges food gaps with cash or food transfers while building community assets; (2) 'Household Extension Packages', which support a range of non-farm livelihood activities; (3) 'Voluntary Resettlement Program', which relocates people from the most vulnerable highland communities to more productive land (FDRE Food Security strategy, 2002).

The Government of Ethiopia seeks to break the cycle of dependency on food aid. Building on the ideas of the NCFSE in 2004 the Ethiopian Government with multi-donor support designed the Productive Safety Net Program (PSNP) and PSNP was introduced to distinguish between two groups within the food insecure population. This is because different causal factors imply differentiated policy responses. If transitory food insecurity is a result of temporarily disrupted food systems, then restoring access to food is the most appropriate

response. The 'unpredictable' food insecure those who face transitory food deficits because of erratic weather or other livelihood shocks will continue to be the beneficiaries of emergency appeals and will receive food aid as and when required. The 'predictably food insecure' are those facing chronic food deficits, because of poverty rather than food shocks. Different studies showed that addressing chronic food insecurity with tools designed for transitory food insecurity could exacerbate underlying structural problems (e.g. if non-emergency food aid undermines markets and creates production disincentives for local farmers).

The main objective of the PSNP was to ensure that poor households in chronically food insecure woredas were protected from selling their key assets during times of drought and to build community assets by involving food insecure households in public works. The program was also meant to encourage households to engage in production and investment activities, enhance their purchasing power and promote market development.

Oromia's institutional framework for Food security has undergone numerous changes in mandate, structure, and scope in the recent years. During July 2010, before eight months when I did my internship attachment at the same woreda the Regional state Food Security Coordination Bureau and Disaster Prevention and Preparedness commission was autonomous organ functioning as two processes early warning and feedback and Food Security.

At that time besides other activities the office of FS was vested with the following mandate to implement the PSNP:

The Woreda Food Security Desk (WFSD) oversees Safety Net activities and is technically accountable to the RFSCOs. The WFSD functions include: (i) ensuring the preparation of pipeline of projects for PSNP in consultation with the Kebele Food Security Task Force; (ii) mobilizing technical assistance as needed; (iii) ensuring that PSNP risk financing contingency plans are prepared and implemented according to risk financing guidelines (iv) undertaking monitoring and evaluation in coordination with woreda sectoral offices; (v) holding quarterly technical review meetings with implementing agencies; (vi) submitting progress reports to the WOARD; (vii) maintaining accurate records of kebele Safety Net activities and list of clients; and (viii) providing information on target areas and selected clients to sectoral offices

and other agencies involved in planning and implementing Safety Net activities (PIM, 2006 pp. 16).

The region has revised the institutional arrangements for the PSNP to address management issues experienced to date. The regional Bureau of Agriculture and Rural Development has written letter to woredas following the implementation of Business Process Re-engineering (BPR) to reform service delivery in Government offices, the Government structures for implementation of PSNP have changed and the commission was restructured under ARDB. The core idea of the letter to re-structure the office under ARDB was to bring similar activities under the same institution. But in reality Agriculture and food security are not one and the same, food security is beyond agricultural activities. Therefore, structuring food security as one component of agriculture is tricky and the region has to revise the institutional arrangement of the sector.

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Conclusion

A wide array of government and non-government institutions are involved in the implementation of PSNP and OFSP interventions. Decentralization has conferred substantial autonomy to the woredas, which represent the key implementing body for the PSNP. The Woreda Council is the highest decision making body at the woreda level, responsible for the allocation of safety net resources to kebeles based on the recommendations of the WFSTF and vulnerable population size. In the study area agriculture and rural development office is responsible for oversight and coordination of the PSNP. Finance and Economic Development office is responsible for disbursing PSNP resources to kebeles based on the size of the targeted food insecure population and requests submitted by agriculture and rural development office.

Productive Safety Net Program was designed to protect existing assets and ensure a minimum level of food consumption, the OFSP is designed to encourage households to increase income generated from agricultural activities and to build up assets. Household's access to OFSP were very limited in the area under study. PSNP still needed time to mature and to overcome its structural weaknesses. In spite of some constraints, PSNP has achieved limited positive results which demonstrate the potential of this program in filling the food gaps of the poor in the area under study.

The public work component of the PSNP has been linked to environmental rehabilitation to address the root causes of food insecurity, through building up of 'community assets' such as afforestation, massive soil conservation works and area closure as part of a commitment to linking relief with development. These activities of the public work can have a positive impact on environment in two ways. First, it fills the food gap of starving households and may reduce their necessity to earn their living from unsustainable exploitation of natural resources. Second, food aid/cash resources distributed to needy people in return for their labour can be used for environmental rehabilitation programs or other 'productive' public works

like afforestation, physical soil conservation measures and the construction of feeder roads. However, the effort to link public work activities with development programs through the exchange of labour for food/cash programs was not as effective for some development like reforestation and physical conservation measures as it expected in the study area. The reason is lack of commitment of quality control by the professional personal and site selection difficult in reforestation in arid climate area and lack close supervision and monitoring of the activities.

The Productive Safety Net Program (PSNP) was designed to make a transition from the traditional, short-lived, model of responding to chronic food insecurity by creating a program which not only met food deficits, but did so in a way which protected household assets and built community assets. The cash wage rate was improved to 10 birr for Ethiopian Fiscal Year 2002, which equates to 15kg of cereals per household member per month for 5 days worked per month per household member, but as compared to the wage paid to unskill labour (25birr/day) at the woreda currently it is small and may unable to cover the food gap as well as unable to protect the asset.

Government food security PIM document states, participation in PSNP alone will not be enough for lifting beneficiary households from a state of chronic food insecurity to one of self-resiliency. Rather, they will need to take advantage of other forms of assistance such as skills training programs, savings and credit associations, as well as health, agricultural extension services and technology transfer (such as advice on food crop production, cash cropping, livestock production, and soil and water conservation). The OFSP are a vehicle to enable scale of graduation. The study conducted by (Gilligan et al. 2008) investigated that access to the OFSP was lower in Oromia with 12 percent of households receiving services. The study found that household's access to OFSP before and after graduation was very limited in the area under study.

A household has graduated when, in the absence of receiving PSNP transfers, it can meet its food needs for all 12 months and is able to *withstand modest shocks*. According to this concept graduation is extremely difficult implement at an operational level. The concept is

implicitly linear it suggests a steady progression up an income scale but livelihoods of the farming community in the study area are characterised by uncertainty. They may face erratic weather and other threats to crop and livestock production. Even if a household is assessed as having passed an income or asset threshold at a point in time after three to five years of receiving cash transfers or food; it is impossible to predict whether the household is about to suffer a major shock that will decimate its harvest or herd, leaving the household acutely vulnerable to hunger and destitution. Actually, the exit criteria from the programme should be higher than the entry criteria.

Few clients reported that they are nominated for graduation not because of their asset thresholds but due to personal conflicts with Gare, Got or Kebele leaders. Due to this conflict and hostility without reaching the asset thresholds some households were graduated from the program with the stay of one or two year which do not allow them to meet food need for graduation. Most of the respondents argue some members of Kebele leaders are in corruption and conduct nepotism in particular at Dodicha kebele where due to the problem of corruption majority of kebele council were thrown from the power and substituted by the new once.

The 16 steps in the graduation procedure are not followed by the implementing bodies. The reason to jump some of the steps are, they are redundant and requires extra time and labour without any value addition. For example, the households nominated for graduation at kebele level were endorsed by the direct participation of woreda representative at kebele meeting. This helps the woreda counsel to approve the candidates without further investigation of their situation.

The research showed that some ad hock events that led to graduation of households. For example from interviewed households two of them were graduated from the program because their land was expropriated by Batu town administration and the individuals got compensation of land. But the households utilized the compensation money to construct their house in the town. Some interviewed households reported that they are struggling to meet household food needs but only by depleting productive assets and sometimes receiving support from community or government.

As clearly highlighted in the government program implementation manual a household that

has graduated from the PSNP and subsequently suffers a shock that depletes its assets will be included in the Program when it has become chronically food insecure. It will re-enter the Program through the annual community needs assessment. However, if a household that has graduated from the PSNP requires assistance prior to the annual needs assessment, the contingency resources can be used to cover their needs in the short-term to prevent asset depletion. But, on the ground reality some of the graduated households encountered shortage of food after graduation and applied to the program implementing body at woreda and kebele level and their appeal were not heard and unable to re-enter the program.

Determining and measuring of asset thresh hold for graduation is more practical at the woreda level. Rural households do not readily share their productive asset ownership information and are particularly reticent about publicizing their income information. In the study area households creating the value of income and assets of 18,000 birr will be considered livelihood secure and ready for graduation from the FSP into sustainable food security. The graduation benchmarks are frame of work that was developed by the FFSCO and regions have flexibility to review the benchmarks and to provide their own regional appropriate guidance on what constitutes bench marks in their regions. But a region and woreda accepts graduation benchmarks as rule rather than taking it as a frame work.

The Oromia National Regional State began mass awareness creation program on development and poverty alleviation when the researcher was at field to collect data. According to Chinese Proverb, "Give a man a fish and you feed him for a day. Teach a man to fish and you feed him for a lifetime". This is a good attempt, because development starts in human mind and such endeavors to prevent food shortage and result with development in the country are primarily the responsibilities of the citizen's and if any attempt is to be successful, it should come from within the country.

Majority of the population in the study area continues to derive its survival through the exploitation of nature: farming, dealing in forestry products, and other primary goods productions using rudimentary technologies. The environment of the woreda is challenging; annual rainfall is highly variable with an underlying threat of drought. Beyond these natural

factors, food insecurity persists due to limited penetration of agricultural innovations to the district. In the year 2010/11 the amount and the type of agricultural input used in the woreda as compared to the past years was improved, while when compared to the size of the land cultivated the input utilized was very low. This results in low yield that leads to lacks buffer stock by the communities to bounce back the shocks that is created when crop yield fails in one production season. Therefore, Agricultural performance must improve if the food security of the community who depend on farming is to be enhanced.

To put it in a nutshell, the study explored that the program has a remarkable importance in smoothening household food consumption, asset protection and asset building. However, these results will not stay longer, unless measures in the recommendation part of this paper are taken to solve the abovementioned constraints.

6.2 Recommendations

On the basis of the above findings valuable recommendations and policy implications can be drawn from the study results so that the PSNP to be properly implemented and to effectively hit the planned target.

- ❖ The irregularity and erratic delivery of transfer may under mines the program objective. The program in order to hit the planned target the transfer should be predictable and delivered timely to the beneficiaries.
- ❖ By conducting pre-need assessments it is better to parallel make available both cash and food transfer to favour the beneficiaries according to their preferences.
- ❖ The quality problem of public works may hamper the benefits gained from those work output and working during peak agriculture season may compute the labour of farmers from their regular activities. Regular quality control and as much as possible bases on the type of the public work scheduling on off agricultural work is necessary.
- ❖ The study identified the existence of corruption and nepotism at lower level on targeting beneficiaries and graduate households; this is because of lack of transparence and accountability. Making the system more transparent and accountable to the local community minimizes the existing problems.
- ❖ Modest shocks should be explicitly defined to establish what level of resource equates

to food sufficiency and graduation in general. Therefore, developing clear, consistent and operational definition of the word modest shock is required for determining graduation.

❖ The current graduation system relies on asset-based benchmarks that use asset levels to measure graduation. But some households perceive depleting of asset for food need as shame activity, so that they prefer to go hunger to bed rather than depleting their asset. Therefore, it is better if the benchmarks for graduation emphasis on the food produced and liquid asset and supplemented by other assets like (Land, Oxen, Cow, House etc) and households perception on self-resilience.

❖ Steps taken by households to raise grievances regarding graduation and the experience with these processes are not clear and the graduates assume that there is no room for raising grievances. Therefore, greater efforts should be paid to raising awareness on grievance process and having well articulated guide line is very important.

❖ My worrying is that some of the graduated households are still not mental graduated from the program. Therefore, it is very necessary to build Knowledge, skills and confidence of the households through awareness creation to lead their life only depending on their own farm and other activities.

❖ Recognizing the complementary roles of the PSNP and OFSP to enable households to move out of food insecurity, making available OFSP for the participants especially the extension packages loans are critical to have scale of graduations.

❖ Enhancing off- farm opportunities for the rural poor and others to generate income is very necessary to address food insecurity. ATJK Woreda is the potential producer of vegetables like Tomatoes and Onions; therefore, options like cottage industries that process vegetables by value addition and/or enhancing shelf life through preservation techniques; production of small scale processing machinery; provision of credit; contract processing facilities; and market facilitations are very vital component to address food security issue.

❖ Improved Crop variety that are drought-resistant, in order to stabilize yields should be disseminated to farmers in this drought prone woreda, rather than high-yielding but riskier varieties and access to inputs must be provided on time and more reasonable terms.

❖ Monitoring and evaluation is a crucial management tool that should be revitalized and applied continuously and constantly to identify weaknesses and strengths and succeed in improvement of the effective and efficiency of the program. Monitoring and evaluating the

graduated households on continuous base should be in place to keep them from slipping back.

❖ Last but not least, the Oromia's institutional instability framework for Food security and the rapid turnover of staff at woreda levels is another problem to effectively implement the program. Therefore, Oromia regional state should have to establish autonomous Food Security sector that oversees the food security activities and vesting it with expanded responsibilities and duties so as to coordinate the efforts to achieve food security goal and recruiting professional workers with ruminative salary and other benefits to retain in the sector.

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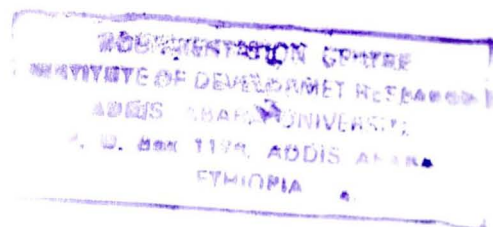
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Annex: 1

Household Survey Questionnaire

I. INTRODUCTION

- ❖ Greet the person that I am going to interviewing, and introduce myself.
- ❖ Explain where am I are coming from.
- ❖ Explain the purpose of the study.

Your factual information when filling this questionnaire will not only help the researcher to fulfill requirements of the university but also will be helping in future research careers and optimal decision making endeavors. When filling the questionnaire it is also to be remembered that anonymity is kept to the maximum and no need to feel uncomfortable with any information provided.

- ❖ Asking if the person you are speaking to have any questions for you before continuing.
- ❖ Ask if the respondent is willing to be interviewed. If they agree, start the interview. If the respondent is not willing, I never ask any of the questions and move to the next household.

A. HOUSEHOLD PROFILE

1. Sex 1. Male 2. Female
2. Age _____
3. Marital status 1. Single 2. Married 3. Divorced 4. widowed 5. Separated 6. Polygamy
4. Educational status attained 1. Illiterate 2. Read and write 3. Church school
5. Other (specify) _____
5. Number of permanent household members at the time of survey: Male__ Female__
Total _____
6. Continuous duration of stay at current place of residence (year) _____
12. Place of birth (specify region, zone and *wereda*) _____
7. If your place of birth is different from the present, reason for coming here 1. marriage
2. join relative 3. Displacement by drought 4. To get access to land 5. Divorce
8. Is head of the household capable to work/economically active? 1. yes 2. no
9. If inactive, why? 1. sick 2. aged 3. disable 4. aged and sick 5. other (specify)

1. Agriculture

- 1.1. Crop production (for consumption and sale) Total harvest in kg _____
- 1.2. Crop production sold in kg _____
- 1.3. Vegetables produced in kg _____
- 1.4. Vegetables sold in kg _____
- 1.5. Rearing animals in number cattle _____ sheep _____ goats _____
equines _____ others specify _____
- 1.6. Selling animals cattle _____ sheep _____ goats _____ equines _____
others specify _____
- 1.7. Selling animal products meat in kg _____ milk in liters _____ skins _____ Hides in
kg _____.
- 1.8. Poultry rearing amount in number _____ sales chickens _____ eggs _____
- 1.9. Beekeeping (selling honey, bees-wax, or bee-hives)
- 1.10. Other agriculture (specify): _____

2. Employment (for the 12 months)

- 2.1. Salaried job (specify): _____ Total monthly income earned Birr _____
- 2.2. Public works (food-for-work, cash-for-work) Total monthly income earned
Birr _____
- 2.3. Agricultural worker (for cash or food) Total monthly income earned Birr _____
- 2.4. Non-agricultural worker (for cash or food) Total monthly income earned Birr _____
- 2.5. Domestic servant (e.g. house-maid) Total monthly income earned Birr _____
- 2.6. Military service Total monthly income earned Birr _____
- 2.7. Other employment (specify): _____ Total monthly income earned Birr _____

3. Trading (buying and selling)

- 3.1. Trading in food crops (grains, pulses, vegetables) Type of crop _____ Total
monthly income earned Birr _____
- 3.2. Trading in livestock or livestock products type of livestock _____ Total
monthly income earned Birr _____
- 3.3. Trading in other commodities Type of the commodities _____ Total
monthly income earned Birr _____

4. Sale of natural products

- 4.1. Selling firewood or charcoal Type _____ Total monthly income earned Birr _____
- 4.2. Selling water total monthly income earned Birr _____
- 4.3. Selling grass or fodder (for livestock) total monthly income earned Birr _____
- 4.4. Selling construction materials (sand, wooden poles, etc) Type _____ total monthly income earned Birr _____
- 4.5. Selling wild fruits, bush meat, etc. Type _____ Total monthly income earned Birr _____

5. Crafts / Small Industry

- 5.1 .Making baskets or mats amount in number _____ Total monthly income earned Birr _____
- 5.2. Spinning or weaving cloth (cotton or wool) in number _____ Total monthly income earned Birr _____
- 5.3. Making or repairing clothes (embroidery, tailoring) in number _____ Total monthly income earned Birr _____
- 5.4. Making traditional utensils or farm tools in number _____ Total monthly income earned Birr _____
- 5.5. Pottery in number _____ Total monthly income earned Birr _____
- 5.6. Blacksmithing or metal-work in number _____ Total monthly income earned Birr _____

6. Services

- 6.1. Traditional healer Total monthly income earned Birr _____
- 6.2. Midwife or Traditional Birth Attendant (TBA) Total monthly income earned Birr _____
- 6.3. Barber or Hairdresser Total monthly income earned Birr _____
- 6.4. Musician (drum-beater, singer, and dancer) Total monthly income earned Birr _____
- 6.5. Counselor (disputes, marriage) Total monthly income earned Birr _____
- 6.6. Other services (specify): _____

7. Rents

- 7.1. Sharecropping out land 1.Yes 2.No if yes Total monthly income earned Birr _____
- 7.2. Renting out oxen for farming 1.Yes 2.No if yes Total monthly income earned _____

Birr _____

7.3. Renting out pack animals for transport (e.g. donkeys) 1.Yes 2.No if yes Total monthly income earned Birr _____

8. Food & drink processing

8.1. Selling tea, coffee, bread, soft drinks, 1.Yes 2.No if yes Total monthly income earned Birr _____

8.2. Selling alcoholic drink (e.g. *tella*, *tejj*, *shameta*, *borde*) 1.Yes 2.No if yes Total monthly income earned Birr _____

8.3. Selling cooked food 1.Yes 2.No if yes Total monthly income earned Birr _____

9. Others

9.1. Begging 1.Yes 2.No if yes Total monthly income earned Birr _____

9.2. Money-lending 1.Yes 2.No if yes Total monthly income earned Birr _____

9.3. Other (specify): _____ Total monthly income earned Birr _____

C). LAND OWNERSHIP AND ACCESS

10.1. Do you (or any other member of your household) own any **land**? Yes: 1 No: 2

10.2. Did you (or any household member) **farm** in the last farming season? Yes: 1 No

10. 3. If **YES**, please tell us about the land you used for farming, and land you rented or sharecropped to others. a) Farmed own land _____ ha. b) Land you rented _____ ha.

c) Sharecropped _____ ha. d) Free access to someone's land _____ ha.

E) Total land _____ ha.

10.4. Did you sell, rent out or sharecrop out any land in the last farming season? Yes 1 No 2.

10.5. If yes the why? a). We needed cash to buy food b). We needed cash for family health expenses c). We needed cash for schooling expenses d). We needed cash for social obligations (e.g. wedding) e). We have more land than we need f). We don't have enough

labor to farm the land g). We don't have access to a plough and oxen h). The land is poor quality i). We needed cash for other reasons (specify): _____

j). Other (specify): _____

D.) CROP FARMING

11.1. Last farming season, did you use fertilizer to improve your farm's productivity? Yes 1 No2

11 .2.Last farming seasons, did you use animal manure to improve your farm productivity? Yes 1 No.2

- 11.3. Last farming season, did your household have enough land for farming? Yes: 1 No: 2
11. 4. For each crop grown, how much was harvested last farming season, and what did you do with the harvest?

Crop	Total kilograms harvested	How many kilograms were:			Price per kg sold (Birr)
		Eaten at home	Given away	Sold	
Maize					
Sorghum					
Millet					
Barley					
Wheat					
Teff					
Beans					
Sesame					
Tomatoes					
Onions					
Chat					
others					

E. Informal transfers

12.1 In the last 12 months (between now and the same month last year), has your household **received** any of the following types of assistance from any friend or relative living outside the household? (Note: - Not from government or NGOs)

Type of assistance received	Write Yes or No
Remittances (from relative living elsewhere)	
Other cash gift	
Cash loan (no interest)	
Food or grain gift	
Grain loan (no interest)	
Seed gift	
Seed loan	
Free labor	
Free use of oxen or plough (for farming)	
Free use of pack animals (for transport)	
Other (specify):	

F.) Formal transfers

13.1 In the last 12 months (between now and the same month last year), has your household **received** any of the following types of assistance from formal organizations.

Type of assistance received	Write Yes or No	Program / Provider write code
Free food aid		
Free cash		
Food-for-work employment		
Cash-for-work employment		
Free seeds or tools		
Free fertilizer		
Credit/ Loan		
Livestock		
Other (specify): _____		

Codes: Program / Provider

1 = Safety Net Program (PSNP) 2 = Food Security Program (FSP) 3 = Other Government program 4 = World Food Program 5 = International NGO (e.g. Save the Children) 6 = Local NGO 7 = Community-based organization (e.g. Church) 8 = don't know
9 = other (specify): _____

G.) Food security

14.1 During the last year, did your household suffer any shortage of food to eat? Yes 1 No 2

14.2 If yes, which months in the last year did your household have problems satisfying its food needs? (Circle all that apply)

May	Apr	Mar	Feb	Jan	Dec	Nov	Oct	Sep	Aug	Jul	Jun

14.3 During the worst month last year, how many times a day did the adults and children in your household eat? **Number of meals per day** (circle one for each)

Adults 0 1 2 3 4 Children (= school-age / working, not infants) 0 1 2 3 4

Code: 0 = sometimes passed a whole day without eating anything

14.4 How much do you usually spend on food items in one week? Birr _____

14.5 How much do you usually spend on non-food items in one week? Birr _____

H.) Coping strategies

15.1 During the last hungry season, what did your household do to survive? (Note: This

question is about unusual behavior, not what the household normally does to get its food in a good year.)

15.2 Coping strategies used to overcome food shortage say Yes or No

Coping strategy	Write yes or No
Ate less food (smaller portions)	
Reduced the number of meals per day	
Collected bush products to eat or sell for food	
Relied on help from relatives and friends	
Household members migrated to find work	
Borrowed food or cash to purchase food	
Reduced spending on non-food items	
Sent children to stay with relatives	

Coping strategy	Write yes or No
Rented out land to buy food	
Sold land to buy food	
Sold livestock to buy food	
Sold other assets to buy food	
Sold firewood or charcoal	
Withdrew children from school	
Sent children to work	
Other (<i>specify</i>):	

I. TARGETING

16.1 Has your household received any food or cash from the new government Safety Net Program since March 2005? (*Circle one*) Yes 1 No 2

16.2 If the household has received food or cash but does not know the source or program write does not know. _____

II. PARTICIPANT (BENEFICIARY) HOUSEHOLDS

17.1 How much food or cash did your household receive, in which months in the past 12 months?

Food/cash	Feb	Jan	Dec	Nov	Oct	Sep	Aug	Jul	Jun	May	Apr	Mar
Cereals in kg												
Pulses in kg												
Oil in liter												
Cash Birr												

17.2 Did any members of the household work for this food or cash? (*Circle one*) Yes 1 No 2
If NO, why not? [*Circle all that apply*] Reason

1. There is no public works project here
2. Household contains no able-bodied adults
3. Household does not have enough labor
4. Household members are too old to work
5. Household members is pregnant or breastfeeding
6. Household members are too sick to work
7. Household members are disabled
8. Household head is female
9. Other reason (specify): _____

17.3 If YES, record the number of days worked by each individual, in each month.

Months	May	Apr	Mar	Feb	Jan	Dec	Nov	Oct	Sep	Aug	Jul	Jun	Total days
No. of days													

17.4 If these household members had not been working on the PSNP project during those months, what would they have been doing instead?

1. Domestic work
2. Childcare
3. Attending school
4. Farming work
5. Livestock tending
6. Social, religious or leisure activities
7. Paid employment (local, sleeping at home)
8. Paid employment (migratory, living temporarily somewhere else)
9. Trading / going to market
10. Other enterprise or income-generating activity (specify): _____

A) Use of PSNP cash or food

18.1 If you received free cash from the Safety Net Program, or worked on a cash-for-work project in the last 12 months, what did you do with all the money you received?

i) Consumption items birr

1. Bought staple food (e.g. grain) Birr _____ -
2. Bought other food (e.g. meat) Birr _____
3. Bought groceries (salt, sugar, coffee, soap, kerosene, etc.) Birr _____
4. Bought clothes or cloth Birr _____
5. Gave some cash to help others Birr _____
6. Lent some money to others Birr _____
7. Paid taxes Birr _____
8. Social obligations (specify): Birr _____
9. Other (specify): Birr _____

ii) Investments items Birr

1. Debt repayment _____
2. Bought seeds for farming _____
3. Bought fertilizer for farming _____
4. Paid for health costs _____
5. Paid for education costs _____
6. Used for business (e.g. trading) _____
7. Bought livestock (specify): _____

18.2 If you received free food aid from the Safety Net Program, or worked on a food-for-work project in the last 12 months, what did you do with all the food you received?

iii) Consumption items

1. We sold all the food for cash
2. We ate all the food
3. We sold the food to buy other food
4. We gave it to livestock for feed
5. We sold some of the food and ate the rest
6. We gave all the food to others as a payment for something
7. We gave all the food away to others who needed it more

8. We gave some of the food as a payment, and ate the rest
9. We gave some of the food away and ate the rest
10. Other (specify): _____

B) ASSET PROTECTION AND BUILDING

19.1 Trends in Assets protection and building

- 19.1 Have you enrolled more of your children in school this year than last year? 1 2 3
- 19.2 Have you kept your children in school for longer this year than last year? 1 2 3
- 19.3 Have you used healthcare facilities this year more than last year? 1 2 3
- 19.4 Have you consumed more food or better food this year than last year? 1 2 3
- 19.5 Have you avoided having to sell household assets to buy food this year? 1 2 3
- 19.6 Have you avoided having to use your savings to buy food this year? 1 2 3
- 19.7 Have you retained your own food production to eat yourselves this year, rather than selling it? 1 2 3
- 19.8 Have you acquired any new household assets (e.g. livestock, roof, bicycle, radio, plough, land)? 1 2 3
- 19.9 Have you acquired new skills or knowledge which has increased your income this year?
1 2 3
- 19.20 Within your household, who actually collected most or all of the food or cash from the Safety Net Program? 1 2 3 4
- 19.21 Within your household, who decided how to use the cash or food from the Safety Net Program? 1 2 3 4
1. I decided alone 2. I consulted with my spouse 3. My spouse decided 4. The whole household decided
- 19.22 If you could choose, would you prefer to get assistance from the Safety Net Program in food, cash, or a mix of half food and half cash? 1 2 3
1 = Food only 2 = Cash only 3 = Half food, half cash

**End of interview for PSNP beneficiary households.
Thank the interviewee for their time.**

III. EXCLUDED (NON-BENEFICIARY) HOUSEHOLDS

Why was your household **not** selected to receive food or cash from the new government Safety Net program?

We were told

1. We are not as poor as the selected households
2. We have enough food
3. We own livestock
4. We are landless
5. We have some land/ enough land/ or better quality land
6. We receive family support or remittances
7. We have other income
8. Our household did not receive food aid or emergency cash transfer in previous years
9. I don't have friends or relatives among the decision-makers
10. We are not participating in other food security programs
11. We are not registered on the kebele household list
12. Our household is not able to work on PSNP projects
13. Our household is not willing to work on PSNP projects
14. I don't know
15. Other reason (specify): _____

What I believe is

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____

Who decided which households in the community would receive the food or cash?

1. The D.A. decided)
2. Kebele Food Security Task Force
3. Kebele Council or Administration
4. Wereda Food Security Task Force
5. Wereda Council or Administration
6. Community Food Security Task Force

7. The community (we all decided together)

8. Don't know

9. There was no selection – everyone in the village received something

10. Other (specify): _____

11. Do you think the decision was fair? Yes 1 No 2

Please explain why or why not:

If **NO** (not fair), did you complain? Yes 1 No 2

If **YES** (complained), who did you complain to?

1 Kebele authorities

2 Wereda authorities

3 Zonal authorities

4 Regional authorities

5 Rapid Response Team

6 Community meeting

7 Church or mosque leaders

8 NGO, WFP or another organization (specify: _____)

9 Other (specify: _____)

1 There is no-one to complain to

2 We don't know who to complain to

3 It would not do any good to complain

4 I am too frightened or intimidated to complain

5 The decision-makers are the same people who hear the appeals

6 Other reason (specify): _____

If **YES** (complained), was your complaint successful? Yes 1 No 2

Please explain what happened:

End of interview for non-beneficiary households.

Thank the interviewee for their time.

IV) Graduate Household Interviews for Case Studies Household Profile

Introduce yourself and the purpose of the research and the exercise. Ask them if they are willing to take part in the discussion.

1. Name _____
2. Family size / composition _____
3. Family structure - female headed household? Yes No
4. Time of entering to PSNP? _____
3. Time of graduation from PSNP? _____
4. What is your occupation? _____

A) Perceptions of the graduation system and personal experience of it

i) Graduation procedure in practice

20.1 How do you feel about having been graduated from the PSNP? Do you believe you were the right candidate for graduation? (Fairness/Transparency)

20.2 Can you tell us how you ended up being graduated?

a) Do you know the selection criteria (benchmarks / self-graduate / retargeting) yes
No

b) Who selected you _____

c) Do you know the process/steps of graduation? Tell us the major ones

d) How long did you stay in PSNP when you knew you were graduating?

e) When did you know you graduated? _____

f) What month did you graduate? _____

g) Were you comfortable with the timing of graduating? _____

h) Did you receive any incentives to graduate? _____

20.3 What type of support did you receive before/after graduation?

Before _____

After _____

20.4 Who measured the value of your assets?

20.5 Do you think they measured the value accurately?

20.6 Are assets that are not fully owned by you considered by the DA?

ii.) Transparency, fairness and grievances

21.1 Do you think the graduation process has been fair _____

21.2 Have you had any grievance or made any appeals to the appeals committee? Yes No

21.3 If yes, was your grievance heard? _____

- How long did the appeal process take? _____
- Have you successfully appealed the grievances and re-entered PSNP? Yes No
- Have you heard the solutions of your appeal? Yes No

B) Food Sufficiency Assessment

22.1 How much food your household needs in a month of a year in kgs.

Households	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.
access to food												
Cereals												
Pulses												
Oil in liter												
Others												
Specify												

22.2 What were different sources of food for each month for your household in the past 12 months?

Households access to food	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	July	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec
1. Own production												
1. Purchase												
2. Gifts												
3. In kind payments												
5.												
6.												
7.												

22.3 Are you able to meet all your food needs each month in the past year? Yes No,

22.4 If no which months do you face a food gap and, how much that gap was?

Months	May	Apr	Mar	Feb	Jan	Dec	Nov	Oct	Sep	Aug	Jul	Jun	Total days
Amount in kgs													

22.4 Would you tell me the sources income for the purchase of food items in months where there is a large amount of food purchase? _____

22.5 How the situation was compared with before they entered to the PSNP? _____

22.6 How was your ability to meet food needs of your household as compared to other households (other graduates, non-clients and PSNP clients)? _____

C) Well being assessment

23.1 How would you describe the situation of your household now?

A) Doing well _____

B) Doing just ok _____

C) Struggling _____

D) Unable to cope _____

23.2 At the same time last year, what is situation of your household?

a) Better b) the same c) worse?

23.3 Are there self-graduates in this kebele? Yes No

23.4 What are their main reasons to graduate? _____

23.5 What are the major challenges regarding graduation? _____

23.6 Do you perceive there could be more additional graduates? Yes No

23.7 Do you wish there were more confidence in graduating? Yes No

23.8 What is your recommendation to scale-up graduation _____

**End of interview for graduated households.
Thank the interviewee for their time.**

Part I. Check List for Key informants and Focus Group Discussions

1. General Feature of the area

- Demography: age, household composition, etc.
- Can you tell us how people here commonly describe a household?
- Migration: birth place, stay at other place, and stay at current site.
- Mystery of the area: landscape, settlement density and pattern.
- Identifying the major causes of food insecurity.
- Drought and famine history.
- Land recourse change: vegetation, soils water use and distribution.
- Perception towards productive safety net program.
- Benefits and constraints associated with the PSNP.
- Coping mechanism of food shortage before and after the initiation of the PSNP.
- Problems associated with the implementation of the PSNP.
- Satisfaction on the type, amount and time of transfer of PSNP.
- Perception towards public works.
- Perception towards diminishing land size.
- Perception towards failure of crop and livestock productivity.

2. Assessment on the major livelihood assets

2.1 Food Security

- Main staple food crops of the household
- Average number months you able to feed your household from own productivity
- What are the main bottlenecks to produce crop and raise livestock that enables you to be self-sufficient - suffered in food?
- How do cope with shortages?
- What are your survival Strategies?

2.2 Access to natural capital

- Land holding size
- Change in holding size over the last few years

- Present status of farmland in terms of suitability for farming and soil fertility Main problems of farm land
- Access to natural vegetation
- Problems in relation to the exploitation of natural vegetation
- Interest in planting trees
- Perception towards the recurrent drought and erratic rain fall distribution

2.3 Financial Capital

- Main annual crops grown and size of harvest during the last five years
- Trend in crop Production (increase/decrease/no change-why)
- Perennial crops grown (size and income from their sale per year)
- Livestock animal (types and size)
- Constraint to livestock rising
- Income from non-farm activities and purpose for which the money is used
- Reserve money

2.4 Social Capital

- Participation in labor organization
- Draft power assistance
- Grain and loan during deficit period
- Cash loan in times of need
- Benefits from safety-net schemes

2.5 Physical capital (availability and access to rural infrastructure)

- Health service
- School
- Potable water source
- Credit
- Irrigation
- Agricultural extension
- Veterinary service

Annex: 2 Public Works and Direct Support Participants in ATJK Woreda

Public Works Participants in ATJK Woreda by kebele

No.	Name of Kebele	Household head			Family size			Total		
		Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1	Naqa	163	153	316	432	473	905	595	626	1221
2	Reji	342	209	551	841	1037	1878	1183	1246	2429
3	B/Hobbicho	346	175	521	796	999	1795	1142	1174	2316
4	C/Geto	421	169	590	837	1027	1864	1258	1196	2454
5	E/Ababu	340	167	507	686	867	1553	1026	1034	2060
6	L/Danbe	401	155	556	562	808	1370	963	963	1926
7	D/Adansho	271	109	380	444	608	1052	715	717	1432
8	A/Bornota	144	81	225	353	409	762	497	490	987
9	A/Gogessa	108	86	194	424	497	921	532	583	1115
10	H/Qalbo	184	53	237	353	496	849	537	549	1086
11	H/Lole	493	219	712	813	1203	2016	1306	1422	2728
12	Q/Waransa	464	176	640	611	894	1505	1075	1070	2145
13	Aluto	135	71	206	396	475	871	531	546	1077
14	G/Aluto	74	62	136	153	238	391	227	300	527
15	Bochessa	313	81	394	411	578	989	724	659	1383
16	A/Danaba	223	76	299	434	657	1091	657	733	1390
17	Dodicha	87	60	147	187	239	426	274	299	573
18	W/Qancara	228	57	285	536	731	1267	764	788	1552
19	S/udusa	299	75	374	776	1008	1784	1075	1083	2158
20	W/Boramo	253	160	413	682	820	1502	935	980	1915
21	Q/Garbi	313	38	351	379	642	1021	692	680	1372
22	W/Washigula	283	241	524	887	1010	1897	1170	1251	2421
	Total	5885	2673	8558	11993	15716	27709	17878	18389	36267

Source: ATJK ARD Office, Feb, 2011

Direct Support Beneficiary kebeles of ATJK Woreda

No.	Name of Kebele	Household head			Family size			Total benefici	
		Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
1	Naqa	10	35	45	52	43	95	62	78
2	Reji	16	28	44	39	51	90	55	79
3	Baraa Hobbicho	44	111	155	150	154	304	194	268
4	Chitu Geto	83	105	188	243	236	479	326	341
5	Elelan Ababu	14	51	65	22	16	38	36	67
6	Lelliso Danbe	36	21	57	21	58	79	57	79
7	Danbe Adansho	80	49	129	124	146	270	204	195
8	Adansho Bornota	10	35	45	45	36	81	55	71
9	Adansho Gogessa	7	20	27	50	38	88	57	58
10	Haroressa Qalbo	4	14	18	3	6	9	7	20
11	Hurufaa Lole	2	20	22	11	14	25	13	34
12	Qarxafa Waransa	12	55	67	36	43	79	48	98
13	Aluto	12	29	41	17	26	43	29	55
14	Golba Aluto	8	33	41	12	19	31	20	52
15	Bochessa	28	45	73	7	38	45	35	83
16	Abbayi Danaba	18	32	50	88	82	170	106	114
17	Dodicha	14	37	51	21	43	64	35	80
18	Wayiso Qancara	8	22	30	28	21	49	36	43
19	Suro Qudusa	1	30	31	23	5	28	24	35
20	Wilicho Boramo	9	57	66	18	27	45	27	84
21	Qamo Garbi	7	40	47	30	16	46	37	56
22	Warja Washigula	12	43	55	22	18	40	34	61
	Total	435	912	1347	1062	1136	2198	1497	2048

Source: ATJK ARD Office, Feb, 2011

Annex: 3

Name of graduated Households in surveyed kebele of Adami Tulu Jido Komkolcha Woreda

No	Name of HH	Sex	Year of graduation	Number of family			Kebele
				Male	Female	Total	
1	Fayisa Huluka	M	2008	2	1	3	Dodicha
2	Gana Dekamo	M	2008	1	2	3	Dodicha
3	Chala Guya	M	2008	1	1	2	Dodicha
4	Aliyyi Wayesso	M	2008	1	2	3	Dodicha
5	Gamachu Badane	M	2008	2	1	3	Dodicha
6	Shinta Lalo	F	2008	1	3	4	Dodicha
7	Kabeto Bunke	M	2008	1	2	3	Dodicha
8	Wayyu Legemo	M	2008	1	2	3	Dodicha
9	Fayo Dawa	M	2009	3	1	4	Dodicha
10	Dakabi Safo	M	2009	1	1	2	Dodicha
11	Qasim Gudato	M	2009	2	1	3	Dodicha
12	Nura Ararso	M	2008	3	3	6	W/ Washigul
13	Ijaro Galato	M	2008	1	7	8	W/ Washigul
14	Kabale Safo	F	2008	2	3	5	W/ Washigul
15	Bara Kumbi	F	2008	3	4	7	W/ Washigul
16	Kabale Abush	F	2008	4	2	6	W/ Washigul
17	Ashimi Badane	M	2008	4	4	8	W/ Washigul
18	Bukura Simbire	M	2008	5	7	12	W/ Washigul
19	Abu Bariso	M	2008	3	5	8	W/ Washigul
20	Buja Hedato	M	2009	2	6	8	W/ Washigul
21	Buna Argo	F	2009	3	1	4	W/ Washigul
22	Basha Ankashi	F	2009	0	1	1	W/ Washigul
23	Abato Hirpho	M	2009	3	5	8	W/ Washigul
24	Wako Konshe	M	2009	2	4	6	W/ Washigul
25	Hamu Waticho	M	2009	4	2	6	W/ Washigul

26	Kamadi Hirpho	F	2009	3	3	6	W/ Washigul
27	Shoto Lalo	M	2009	5	2	7	W/ Washigul
28	Batiri Hedato	M	2009	4	2	6	W/ Washigul
29	Jaldo Banti	M	2009	2	3	5	W/ Washigul
30	Bado Wabegno	M	2008	8	4	12	Bochessa
31	Leliso Tola	M	2008	4	3	7	Bochessa
32	Wado Adao	M	2008	4	6	10	Bochessa
33	Bariso Horsisa	M	2008	5	5	10	Bochessa
34	Mola Taji	M	2008	3	3	6	Bochessa
35	Tesfaye Taji	M	2008	5	4	9	Bochessa
36	Ayelech Girma	F	2008	0	1	1	Bochessa
37	Adao Bariso	M	2008	4	4	8	Bochessa
38	Bakuye Kuxo	M	2008	4	1	5	Bochessa
39	Badane Kuxo	M	2008	6	4	10	Bochessa
40	Haji Hayato	M	2008	5	3	8	Bochessa
41	Fayiso Felo	M	2008	5	4	9	Bochessa
42	Amalo Tuni	M	2008	4	5	9	Bochessa
43	Naga Dubale	M	2009	2	1	3	Bochessa
44	Hirpho Badaso	M	2009	2	1	3	Bochessa
45	Shewangizaw Yesuf	M	2009	2	2	4	Bochessa
46	Nuguse Korjo	M	2009	2	2	4	Bochessa
47	Bori Gudata	M	2009	3	1	4	Bochessa
48	Bantashe Gudato	F	2009	2	1	3	Bochessa
49	Zamach Degago	M	2009	1	1	2	Bochessa
50	Bariso Fayiso	M	2009	1	2	3	Bochessa
51	Maritu Borshe	F	2009	1	1	2	Bochessa
52	Tesfaye Kuto	M	2009	2	2	4	Bochessa
53	Gamachu Degago	M	2009	2	2	4	Bochessa
54	Gemachu Gudiso	M	2009	4	4	8	Bochessa
55	Abulo Tibesso	M	2009	6	3	9	Bochessa
56	Kadiro Leliso	M	2009	7	2	9	Bochessa

Annex: 4

Sixteen steps are envisaged to introduce the use of the graduation benchmarks in the participant selection process and asset benchmark of Oromia Regional State

- Step 1. Preparation of regional guidelines for graduation
- Step 2. Awareness raising and training of woreda representatives on the graduation criteria and process.
- Step 3. Awareness raising among kebele representatives, elders and CFSTF representatives on the graduation criteria and process.
- Step 4. Briefing on the graduation criteria and process to all kebele members
- Step 5. DA's prepare an overview of household assets of all PSNP participants who have taken a household package and credit
- Step 6. Using the Graduation guidelines, CFSTF prepares the list of proposed graduates for the coming year. As outlined above this includes three sets of analysis, including a detailed assessment of household asset holdings to determine who can graduate from the Programme (see section 5 II)
- Step 7. CFSTF post list of proposed graduates and seeks comments and endorsement from the general community meeting
- Step 8. CFSTF finalizes the list of proposed graduates and forwards it to the KFSTF for verification and further action.
- Step 9. KFSTF and Kebele Council verify the list, correct possible errors and submit the list of proposed graduates for approval to the WFSTF.
- Step 10. WFSTF verifies, corrects possible errors and submits the list of proposed graduates to the Woreda council for final approval.
- Step 11. Woreda council approves the list of proposed graduates and submits it to the Regional BoARD.
- Step 12. WFSTF sends approved list of households graduated from the PSNP to KFSTF for posting at community level.
- Step 13. CFSTF briefs community on the final list of households graduated from the PSNP and raises awareness that they can raise complaints through the appeals committee.
- Step 14. Kebele council and the appeals committee collects graduation-related appeals,

respond and correct the list of households graduated from the PSNP where appropriate.

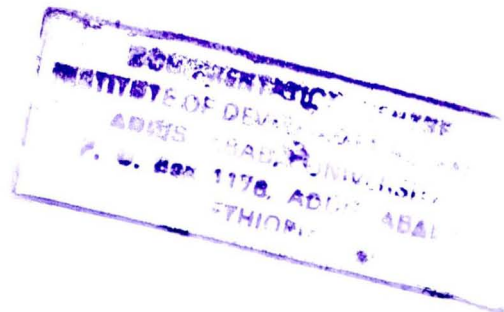
Step 15. Kebele council submits final list of households graduated from the PSNP to WFSTF for verification and approval.

Step 16. WFSTF verifies, approves and informs the Woreda council and regional BoARD on adjustments to the list of households graduated from the PSNP based on the appeals process.

Assets and income considered for regional benchmark of Oromia Regional State

No.	Asset	No/Kg (average)	Benefits	Average asset values
1	Cattle (Ox, Cow, Heifer, Bull)	6	Drought power, milk, manure, consumption, cash income	8461
2	Equines (Donkey, Mule)	1	Rent(income) and manure	1044
3	Shaots (Sheep and Goats)	8	Consumption cash income	1762
4	Poultry	6	Egg, manure	96
5	Apiary/Behives	2	Nutrition, cash income	622
6	Food crop	13	Consumption, sale	3278
7	IGA (chat, coffee species petty trade, others (equivalently valued assets)		Consumption cash income	3,924
Average				19,187

Source: Oromia FSDPPC GGN, Jan, 2008





Productive Safety Net Programme

CHARTER OF RIGHTS AND RESPONSIBILITIES

RIGHTS

- ~ If you have been selected as a PSNP beneficiary you must be issued with a Client Card free of charge.
- ~ You have the right to receive your transfer on time. You should receive your transfer no later than 45 days after the month to which the payment relates.
- ~ You have the right to receive your full transfer. You will be informed of the transfer rates at the beginning of the year. No one should deduct any money for any reason from your transfer.
- ~ If you are more than four months pregnant, in your first 10 months breastfeeding your child, or weakened through age, illness or disability you should not participate in public works. If your status changes in the course of the year due to sickness or pregnancy, you have the right to shift between public works and direct support.
- ~ Your household should not provide more than five days of labour per household member per month. Furthermore, no one person should work for more than 20 days a month.
- ~ You have the right to appeal if you have been incorrectly excluded or have not been categorised correctly as direct support or public works.
- ~ You have the right to know the criteria for graduation and to remain in the programme if you do not meet these criteria.

RESPONSIBILITIES

- ~ You must provide accurate and complete information to targeting committees.
- ~ Households with able bodied members must provide labour for public works and be committed to complete works to an acceptable standard.
- ~ You must not send a child under 16 to contribute their labour to public works
- ~ You must present your Client Card at the transfer site to record the receipt of payment.
- ~ Should you lose your card you must report its loss immediately to the Kebele Administration.
- ~ You have a responsibility to build your assets and work towards graduation
- ~ You must report any abuses of these rights whether affecting yourself or your neighbour to the Kebele Appeal Committee. If you are not satisfied with the response you may pursue your complaint up to the Woreda Council.

Annex:6 **Annual Budget of PSNP of ATJK Woreda**

Table PSNP-W3: Public Works Outputs Reporting Forms
 Woreda Monthly Expenditures by program Component Report
 Adami Tullu Jido Kombolcha Woreda

Year 2002

Program Component	Actual Expenditure (Birr)	% (actual/Planned)
Public Workes	10,880,100.00	100
Direct Support	1,063,500.00	100
TOTAL	11,943,600.00	100
Capital	2,195,499.33	98.0
Admin	745,646.27	99.89
Contingency (5%)	746,400.00	99.99
Contingency (15%)	1,791,580.00	100
Ground Total	17,422,725.60	99.7

Source: ATJK ARD Office, Feb, 2011